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SERIA ŞTIINŢE FILOLOGICE

LIMBI STRĂINE APLICATE

ANUL XIII, Nr. 1/2017

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C U P R I N S / C O N T E N T S / S O M M A I R E

"Taming" Disruptive Students in ELT

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ABSTRACT

Disruptive students in higher education are not as frequently met as in Primary, Secondary School or High school mainly because they are adults; still, once a teacher has them in the class, the whole process of teaching becomes unbearable and may end in a complete failure unless adequate methods, ideas and solutions are provided. Proper behaviour management skills may lead to productivity and success.

KEYWORDS: disruptive, academic students, English language

One of the first theorists to be preoccupied with this aspect is Skinner who considered that *"anyone can manipulate behaviour by first identifying what the individual finds rewarding"*. Another researcher Rogers highlighted that *"an individual must be persuaded to want to behave appropriately"*. (<http://en.m.wikipedia.org>)

Rewarding adults is, for sure, much more difficult to do than in the case of children. Adults are willing to accept verbal praise if they consider that they have taken a step forward in mastering new notions. Once they feel they understand a new grammar rule or they can fluently express themselves in English or simply solve vocabulary exercises they used to consider impossible before, they are open to embrace the teacher's rewards or praise. Such a positive reinforcement increases their motivation and raises the level of attention in class. On the contrary, too much praise may lead to negative consequences. In time, they lose their trust in the teacher's ability to judge their performance and may become unmotivated. Adults really need to be respected not only by the teacher but also by their peers; they need time to achieve success and to find the relevancy of the instructional process.

Persuading disruptive university students to behave in a good way during lessons takes a long time and requires patience, power of conviction from the part of the teacher that English is a useful subject, which may bring them future benefits and may help them grow and develop in their careers. However, before proceeding to analysing the measures, which can be used to "resist", and "tackle" bad behaviour it is essential to point out which are some of the motives that generate it.

Reasons for disruptiveness in Higher Education

1) External factors may overwhelm students and can influence their power of thinking and understanding. Having a part-time job, which may occupy their free time or other academic problems such as exam failures or the feeling that the faculty they are attending is not the right one for them, distract their participation in class and hinders the adequate acquisition of English. After work, students may react differently. Some may feel very energetic, ready to engage in the learning process, others may find the English class as a suitable time for relaxation. In this case, the teacher should try to challenge them with activities which can lead them to absorb new ideas and which can help them register progress.

2) Make sure the students in the class are approximately of the same level of knowledge as far as English is concerned. If not, students should be divided into groups with a similar English level. Nowadays, English is taught since Kindergarten but many students lose interest in time and do not manage to achieve fluency. An initial test is a suitable idea for setting the right starting point of the teaching process on the basis of the students' information related to English. Unless a proper distribution of students in the class is done, students with poor knowledge of English will consider the lesson too difficult to understand, while those who master it well, will need a complex content-based lesson that will improve their current level.

3) Punctuality is essential for the English teacher as well as for the students. Being late will disturb the normal course of the lesson and will lead to a feeling of uncertainty.

4) Lack of interest for the topics presented in the class. A lesson should never bring into discussion topics, which are not suitable such as politics, religion, etc, or others, which are far from the students' interest. Conversational issues should be centred on the aspects of their future jobs, on the current news from their field of study or other entertaining subjects such as hobbies, free time, etc. The content of the syllabus is of utmost importance and should be "shaped" according to their English level. For instance, do not be afraid to "plunge" into the world of public speaking with an advanced class of students since:

> Incorporating public speaking in the curriculum adds variety and fun to activities and encourages students to take risks and experiment with language while in the safe environment of the classroom. The activities also encourage students to work together in pairs, groups, and on their own to develop a familiarity in working with others, and they allow students to build their knowledge base by helping others and being confident enough to ask for help.
>
> (Nancy, Claxton, 2008: 18)

5) Inability to understand the instructions or the materials; in the case of a foreign language class, such as English, the teacher may confront himself/herself with disruptiveness as a consequence of a poor understanding of the taught materials or as a result of the students’ inability to achieve progress; this has a major impact on them; the English teachers need to be sure students understand the meaning of the tasks they are given and the way they should be completed.

6) Lack of enthusiasm on the part of the teacher; at this age, students immediately sense if the teacher is not in the right mood to teach them or that he/she doesn’t do his/her job with passion. The success or the failure of the lesson will depend on the teacher’s behaviour and attitude.

> In the university context, the disruptive student may have genuine complaints about the performance of the lecturer. Some university lecturers prioritize their research and may not give the same attention to their teaching. This lack of enthusiasm for teaching is often clearly evident to students. Or the students may be dissatisfied with the content of the curriculum.
>
> (Shalini, Wadhwa, 2006: 79)

7) Large number of students in the class is a burden for everybody. Foreign language classes rely heavily on practice, therefore it is advisable to cope with reasonable groups

There is a wide range of causes for misbehaviour when it comes to higher education classes but the teacher is the central key, which may open the door to a favourable outcome.

Old and Modern Patterns of Disruptiveness

Disruptive behaviour is a wide concept which may embrace various shapes. In the case of higher education, it should not be perceived under the form of verbal or physical “violence” since adults are more conscious of the importance of the teacher in their professional development and more interested and focused on activities than younger students. Yelling, crying or other types of outburst are not expected to occur with adults. In the case of Higher Education system, forms of misbehaviour may refer to talking to their peers during the lectures, laughing, not paying attention to the tasks that are required to be fulfilled, chewing gum while speaking about a topic, laughing, drawing etc.

Modern technology has facilitated and fastened a great deal the acquisition of English but at the same time has caught even the best, most serious and hard working students in the trap of the digitalised world. While being in class, students are constantly driven by the desire to check up their Facebook profiles for any possible new posts that may appear, to send text messages, to access websites such as twitter, “linked in” and others in order to keep in touch with those around them or simply check up for the information that the teacher offers them. It’s not easy for an English teacher to captivate them up to the point where they give up surfing the web and focus on the lesson. Suitable interest in the subject matter may be achieved by turning this negative aspect into a positive one. Technology may be included in the lesson, providing a challenging learning support and a broad perspective on the acquisition of a foreign language. It sounds simple but it requires a great deal of effort, time and patience from the part of the teacher. Still, it is not something to be scared of but should rather be perceived as a way to develop the lesson according to the

> One of the big misconceptions about technology integration is that teachers have to learn how to teach all over again. This couldn't be further from the truth. At the core, technology integration can save us time and make us more efficient, organised educators. Instead of pushing back technology integration, first see what it can do for you."
> (Marcinek, Andrew, 2015: 102)

A teacher who adapts to the ever-changing landscape of methods and techniques can turn into an excellent instructor. There have lately appeared a huge number of books with all kind of strategies and tools meant to train teachers about modern technology and the way they can use it to design wonderfully illustrated lessons accompanied by sound, interactive exercises and animated activities.

Technology is a powerful instrument to combat the lack of attention but, sometimes, students' level of stress crosses the borders of a well taught lessons. Teaching should rely on a great variety of stimuli and activities.

Bridge the gap to the "misbehaved'

Misbehaved students should not become the teacher's one and only target but it is a situation which cannot be ignored. Positive academic environment is associated with high level of efficiency therefore it is advisable to establish some guidelines to be followed.

The first priority is to spot the misbehaved and identify the causes that lie behind their gestures or commentaries. Make time to listen to their opinions and try to set a visual connection to them. Devote more time to make them speak and express their opinions. Capture their attention to the point at which they become too captivated to reply negatively. Under no circumstances, use warnings or other forms of threats. In most cases, a bad attitude with academic students is the result of personal matters, a lack of trust in their own abilities to master the language, difficulty in communicating with the classmates, etc. It is not intentionally addressed to the teacher, as a consequence, it shouldn't be turned into a confrontation but into a respectful and calm attitude. Try to induce team spirit and cooperative learning. It is best to group students personally to avoid potential conflicts.

> Teams may be categorized according to how their members relate to each other and work together (…). Teaching teams (…) generate synergy through collaboration. Because the fruits of their efforts are often very visible and since team members' excitement is often contagious, they provide inspiration for others to engage in collaboration.

(Eisen, Mary Jane, Tisdell, Elisabeth, 2000: 12)

Highlight their strengths and progress in a realistic way. Do not over-react but don't neglect to emphasize fruitful efforts. Avoid comparisons between classmates and try to adapt to their own pace. Slow down if you feel they are not following you anymore or hurry up if they are already familiar with the information you are providing. Draw their attention with a captivating visual lesson, with authentic materials based on useful information and using modern technological devices. Don't miss the opportunity to give them examples of the way the acquisition of a foreign language such as English helped people promote in their careers or found a successful job. They may forget in time some information but they will remember the English classes as a nice "adventure", they will develop the interest in self-study and the curiosity to deepen their knowledge.

Conclusions

Teaching adults is for sure a work, which requires great patience, involvement and power of adaptability from the part of the teacher. Adults are sometimes rigid and thus, the teacher should prove to be flexible, understanding and convincing. Otherwise, things can degenerate, the teacher may lose control and students may start to misbehave. According to Nicholas Corder:

> Teaching adults is both a terrifying and rewarding experience. Every time you do it unless you've had some sort of sensory bypass there is that fear. Perhaps this time they'll find you out; you'll dry up; it won't work; run out of things to do; they won't co-operate; they'll ask you questions you've no idea how to answer. (…) Eventually, of course, all of these things do happen, but you get beyond them.
>
> (Corder, Nicholas, 2002: xi)

Such moments may appear during the teaching process but, in time, an English teacher can overcome them if he/she has a passion for teaching, if he/she devotes time for preparing the lesson, if he/she is open to the new technological approaches. Even disruptive behaviour can be corrected and completely removed if the lesson is appealing, the attitude of the teacher is an appropriate one and the class environment is a positive one. This way, teaching academic students who are adults may become an enjoyable experience for everybody. *"Teaching adults is a privilege and delight. Nothing can beat the feeling of seeing students (...) gain new skills and confidence and embark on a positive new phase of their lives."* (Hayes, Amanda, 2006: xvi)

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Formarea competenţei de lectură în cadrul cursului de limba română ca limbă străină

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ABSTRACT: Formation of reading competence in the Romanian language course as a foreign language

Receptive skills are the ways in which people decode a message that they read or listen to. When reading, we employ our previous knowledge, and deploy certain receptive skills, which will be selected according to the type of text and our reading purpose. The teaching and learning of these skills present a range of particular aspects, such as the type of reading, the selection of materials, the reading activities and reading round the class. This article addresses teachers of Romanian as a foreign language, who need to be aware of these aspects and consider them when planning lessons focused on building reading skills.

KEYWORDS: *skills, reading, text*

Formarea abilităţilor de comunicare într-o limbă străină se bazează pe formarea și dezvoltarea unor competenţe specifice. După cum se știe, cele patru competenţe de bază sunt: cititul, ascultatul, vorbitul și scrisul în limba ţintă. Înţelegerea discursului scris sau oral (cititul și ascultatul) presupune receptarea unui mesaj, în timp ce alcătuirea unui discurs scris sau oral (vorbitul și scrisul) presupune producerea unui mesaj. În cele ce urmează, vom aborda aspecte referitoare la receptarea mesajului scris. Trebuie precizat, însă, că aptitudinile mai sus menţionate nu constituie entităţi separate deoarece vorbitorii adesea folosesc o combinaţie de competenţe pentru a-și putea comunica.

Cititul: competenţă și sub-competenţe

Când citesc un text în limba română, mulţi studenţi se așteaptă sau se străduiesc să înţeleagă fiecare cuvânt. Acest „citit intensiv" poate fi util pentru înţelegerea unor structuri gramaticale sau pentru îmbogăţirea vocabularului, dar nu aceasta este modalitatea în care citim în viaţa reală, când adesea citim în scopuri specifice, cum ar fi găsirea unor informaţii sau a unor idei principale într-un text. De exemplu, dacă citim o revistă cu programul TV pe o săptămână, nu trebuie să parcurgem tot textul pentru a afla ce putem privi la televizor sâmbătă seara. Prin urmare, pentru a forma competenţa de lectură într-un mod eficient, profesorul ar trebuie să se axeze pe un număr de „sub-competenţe” care îi vor ajuta pe studenţi să înţeleagă conţinutul a ceea ce citesc.

Principalele sub-competenţe în cazul cititului sunt:

- **predicţia**. Aceasta înseamnă a citi pentru a ne confirma așteptările în legătură cu mesajul unui text. De exemplu, dacă vedem un articol de ziar intitulat „Tu știi ce mănânci?”, putem presupune că este vorba de calitatea produselor alimentare din magazine. Lectura textului ne va confirma sau infirma predicţia noastră iniţială.

- **lectura rapidă a textului**. Aceasta presupune parcurgerea rapidă a întregului text pentru a înţelege, în mare, despre ce este vorba. Ca sarcină de lucru, studenţilor li se va cere să răspundă la anumite întrebări, de genul: „Textul este un articol de ziar sau un extras dintr-o autobiografie?” Parcurgând rapid un text, putem găsi teme principale, idei generale, etc.

- **scanarea textului**. Uneori citim pentru a extrage din text informaţii specifice. În acest caz, parcurgem rapid întregul text, dar citim cu atenţie doar partea care conţine informaţia care ne interesează. Astfel, putem lectura recenzia unei cărţi numai pentru a afla numele personajelor principale sau anul publicaţiei.

- **lectura în detaliu**. Citim adesea pentru a afla informaţii detaliate despre un anumit subiect. La curs, studenţii vor trebui să răspundă la întrebări precum: „Cine?”, „Ce?”, „De ce?”, „Cât de des?”, „Câţi/Câte?”, etc.

Toate aceste sub-competenţe se află în mintea noastră la nivel subconștient și le folosim atunci când abordăm un text în limba maternă. Cu toate acestea, când avem de a face cu un text într-o limbă străină, ne confruntăm cu un blocaj emoţional pe care îl putem depăși prin dezvoltarea sub-competenţelor menţionate.

Când citesc un text, este foarte probabil ca studenţii să întâlnească mai multe cuvinte pe care nu le cunosc. Ca activitate de învăţare, profesorul poate să le ceară să caute în dicţionar cuvintele necunoscute. La nivel intermediar sau avansat, este de preferat ca profesorul să-i încurajeze pe studenţi să deducă sensul cuvintelor nefamiliare din contextul în care acestea apar. Studenţii au deja un bagaj de cuvinte și pot folosi cunoştinţele anterioare pentru a-și da seama de înţelesul cuvintelor noi.

Pe lângă cunoștinţele de gramatică și vocabular, studenţii au și un bagaj considerabil de cunoștințe generale la care se pot raporta cu scopul de a descifra sensul un text. Înţelegerea unui discurs, fie el scris sau oral, presupune mai mult decât a ști gramatică; mai exact, presupune o cunoaștere anterioară a lumii. Noi putem înţelege ceea ce vedem sau auzim pentru că noua informaţie se pliază pe ceea ce știm deja și se conectează cu experienţele noastre anterioare de cunoaștere. De exemplu, noi putem recunoaște o scrisoare de mulţumire sau o ofertă de muncă de la primele cuvinte. Aceste cunoștinte anterioare și folosirea sub-competenţei adecvate îi vor ajuta pe studenţi să citească mai ușor și mai eficient.

La vederea unui text, cunoştinţele noastre anterioare ne vor spune imediat dacă suntem în faţa unui manual de utilizare a unei imprimante sau în faţa unei pagini de roman. Recunoscând genul textului, vom putea anticipa forma textului, a paragrafelor, etc. Cuvintele cheie ne vor ajuta să facem predicţii referitoare la subiectul textului și la desfășurarea evenimentelor. Lectura devine astfel modalitatea prin care noi verificăm dacă predicţiile noastre anterioare au fost corecte sau nu. În același timp, identificarea tipului de text va face ca așteptările noastre referitoare la un manual de utilizare a imprimantei să fie diferite de așteptările pe care ni le crează o pagină de roman.

Scopul lecturii

Când citim informaţiile dintr-un ghid turistic, scopurile noastre sunt diferite de situaţia în care citim o pagină de roman. Discutând motivele pentru care citim sau ascultăm, Jeremy Harmer (200-1) propune o împărţire a acestora în două mari categorii:

- *Instrumentale*: adesea citim pentru că lectura ne ajută să atingem un obiectiv clar. De expemplu, citim semnele de pe autostradă sau o hartă ca să știm unde mergem, citim informaţiile de pe un bilet de tren ca să aflăm detaliile referitoare la călătorie sau lecturăm un manual de utilizare a unui aparat electrocasnic ca să învăţăm să-l folosim corect. În toate aceste situaţii, lectura servește drept instrument de atingere a un scop bine definit.

- Din plăcere: un alt tip de lectură izvorăște din plăcerea de a citi. Astfel, oamenii citesc ziare, reviste, sau sunt interesaţi de literatură.

Aceste două tipuri de motivaţie nu se exclud reciproc și citirea instrumentală poate fi făcută din plăcere. Parcurgerea unui manual de limbă română, de exemplu, poate avea un scop instrumental (cititorul are nevoie de cunoștinţe pentru a învăţa și a putea comunica în română), dar poate fi și din plăcere. În cazul predării unei limbi străine, trebuie luate în considerare ambele tipuri de motivaţie pentru că fiecare presupune competenţe diferite de receptare a unui text și ajută profesorul să aleagă genul și tipurile de text de care studenţii vor avea nevoie și pe care vor trebui să le poată înţelege.

Alegerea textului

Un aspect important al cititului în clasă, atât pentru profesori cât și pentru metodiști, îl constituie selecţia textelor. Ce text să predăm? Un text autentic sau un text creat în scopuri didactice? Textele autentice, scrise pemtru vorbitorii nativi, cum ar fi un articol de ziar, o scrisoare de afaceri sau o pagină de literatură, ajută studenţii să-și însușească limba reală și competenţele de lectură necesare. Cu toate acestea, este problematic să se predea texte autentice începătorilor pentru că este foarte probabil ca ei să nu înţeleagă o bună parte din ele și, în consecinţă, să se simtă demoralizaţi. Textele scrise în scop didactic, utilizate frecvent de manualele destinate românei ca limbă străină, sunt texte concepute special pentru vorbitorii non-nativi. Acestea sunt axate în principal pe elementele de limbă care sunt predate. De exemplu, un text ca acesta este scris cu scopul de a preda pluralul substantivelor:

La facultate, într-o sală de curs, sunt studenţi străini dintr-o grupă de dimineaţă. Acum ei au un curs de limba română.

Profesoara: - Ce lucruri sunt în sală?
Katarina: - În sală sunt bănci, scaune, o catedră și o tablă.
Jamshaid: - Lângă ușă este un cuier, iar lângă fereastră este un dulap pentru cărţi.
Profesoara: - Ce este pe tablă?
Katarina: - Pe tablă sunt cuvinte în limba română.
Profesoara: - Bine! Dar pe bancă ce aveţi?
Jamshaid: - Pe bancă eu am un caiet, un manual de limba română, un dicţionar și două pixuri.
Katarina: - Eu am un telefon, hârtii și două creioane.
Profesoara: - Pe perete ce este?
Katarina: - Pe perete sunt hărţi și tablouri.
Profesoara: - Câte hărţi și câte tablouri sunt?
Katarina: - Sunt două hărţi și trei tablouri.
Profesoara: - Mulţumesc, Katarina! Câţi studenţi sunteţi voi în sală?
Jamshaid: - Suntem doisprezece studenţi.
Profesoara: - Și de unde sunteţi voi?
Jamshaid: - Doi colegi sunt din Liban, trei din Siria, șase din Serbia, patru din Bulgaria și unul din Israel.
Profesoara: - Bine, mulţumesc! Acum aveţi pauză.

(Bălănescu, 39)

În funcţie de nivelul grupei, profesorii au nevoie de texte pe care studenţii să le poată înţelege, fie ele autentice, sau nu. Trebuie luate în considerare acele texte care furnizează modele realiste de limbă română scrisă. În același timp, este necesar ca textele să fie utile, interesante și relevante pentru nevoile de învăţare ale cursanţilor.

Studenţii stăini înscriși în Anul pregătitor de limba română studiază atât noţiuni de română generală, cât și limbaje de specialitate, în funcţie de facultatea pe care o vor urma. În cazul unei grupe de medicină, de exemplu, profesorii de limbă română trebuie să predea un curs de terminologie medicală, ceea ce pune serioase dificultăţi în alegerea și predarea textelor. O primă problemă rezidă în noul domeniu de studiu pe care profesorii trebuie să-l abordeze. Ei sunt specialiști în predarea limbii române, dar trebuie să lucreze pe texte al căror conţinut nu le este familiar. În consecinţă, de la bun început, profesorul, cel care predă, este pus în situaţia studentului, a celui care învaţă. La prima vedere, s-ar putea crede că un text știinţific de medicină nu poate pune probleme majore unui vorbitor nativ, dar există o serie de termeni specializaţi și concepte pe care profesorul nu le cunoaște. El descoperă, așadar, că bagajul său de cunoștinţe generale trebuie îmbogăţit cu noţiuni care aparţin noului domeniu de studiu și că este necesară o pregătire suplimentară pentru a se încadra în acest nou orizont de cunoaștere. Cu toate acestea, nu se așteaptă ca profesorul de limbă română să devină specialist în medicină sau profesor de biologie. Ceea ce se cere este o atitudine pozitivă faţă de conţinutul ştiinţific al textelor cu profil medical și de cunoașterea unor noţiuni fundamentale ale acestui domeniu de studiu. Profesorul trebuie să-și amintească în permanenţă că obiectivul său este să îmbunătăţească competenţele ligvistice ale studenţilor și să înlesnească procesul de învăţare, nu să predea medicină în limba română. Din această perspectivă, profesorul de limbă română pentru străini are un rol în plus, acela de „designer", în sensul că el trebuie să creeze cursuri şi materiale care să corespundă atât nivelului lor de cunoştinţe în domeniul medical, cât și nevoilor și așteptărilor studenţilor. Uneori, este necesar ca profesorul să negocieze cu studenţii și să ajungă la un acord în ceea ce privește conţinutul cursului de limbaj medical. El ar putea, de asemenea, să negocieze cu specialiști în domeniu, cu care ar trebui să colaboreze. Decurge de aici un nou rol al profesorului, acela de „negociator".

Sarcini de lucru pe baza unui text

Modelul metodologic de bază folosit în predarea competenţelor de receptare a unui text scris sau oral include:

1. activităţi pre-lectură. Aceasta este o etapă introductivă, în timpul căreia studenţii se familiarizează cu subiectul textului și cu temele cheie ale acestuia. Obiectivul este acela de a le stârni interesul în legătură cu respectivul subiect. Activităţile preliminare sunt de obicei scurte (nu ar trebui să depășească cinci minute) și pot include: o sesiune de brainstorming pe baza titlului sau a unei imagini asociate textului, predicţii referitoare la subiectul textului, formularea unor întrebări la care studenţii speră să găsească răspunsuri în text, etc.

2. activităţi în timpul lecturii. În timp ce citesc, studenţilor li se cere să rezolve anumite sarcini bazate pe:
- lectură rapidă pentru găsirea unor informaţii esenţiale. De exemplu, studenţii trebuie să verifice textul pentru a afla dacă predicţiile lor iniţiale sunt corecte; să găsească în text cuvinte cheie sau ideile principale; să stabilească dacă anumite afirmaţii sunt adevărate sau false; să pună în ordine paragrafele, etc.
- lectură rapidă pentru găsirea unor informaţii specifice. Astfel de activităţi cer studenţilor să găsească anumite informaţii în text, să răspundă la întrebări pe baza textului, să completeze enunţuri cu informaţii care lipsesc, etc.
- lectură atentă pentru înţelegerea textului sau evidenţierea unor elemente de limbă. Studenţilor li se va cere să stabilească sensul cuvintelor necunoscute în funcţie de context, să folosească dicţionare, să rezolve anumite exerciţii gramaticale sau de vocabular, etc.

3. activităţi post-lectură. După ce termină de citit, studenţii vor avea de rezolvat sarcini care au legătură cu textul, ca de exemplu dezbateri, jocuri de rol, povestirea textului, găsirea unui alt final sau compuneri pe baza textului.

În general, o lecţie de formare a competenţei de lectură urmăreşte acest model de sus în jos („top-down”), adică de la general la detaliu (Scrivener, 187). Majoritatea profesorilor sunt de acord cu ideea că în viaţa reală receptăm discursul scris sau oral în această manieră și își structurează lecţiile în consecinţă. Sunt și profesori care preferă un model de jos în sus și abordează direct detaliile unui text. În principiu, se pot folosi ambele strategii, în funcţie de studenţi și de nevoile lor de învăţare.

În funcţie de tipul de text și de nivelul grupei, profesorul decide care activităţi sunt utile pentru dezvoltarea competenţelor specifice de lectură. Printre cele mai cunoscute sarcini de lucru pe baza unui text, se numără următoarele:

- Priviţi fotografiile și spuneţi despre ce credeţi că este vorba în text.
- Înainte de a citi textul, spuneţi ce știţi deja despre acest subiect.
- Citiţi articolul și găsiţi un titlu potrivit (sau alegeţi-l pe cel mai adecvat dintre mai multe titluri date).
- Găsiţi un titlu potrivit pentru fiecare paragraf (sau potriviţi paragrafele cu titlurile date).
- Găsiţi locul potrivi al unor propoziţii care au fost scoase din text și care sunt date la începutul sau la finalul textului.
- Citiţi repede articolul pentru a găsi o anumită informaţie.
- Citiţi textul și selectaţi, din trei variante, răspunsul corect la următoarele întrebări.
- Citiţi textul și răspundeţi la întrebări.
- Puneţi paragrafele în ordine pentru a recrea textul.
- Priviţi o listă de evenimente și puneţi-le în ordine.
- Citiţi textul și decideţi dacă următoarele afirmaţii sunt adevărate (A), false (F), sau nemenţionate (N).
- Găsiţi în text informaţii pentru a completa un tabel.
- Citiţi scrisoarea și răspundeţi expeditorului.
- Terminaţi povestirea.
- Faceţi un dialog pe baza textului.
- Găsiţi în text sinonime pentru următoarele cuvinte.

În alegerea activităţilor de verificare a gradului de înţelegere a unui text, profesorul trebuie să ia în considerare și sub-competenţele de care studenţii au nevoie. Astfel, pentru a alege sarcinile de lucru potrivite, profesorul trebuie să fie atent la ce subcompetenţă face apel fiecare sarcină.

Activităţi pentru profesori

1. Studiaţi tipurile de text de mai jos și bifaţi motivele pentru care se face lectura și modalitatea adecvată de lectură pentru fiecare tip de text.

Tipuri de text	**Motivele lecturii**		**Modalitatea de lectură**		
	Informaţie	Plăcere	Lectură rapidă pentru informaţii esenţiale	Lectură rapidă pentru informaţii specifice	Lectură detaliată
un sondaj de opinie					
un articol de ziar					
instrucţiunile de folosire a unei imprimante					
o descriere					
un email de la un prieten					
un dialog între un medic și un pacient					
o scurtă povestire					
un articol de specialitate dintr-o revistă de medicină					
un anunţ pentru un loc de muncă					
semne rutiere					

2. Potriviţi activităţile 1-7 cu sub-competenţele A-H.

Activităţi	**Sub-competenţe**
1. Citiţi repede textul pentru a găsi anumite date.	A. lectură detaliată
2. Citiţi articolul pentru a vedea despre ce este vorba.	B. lectură în vederea transferului de informaţie
3. Găsiţi în text sinonime pentru următoa-rele cuvinte.	C. scanarea textului
4. Citiţi prospectul unui medicament și prezentaţi produsul unui client.	D. deducerea sensului din context
5. Subliniaţi cuvintele necunoscute din text și încercaţi să le deduceţi sensul din context.	E. lectură de plăcere
6.Citiţi articolul și spuneţi care este părerea autorului.	F. lectură rapidă
7. Citiţi finalul povestirii acasă.	G. deducerea unei atitudini

3. Analizaţi următoarele activităţi pe baza unui text. O parte dintre aceste activităţi provin din manualul *Limba română ca limbă străină*.
a) Identificaţi obiectivul fiecărei sarcini de lucru sau ce sub-competenţă urmărește să dezvolte.
b) Decideţi în ce ordine aţi preda aceste activităţi și completaţi tabelul următor.

Activităţi pre-lectură	Activităţi în timpul lecturii	Activităţi post-lectură

Activitatea 1

Citiţi textul și verificaţi părerile voastre iniţiale.

Ana Aslan s-a născut la 1 ianuarie 1897, la Brăila. A fost cel mai mic dintre cei patru copii pe care i-au avut Sofia și Mărgărit Aslan, ambii intelectuali de origine armeană. A urmat cursurile unui colegiu din Brăila. La 13 ani a rămas orfană de tată. Familia Aslan a părăsit orașul natal și s-a mutat la București. În 1915, Ana a absolvit *Şcoala Centrală* din București. La 16 ani, a visat să ajungă pilot și chiar a zburat cu un mic aparat, tip Bristol - Coandă. În cele din urmă s-a decis să devină medic. A declarat greva foamei pentru a înfrânge împotrivirea mamei și s-a înscris la *Facultatea de Medicină*.

În timpul Primului Război Mondial, Ana Aslan a îngrijit soldații în spitalele militare din spatele frontului de la Iași. După întoarcerea la București, în anul 1919, ea a lucrat alături de marele neurolog Gheorghe Marinescu. Trei ani mai târziu, a absolvit *Facultatea de Medicină*. A fost numită preparator la *Clinica II* din București, condusă de profesorul Daniel Danielopolu, care a îndrumat-o și în alcătuirea tezei de doctorat.

A urmat o activitate didactică și spitalicească la *Filantropia*, *Institutul Clinico-Medical al Facultății de Medicină* din București, *Clinica Medicală din Timișoara*, *Spitalul CFR*. Din 1949, a devenit șeful *Secției de fiziologie* de la *Institutul de Endocrinologie* din București. A fost punctul de plecare în cariera ei de gerontolog. A experimentat *procaina* în afecțiunile reumatice, în cazul unui student căzut la pat din cauza unei crize de artroză. A continuat cercetările într-un azil de bătrâni și a evidențiat importanța procainei în ameliorarea tulburărilor distrofice legate de vârstă. A folosit procaina pe scară largă sub numele de *Gerovital.* Numeroase personalități internaționale au urmat tratament cu Gerovital: Tito, Charles de Gaulle, Hrusciov, J. F. Kennedy, Indira Gandhi, Imelda Marcos, Marlene Dietrich, Charlie Chaplin, Kirk Douglas, Salvador Dali. Ana Aslan a inventat (în colaborare cu farmacista Elena Polovrăgeanu) produsul geriatric *Aslavital*, brevetat și introdus în producție industrială în 1980. *Gerovital H3*, produs original românesc, este primul medicament creat pentru a întârzia procesul de îmbătrânire.

Ana Aslan nu a avut copii și nu a fost căsătorită niciodată.

(Adaptare, sursă: <https://ro.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ana_Aslan>)

Activitatea 2

Decideţi dacă informaţiile sunt adevărate (A) sau false (F):

1. Ana Aslan a avut patru fraţi.

2. Tatăl său a murit în anul 1910.
3. Ana Aslan a făcut școala la București.
4. Cu acordul mamei, s-a înscris la Facultatea de Medicină.
5. Ana Aslan a avut grijă de soldaţii răniţi pe front.
6. A terminat Facultatea de Medicină în anul 1919.
7. După absolvirea facultăţii, a urmat o carieră de medic și profesor.
8. Cercetarea asupra procainei s-a desfășurat într-un azil de bătrâni.
9. Procaina are efect asupra artrozei și asupra procesului de îmbătrânire.
10. Ana Aslan a inventat Aslavital, care a început să fie produs în 1980.

<u>Activitatea 3</u>

Găsiţi în text sinonime pentru următoarele cuvinte: *s-a hotărât, revenirea, după trei ani, realizarea, a ajuns, bolile, a amâna, măritată.*

<u>Activitatea 4</u>

Subliniaţi în text trei substantive în cazul Genitiv și trei locuţiuni prepoziţionale foslosite cu Gentivul.

<u>Activitatea 5</u>

Spuneţi ce credeţi despre doamna din fotografie. Imaginaţi-vă ce viaţă a avut, ce au fost părinţii ei, dacă a avut o meserie și care anume, dacă a avut copii sau nu.

<u>Activitatea 6</u>

Răspundeţi la următoarele întrebări pe baza textului:
1. Din ce familie a provenit Ana Aslan?
2. Care a fost visul fetei la 16 ani?
3. Cum a convins-o pe mama sa să o lase să urmeze medicina?

4. Cine a fost conducătorul tezei sale de doctorat?
5. Ce funcţie a avut Ana Aslan din 1949?
6. De unde a pornit experimentarea procainei?
7. Ce nume comercial a primit procaina?
8. Ce personalităţi au folosit tratamentul cu Gerovital?
9. Cine a ajutat-o pe Ana Aslan pentru a crea Aslavital?
10. Ce efect benefic are Gerovital H3?

Activitatea 7

Scrieţi o compunere în care să prezentaţi o personalitate din ţara dumneavoastră.

Activitatea 8

Formulaţi întrebări pentru următoarele răspunsuri:
- Patru.
- Pilot.
- Pentru a înfrânge împotrivirea mamei.
- În timpul Primului Război Mondial.
- Sub numele de *Gerovital*.
- Numeroase personalități internaționale.
- Împreună cu farmacista Elena Polovrăgeanu.

Lectura la curs

Din timpul școlii, ne amintim, cred, cu toţii de cititul cu voce tare. Această modalitate de lectură este azi considerată ca fiind ineficientă din mai multe motive:

- durează mult și studenţii tind să-și piardă interesul, în special cei care nu sunt solicitaţi să citească;
- unii studenţi citesc mai cursiv și mai rapid decât alţii, de aceea se vor plictisi ascultând lectura colegilor mai puţin experimentaţi;
- când studenţii au dificultăţi de pronunţie, se pot simţi stânjeniţi să citească cu voce tare, temându-se de reacţia sau comentariile ulterioare ale celorlalţi;
- concentarea asupra formei abate atenţia de la conţinut, prin urmare, sunt cazuri în care studenţii nu înţeleg ceea ce citesc;
- unii studenţi preferă să citească singuri și sunt deranjaţi de această modalitate de lectură colectivă;
- cititul cu voce tare nu este un exerciţiu de vorbire deoarece în viaţa reală nu se vorbește așa.

În cadrul cursurilor de la Anul pregătitor de limba română, cititul cu voce tare este încă o practică obișnuită, din dorinţa profesorilor de a da studenţilor cât mai multe ocazii să-și îmbunătăţească pronunţia. În timp ce studenţii de origine bulgară, sârbă sau albaneză își însușesc cu ușurinţă pronunţia în limba română, situaţia este cu totul diferită în cazul studenţilor arabi pentru care unele sunete și cuvintele lungi sunt problematice.

Există însă alternative la cititul cu voce tare, pe care profesorii de lima română ar trebui să le aibă în vedere (Scrivener, 190):

- cel care citește este profesorul;
- profesorul citește părţile descriptive sau naraţiunea, iar studenţilor le revin dialogurile;
- profesorul le povestește studenţilor textul într-o manieră cât se poate de captivantă;
- studenţii citesc în grup, se ajută reciproc, schimbă idei, impresii, etc.;
- fiecare citește pentru el în gând. În această situaţie trebuie să se indice o limită de timp pentru ca activitatea să nu dureze prea mult.

Pe lângă aceste lecturi intensive efectuate în timpul cursului, studenţii trebuie obișnuiţi cu ideea de lectură extensivă (cititul de plăcere, în timpul liber, etc.) în limba română. Cu cât citesc mai mult, cu atât acumulează mai mult vocabular și mai multe cunoștinţe de gramatică, adeseori chiar fără să conștientizeze acest proces de absorbţie. Competenţele de lectură se vor îmbunătăţi cu siguranţă și aceasta va conduce la un sentiment de încredere atât lingvistică, cât și personală.

Dată fiind importanţa lecturii în procesul de predare-învăţare a unei limbi străine, studenţii trebuie încurajaţi să citească, atât la curs, cât și în particular. Profesorii pot veni în ajutorul studenţilor aducându-le ziare, reviste, broșuri, sfătuindu-i ce materiale să citească și cum să le abordeze, creând mici „biblioteci” (o cutie sau un raft cu reviste și cărţi relevante și adecvate nivelului grupei), etc.

Concluzii

Lectura, atât cea intensivă, cât și cea extensivă, este o modalitate eficientă prin care studenţii pot să-și dezvolte competenţele de înţelegere a unui text și să-și îmbogăţească vocabularul și cunoștinţele de limbă în general. De asemenea, cititul îi ajută să-și formeze un fel de automatism, adică recunoașterea automată a cuvintelor într-un text, dar și într-o conversaţie. Având în vedere toate aceste avantaje, profesorul trebuie să aloce timp lecturii la clasă și să pregătească activităţi adecvate, în funcţie de sub-competenţele pe care studenţii trebuie să și le formeze pentru a deveni cu adevărat competenţi în receptarea mesajelor scrise. Nu în ultimul rând, trebuie subliniat rolul central al cititului ca activitate intelectuală și ca modalitate de acces la cunoașterea generală și specializată.

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Professional roles and competences of the mentoring teacher

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ABSTRACT

The established definition of mentoring refers to the relationship, which is usually a long term one, between a connoisseur and his mentee, relationship in which the first shares wisdom and information and the latter, usually an inexperienced and younger individual obtains a sort of psychosocial guidance and support needed both in his future professional career as well as in his relations with his peers. The professional and emotional, cognitive gain of the mentee helps him develop as a strong reliable individual skilled in knowledge but astute in everyday life decisions. The concept of *mentor* originates in antiquity, in Homer's Odyssey, when Athena, the Greek goddess of wisdom appears in disguise, in Ithaca, as an old man who calls himself a Mentor. His major role is to provide guidance for the young prince Telemacus, Odysseus's son, who lacks his father's presence; inexperienced Telemacus must learn to endure, to become insightful, worthy and kind in his unfriendly kingdom and reach that astuteness necessary to govern.

KEYWORDS: *guidance, mentor, nurture, wisdom, professional career*

The concept of *mentor* originates in antiquity, in Homer's Odyssey, when Athena, the Greek goddess of wisdom appears in disguise, in Ithaca, as an old man who calls himself a Mentor. His major role is to provide guidance for the young prince Telemacus, Odysseus's son, who lacks his father's presence; inexperienced Telemacus must learn to endure, to become insightful, worthy and kind in his unfriendly kingdom and reach that astuteness necessary to govern, thus mounting *"a relationship between an older, more experienced adult and an unrelated, younger protégé – a relationship in which the adult provides ongoing guidance, instruction and encouragement aimed at developing the competence and character of the protégé"*[1]

So what is mentoring?

The established definition of mentoring refers to the relationship, which is usually a long term one, between a connoisseur and his mentee, relationship in which the first shares wisdom and information and the latter, usually an inexperienced and younger individual obtains a sort of psychosocial guidance and support needed both in his future professional career as well as in his relations with his peers. The professional

[1] Rhodes, E Jean, Stand by Me: The Risks and Rewards of Mentoring Today's Youth, Harvard University Press, 2009, pg.3

and emotional, cognitive gain of the mentee helps him develop as a strong reliable individual skilled in knowledge but astute in everyday life decisions. The concept of mentoring goes back in **social psychology** which deals with the learning theory, personal and professional development and the patterns of thinking.

It is still argued whether the concept of mentoring refers to a single person interpreting a number of professional roles or procedures that can be fulfilled by various. The core and purpose of mentoring occur in analyzing the very qualities that exist in the relationship between mentor and protégé and the features of the mentoring process, its deliberate fostering nature, and transmission of wisdom, all in a shielding environment, either formal or informal. The article *Towards a Conceptualization of Mentoring* written by Eugene Anderson and Ann Shannon in 1988 was an influential work in the field and it brought forth some of the **main features of the mentor**:

1. the practice of nurturing,
2. the role model,
3. the five-mentoring purpose: teaching, supporting, encouraging, counselling, and helping,
4. the focus on professional or personal development,
5. the continuing considerate relationship.

Teachers, in schools and universities perform such role, transferring thus knowledge and providing nurture to their students. In the early centuries, especially the Middle Ages, the mentor would be a man and the protégé would be an apprentice, later, with the feminist movement, the role of mentor can be enacted by a woman, easily! In different professional field, especially higher education, women mentors' teachers are present nowadays, being really concerned for their students' development, assisting them with their tasks of research and learning. This sense of responsibility of the mentor teachers to guarantee the best didactic results for their mentees, protégés takes place in an academic environment, involving not just the two parties but trying to encompass the institution itself. "High-quality mentoring is characterized by mutual learning, wherein both partners to a relationship experience increased sense of work, new knowledge, a sense of empowerment, increased zest, and a desire for more connection." [2]

There is a **personal satisfaction** that every mentoring teacher develops when seeing his mentees thrive and succeed in the academic environment, post doctoral studies, career paths. The passing on of the skills, the sharing of wisdom and knowledge related not only to the field of study but also to the personal one, gives the mentor-mentee relationship a profoundly existential connotation. Through mentoring a teacher expands her/ his contribution to the student generations to come, the consequences of her/his actions echoing not only in the present age bracket but, through them, changing them, she/he can speak to other generations.

[2] Kram E. Kathy and Higgins Monica C. A New Mindset on Mentoring: Creating Developmental Networks at Work, pg 3, MIT Sloan Management Review 77 Massachusetts Ave., E60-100 Cambridge, 2009.

So, we can certify that the mentoring teacher's labour is multigenerational and somehow **perpetual**.

Through smart, talented students/ mentees mentoring teachers achieve **professional renewal** otherwise they would become out of date, delayed in sluggish educational professions. Mentoring teachers often account for the presence of a optimistic, **resourceful synergy** when working with bright, triggering mentees. The mentorship, through the active creativity of the mentees becomes thus a **networking** where the professional visibility and influence of the mentor is increased in that institution. As teacher mentors build links for their protégées, they predictably build their own links, too, with the professional evolvement of the students who, in turn, create professional opportunities and academic national visibility for their mentors.

In order to be modern, and be up to date, the mentor needs to have strong **motivation** in the coaching and teaching process and get involved in the specifications of the generation they teach. Today, the e-generation moves faster and advances in study more than ever before, so teacher mentors must stay updated and be aware of the needs of their mentees, so good quality mentoring teachers put off atony and obsolescence. "Even those who are experienced and have served as traditional mentors find themselves in need of learning from those who have the latest technological knowledge and skills. Thus, juniors and seniors are often co-learners. Perhaps more so than ever before, peers can learn from one another in one-on-one and group settings where complementary knowledge and skills, as well as shared challenges can be a source of learning and problem-solving for all present." [3] An unsurprising outcome of mentoring is the bond of **friendship** that takes place during the relation between the two participants.

Mentoring relationship phases

Initiation Phase - The relationship is first started, interest is being shown by both parties, and a positive exchange of activities takes place. The mentor provides, during this phase, support and emotional connectivity together with endorsement. "Genuine mentoring involves a far deeper relationship with a student than is the role of advising the student"[4] (Schnaiberg, 2005, p. 30).

Cultivation Phase - "Mentoring is a dynamic reciprocal relationship in a work environment between an advanced career incumbent (mentor) and a beginner (protégé) aimed at promoting the career development of both" [5] (Healy, 1997, p. 10). The constructive prospects that appear during the initiation phase are constantly tested and

[3] Kram E. Kathy and Higgins Monica C. A New Mindset on Mentoring: Creating Developmental Networks at Work, pg 2, MIT Sloan Management Review 77 Massachusetts Ave., E60-100 Cambridge, 2009.

[4] Schnaiberg, 2005, p. 30.

[5] *Apud* Bleach, Kevan - Healy, 1997, p. 10, Induction and Mentoring of Newly Qualified Teachers: A New Deal for Teachers, Routledge, 2013.

transformed and coaching and sponsorship are of uttermost importance. Supporting the mentee's career is the core function of the mentoring and one of the main roles that defines this concept, as the mentor is "an expert whose training spurs us to do more than we could have imagined, a leader who elicits strength or courage, a friend who sees and encourages our hidden gifts.
Sometimes, this transformational teacher calls him- or herself a mentor."[6]

Separation Phase - The relationship is considerably changed either psychologically or structurally because both parties have to accept the end of the dynamic phase; the mentor acknowledges the mentee's developmental achievement and the changes spotted and tries to find the best approaches to ease the separation, to say goodbye and show gratitude.

Redefinition Phase - Both parties maintain some contact on a familiar basis in order to prolong the reciprocal support created in previous years.
"Mentors bring experience, perspective, objectivity and distance into the mentoring relationship. They can offer a long-term view for the organisation and the individual. They are influential in terms of helping the learner/mentee reach their goals and aspirations. They care about the mentee and focus on the needs of the individual. They can provide empathy, candour, openness and honesty. They should also be willing to share their expertise, should not feel threatened by the mentee's potential for equalling or surpassing them nor by the mentee detecting their weaknesses and shortcomings."[7]
The motivation of the teacher mentors can be sometimes considered an innate characteristic, as many can teach but as few can mentor. One can find benefits in both sides, as some mentor teachers harvest extrinsic recompense while others are blessed with intrinsic rewards that are related to the lives of the mentees and their careers. Higher education mentoring brings personal fulfilment and can start from the first year of college and expand and evolve throughout the four years of study.

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Analysis on some aspects of English for Specific Purposes

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ABSTRACT

The present article deals with issues encountered in teaching English for Specific Purposes and the role of the teacher in the elaboration of materials relevant to the objectives of the specialized language course, based on the needs and goals of Learners, and the development of the necessary skills in order to communicate in real situations characteristic to their specialty.

KEYWORDS: *English for Specific Purposes, teaching, skills, learner (student)*

The teaching of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) has generally been seen as a separate activity within English Language Teaching (ELT) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) research as an identifiable component of applied linguistic research. We believe that for some of its teaching ESP has developed its own methodology, and its research clearly draws on research from various disciplines in addition to applied linguistics. This openness to the insights of other disciplines is a key distinguishing feature of ESP, which has always based its emphasis on practical outcomes. The main objectives of ESP have always been and remain with needs analysis, text analysis and getting learners ready to communicate effectively in real work situations and studies. It is said that ESP lacks theory although, theory of ESP could be outlined on either the specific nature of the texts that learners (students) require knowledge of or on the basis of the needs-related nature of the teaching.

It is believed that ESP should reflect that much of ESP teaching, where it is specifically linked to a particular profession or discipline, that makes use of a methodology that differs from that used in General English Teaching. There are two aspects of ESP methodology; all ESP teaching should reflect the methodology of the discipline and professions it serves; and in ESP teaching the nature of the interaction between the **teacher** and **learner** may be very different from that in a general English class. ESP has its own methodology where teaching of the language should be included as a defining feature. ESP activities generate and depend on registers, genres and associated language that students need to master in order to carry out an activity and communicational situations appropriate to their domain. ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register) skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities. ESP teaching is regarded as extremely varied and its work involves much more than teaching. An ESP teacher has more than one role: Teacher, Course Designer, Materials Provider, Collaborator, Researcher and Evaluator. ESP teachers as providers of materials choose suitable published material, adapt material when published material is not suitable or even write material where nothing suitable exists.

ESP teachers also need to assess the effectiveness of the teaching material used on the course, which is published or self-produced. The teachers as the indispensable part of the teaching process need to be able to conduct research, to understand the discourse of the texts that students use. The role of teachers is to identify issues in the process of teaching and of elaborating the materials. [1]

We will consider difficulties in grammar, vocabulary as well as reading and speaking to set learning objectives, to establish a positive learning environment in the classroom and to evaluate students' progress.

There are many misconceptions about the role of grammar in ESP teaching and, indeed, it is often said that ESP teaching is not concerned with grammar. It is incorrect to consider grammar teaching as outside the ESP. More often, learners have grammatical difficulties that interfere with the essentially productive skills of speaking and writing, or essentially receptive skills of listening and reading, it is necessary to pay attention to those difficulties. How much priority is paid to grammatical weakness depends on the learner's level in English and if priority needs to be given to grammatical accuracy or to fluency in using the language? If priority is given to accuracy then direct teaching of grammar forms to express particular meaning will be required. [4]

For reading, where the learner's grammar weaknesses interfere with comprehension of meaning, the relationship between meaning and grammar form can be taught or revised in context through analysis and explanation. This often includes the verb form, tense and voice; modals, particularly in relation to the expression of certainty and uncertainty; logical connectors *such as*, *however, therefore, moreover.*

According to recent research, the most predominant tenses and verb forms in scientific and technical English should concentrate on the present simple, past simple, active and passive voice and the modal verbs, especially *may, might, could, would* as one way of indicating the degree of certainty of the writer's statement.
Grammatical areas that are of particular relevance to ESP follow exactly the same rules as in general English grammar. There are some difficulties concerning the use of articles, nominalization and logical connectors to be analysed.

Firstly, certain uses of the articles create particular misunderstandings in ESP:

a) the absence of an article (0 article) in general statements with an uncountable noun:

e.g.: *Copper is a reddish metal.*
Mechanical Engineering is of great interest to students at TUM.

b) the use of the article *the* with named methods, procedures, formulae, graphs, cycles and others.

e.g.: the water cycle, the Newton hypothesis.

Secondly, nominalization, the use of verbal nouns frequently misused, usually ending in suffixes such as: *-ation*, *-ition*, *-ity*, *-ment*, or *-ness*, tends to be the major feature of the abstract language favoured by the academic and technical style, and the ESP teacher needs to be sensitive to such contexts for the benefit of the learners.

e.g.: *to develop-development -ment; to judge-judgement - ment; to vary-variation- ation; to rotate-rotation -ition; be similar-similarity -ity; to prepare- preparedness -ness; to ignite-ignition -ition, etc.*

Logical connectors, or discourse markers, as a third issue, are used to join or connect two ideas that have a particular relationship, showing cause and effect, for example: *because*, *for this reason*, *this means that*, *in other words*, *thus*, *so as to*, *therefore*, *hence*, *as a result*, etc.

These sentence connectors add variety, sophistication to learner's style of writing and speaking. Another issue encountered in ESP teaching is vocabulary building, where the teacher's main objective is to identify and assess whether first-year students have a sufficiently well-developed English vocabulary for academic purposes and the language needs to boost self-confidence in the student's use of English in the target environment. ESP teachers focus on vocabulary to develop communicative skills learners wish to achieve, and on identification of the speech acts used in their future domain. According to Wiwezoroski (2003) *"in order to succeed in preparing our students, teachers, as professionals need to first lay proper foundation of the four competences"*.

The ESP teacher should create activities in the language classroom that would incorporate all the competences, which must not be taught in isolation, but organised properly as to build confidence in communicative skills of the learner. Students must be constantly involved in all activities they are doing the ESP course, only so doing they can be offered the opportunity to practice and develop English adequately. In ESP, English must be presented not as a subject to be learned in isolation from real use, no as a mechanical skill to be developed. On the contrary, English should be presented in authentic contexts to make the students acquainted with particular ways in which the language is used in functions that they will need to perform in their fields of specialty or jobs.

In conclusion, the role of English in the fields of science and engineering has been a major priority of students at Technical University of Moldova (TUM). The ESP course should serve the needs of students or professionals in their fields of study, to give complete guidance for communicative activities in English, offering learners the opportunity to develop adequately and equally all the English skills. [6]. ESP teachers must take into consideration the "wants" of the students (those needs on which students put a high priority in the available, limited time), and their "lacks" (the difference between the student's present competence and the desired competence) in order to enable them to reach the target, to be able to communicate a message in a specialised environment and motivate them in different ways.

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An Outlook on Modernism in Teaching English for Specific Purposes

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ABSTRACT

The domain of English for Specific Purposes, which tackles the communicative approaches and practices of specific individuals or groups of individuals, has developed constantly, becoming a major issue in English Language Teaching.
English for Specific Purposes is based on a durable theoretical foundation. Some new ideas that have come to influence ESP might be: critical approaches, social constructivism and discourse analysis. To this end, teachers have been strongly encouraged to highlight certain aspects such as collaborative approaches, communication and discourse variation.
New ESP approaches stress the importance of what learners study and allow them to use English in order to acquire even more information, as their interest in their domain of activity will motivate them to interact more with other speakers.

KEYWORDS: *theoretical foundation, interaction, approach, needs, communication*

Introduction

English as a second language has become one of the most important languages for foreign learners over the last half of a century. There are many reasons for this present state of things: economical, political, financial, military and even a certain change of patterns in international communication. The linguistic awareness of teachers has grown in importance as the demand for effective English teaching has also increased.

One essential constituent of teaching English nowadays is represented by English for Specific Purposes, or ESP for short. This component has been referred to as *Applied English Language*, because its contents and goals are designed accordingly to the needs of a specific group of learners. English for Specific Purposes makes some use of the general methodology, yet it is centered on the specific language domain considered to be appropriate to the specialized register in terms of grammar, vocabulary or discourse (Anthony, 2005). ESP is designed mainly for adult learners in a professional work situation, as we are about to see.

In nuce, the definition of ESP reffers to the study of language, discourse and contexts of use and the direct application of these discoveries in practical domains. This is what basically makes the difference between ESP and General English. In a more recent article, Belcher (2004) states that:

> Unlike other pedagogical approaches, which may be less specific needs-based and more theory-driven, ESP pedagogy places heavy demands on its practitioners to collect empirical needs-assessments data, to create or to adapt materials to meet specific needs identified and to cope with often unfamiliar matter and even language use.
> (p. 166)

ESP can be described as a mixture of methods, strategies and techniques whose main goal is to offer a perspective over the notional content of the specialized register. Still, native speakers of English will have to accept accomodative techniques in their own interpersonal interactions with non-native speakers of English.

Hutchinson (1987: 53) was asked: *What is the difference between the ESP and General English approach?* He answered: *In theory nothing, in practice a great deal*. Most English as a Second Language students are young people who struggle to acquire a satisfactory command of English, whereas English for Specific Purposes learners are usually adults who already have a good command of English. They learn English in order to be able to communicate in the specific technical register and to perform job-related tasks. In addition to that, in contrast with ESL, ESP focuses mainly on language patterns in specific contexts rather than on teaching grammar and language structures. ESP covers subjects ranging from Robotics or Aerospatial Engineering to Medicine. However, as far as the interests and motivations of students are concerned, ESL and ESP diverge. All four language skills (Reading, Listening, Speaking and Writing) are trained equally in ESL classes, whereas in ESP classes a needs analysis that points out what skill is to be developed more should be done.

ESP has several features, as defined by Dudley-Evans (2001):

- customized to meet the specific needs of the learners;
- goal-directed;
- based on the analysis of needs
- reffers strictly to the activities of the specific register that it deals with;
- centered not only on linguistic issues, such as grammar or vocabulary, but it also focuses on the skills required by the technical domain in which English is to be used;
- ESP students participate in intercultural communication and the development of intercultural competence.

Comparison and contrast between EAP and EOP

Specialists, such as Robinson (1991), have classified ESP in two categories: EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes). There is also a series of subcategories of EOP, such as *Business English*, *Professional English* (e.g. English for doctors, lawyers etc.) and *Vocational English* (e.g. English for aviation, tourism etc.)

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note that there is not a clear distinction between EAP and EOP: *People can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up or returns to a job.* (p. 16)

Yet, here is a set of differences between EAP and EOP:

English for Academic Purposes	English for Occupational Purposes
• Suitable for students	Practised by workers
• Teaching and learning process is likely to be influenced by the syllabus designed for the courses.	Teaching and learning process is likely to be influenced by cross-cultural differences.
• Use English as a medium of training in the learners' study-related roles.	Learners use English as a tool to communicate in their work.
• Learning process is focusing on the language of academic performance.	Learning process is focusing on the language of job performance.
• English as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) – a language proficiency uses to validate and utilize academic language.	English as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) – a language skill uses to collaborate with co-workers.
• Content-based	Context-based

There seems to be general agreement that ESP teachers do not necessarily need expertise in a specific technical domain. Yet, they are required to meet two basic conditions: awareness and feel for a specific technical registry. Bell (2002) indicates the three C's to help ESP teachers improve their knowledge and skills in a specific field of ESP:

- *Curiosity* – the ESP teachers should be interested in the subject area and want to learn more about specific topics;
- *Collaboration* – ESP teachers should ask for feedback from specialists;
- *Confidence* – will grow as ESP teachers are willing to analyze a new subject area.

Until recently, ESP courses were customized for intermediate or advanced adult learners. But things have changed: today, most students begin practising academic or vocational English in middle school. This is because nowadays ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines. In specific teaching situations, ESP may use a different methodology from the one used in General English, as long as it is in the learner's best interest.

Harding (2007:81) stresses the fact that general skills, such as those considered as applicable to General English, e.g. ability to communicate, pragmatism or use of authentic materials, are also suitable for ESP classes. Specifically, there is no need for ESP teachers to follow a course book strictly. They should consider their students' needs and understand the nature of their subject domain. ESP teachers should also identify students' language needs in relation to their area of interest.

Other aspects deal with the use of situations or texts from students' domain of interest, authenticity or the use of authentic materials so that students are motivated to interact in a proactive way and to absorb the content of ESP classes.

Approaches and Techniques

One important aspect of a suitable ESP class development is the teachers' assumptions on the teaching stages that will be used as the foundation which later ESP classes will be developed. Thus, these stages will give an appropriate outlook on the theoretical background and they will help decide upon the most correct methodology that should be applied. Needless to say, all assumptions made should take into consideration the specificity of every learner.

To understand the internal mechanism of ESP elaboration techniques, one should remember the very beginning of ESP development approaches. Basically, they used to focus mainly on vocabulary, grammar and syntactical characteristics. In other words, they did nothing but follow the trends of that time. But it seemed that this particular kind of approach was going to come to a fruitless end. So, specialists decided to lay more emphasis on a more communicative and pragmatic basis. Therefore, more recent outlooks on cognitive studies have provided a more appropriate framework to apply the cognitive strategies that students use in order to acquire ESP notional content.

Five decades ago, Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964: 87) introduced the concept of *register analysis*, which explains the proportion in which the language varies according to the type of speaker, the situation and the purpose for which it is used. Their approach had a very important aim: to highlight the grammatical and vocabulary characteristics of different registers of English, as in scientific, technical or academic English. Their works are considered as an essential contribution to the consideration of ESP status as a new tendency in Applied Linguistics.

Barber (1962) had an important contribution to the design of ESP methodology as his research focused on lexicolinguistics and structuralism. Herbert's *The Structure of Technical English* (1965) followed a functional notional approach based on lexis and syntax. Ewer and Lattore's *A Course in Basic Scientific English* (1969) focused on a more structuralist approach and analyzed items according to their frequency as well as systematic drills design.

According to these two authors, the basic scientific language taught in ESP classes should be made up of sentence patterns and structural and non-structural vocabulary. The acquisition of special vocabulary elements presents very little or no difficulty, as most of them are international words and, therefore, quite similar to those already used by students in their native language.

ESP courses should start from the premises that students have already acquired notional content specific to the National Curriculum during their previous stages of education. Hence the material to be presented in ESP classes should be graded in length and complexity. For example, some possible resources for technical texts might be textbooks, profesional papers and articles, scientific dictionaries or even websites of transnational corporations. A principal criterion of selection can be represented by elements such as frequency or range, whilst others can be included for reasons such as their usefulness as describers or definers.

Due to the fact that students show a great deal of variation with regard to the knowledge of English they bring to the ESP classes, courses should have the flexibility required by such situation.

Considerations and Attitudes towards ESP

Teachers should also put emphasis on the oral approach for several reasons: first of all, oral repetition in context is the most effective way of fixing the material that is taught to learners; secondly, over a specific period of time, much more work can be done orally rather than in writing; thirdly, an oral approach can stir students' interest for ESP classes.

Regarding the oral approach, there are several factors that justify this emphasis on the oral component of ESP classes:

- the number of English – speaking specialists visiting non – English speaking countries to lecture or to present seminars;
- the failure of students to understand oral scientific English and their inability to communicate;
- in spite of the fact that there are scholarships available in English – speaking countries, many students fail to obtain them because of their lack of access to information, thus resulting a serious loss of qualified human resources.

In the early steps of ESP development, the focus had been on language at the sentence level, whereas in the later stages the emphasis shifted to the level above the sentence, analysing the way the combinations of sentences and phrases serve the speaker's purpose. At this stage, it is important to understand how specific linguistic features influence the type of statement made in each case and how these issues are combined in order to become understandable at a certain stage. Still, there have been debates on the specific features used in General English compared to ESP. For example, one could think of tense choice depending on the notion of time in General English, whereas in ESP they depend on the degree of generality. Researchers have tried to identify the organizational patterns in texts and the linguistic realisations by which tense patterns are used in ESP.

E. Trimble (1985: 88) classified the paragraphs in two major types: the physical and the conceptual type. Physical paragraphs are important up to a point, whereas conceptual paragraphs contain general informative notions. Using specific rhetorical techniques, these notions can be combined into chunks of information within ESP discourse, according to several criteria: time, space, casuality and result. Trimble's approach on ESP text cohesion has been closely related to Mann and Thomson's theories on rhetorical structures. Their opinion led to a choice of teaching materials based on discourse approach. This proved useful for students to recognize textual patterns and discourse markers.

These are some aspects that need to be clarified. For example, questions arise related to the proportion of syllabi applicable to ESP courses. Some argue that students should be allowed to choose a narrow or less restrictive focus approach. Still, we consider that it should be the teacher's choice for a specific approach that would broaden students' skills and aptitudes. To fully understand the mechanisms behind English being adopted as *lingua franca*, we should consider the heritage of the British imperialism and the exponential rise of transnational companies. Combined, these two factors have triggered the expansion of English as Foreign Language throughout the world.

New Horizons

Globalisation, as a modern world phenomenon, is in constant need for professionals and specialists, whose success depends on their ability to communicate or exchange information related to their fields of activity. This phenomenon exceeds the traditional limits of political or cultural facts, rising some issues related to language.

These days we live in *The Informational Age*. So far, ESP has experienced an incredible expansion mostly due to the need to communicate globally and to the scientific and technical innovations that have improved our modern life. Yet, this expansion has been followed by a series of changes in the field of communication: webminars, mobile phones, sattelite dishes or multimedia. But all these innovations have triggered a complex transformation within interhuman relationships. Thus, a new technical paradigm has occurred: the Information Technology. According to Castells (1996:469), the modern social structure causes a new modern society pattern: global information economy. As a result, the technical revolution, by means of new emphasis on people and aims, will morph into a linguisitic revolution. Therefore, it is the role of ESP to mediate the interconnectivity among culture models, communicative situations and science.

Most papers on ESP can be divided in two categories: discussion papers related to the process of teaching, e.g. *ESP at Crossroads* by Hutchinson and Waters or *Teaching the Communicative Use of English* by Widdowson and Allan; papers that deal with the National Curricula, e.g. *How to Arm Your Students: A Consideration of Two Approaches to Providing Materials for ESP* by Phillips and Shettlesworth or *Further Notes on Developing an English Programme for Students of Science and Technology* by Ewer and Hughes-Davies and papers containing mainly useful teaching materials and methodological hints e.g. *Writing Scientific English* by Swales. Most of these researchers have managed to demonstrate that there is a close relationship between research and methodology and they should be studied as a whole rather than considering them separate notions. This would be the starting point of a new approach, that is considering the student as the central axis of the needs and wants analysis process.

Conclusion

For a successful ESP evolution in the future, there are some basic conditions to be met, such as the systematic use of all available tools that can help overcome the problems some learners might encounter and the continuous development of the convergence among several constituents of ESP, such as teaching, learning and research.

All these components form a global framework in which ESP plays an essential role. It covers a series of specific areas of research, other than plain Philology, but it is well accepted that the main research has developed in the domains of science and technology. Regarding this approach, Swales' statement (1985:16) can still be applied:

ESP has set and continues to set the trend in theoretical discussion, in ways of analysing language and in the variety of actual materials.

In this respect, we consider that the new directions in ESP should include three major components:

- Permanent collaborative work between the ESP teacher and the learner;
- Focus on material production and lesson planning rather than needs analysis;
- Awareness of the importance of cross-cultural elements.

Having said that, one could predict that the ESP latest discoveries might evolve towards several directions; yet, these paths do have some elements in common, such as a focus on learner's both present and future needs and wants.

Modern approaches also focus on shifting attention from ESP textbooks to a more practical approach regardind the subject, with emphasis on careful selection of materials to be taught, in order to meet students' requirements.

Modern trends in ESP teaching put emphasis on situation and needs analysis and on a more practical approach of the discourse. Nowadays, ESP contains an ever-increasing number of specific terms, especially customized to fit a large array of jobs circumscribing the ESP domain, so the future of ESP seems bright. There are two major factors (the phenomenon of globalisation and the increasing mobility of the world's workforce) that will trigger a rise in the demand for specialized register courses. Moreover, the local economies of the emergent countries will cause a high demand for the workers to have a good command of English as a second language, especially for the workforce of transnational corporation.

Hopefully, learners should become aware of the importance of ESP and understand that English should also have a social component as a means of comunication rather than restricting to just few target situations.

To conclude, judging by the various aspects and approaches identified so far, we consider that ESP will be exposed to a continuous influence of several factors and trends. There is no doubt that ESP research and practice will boost interest in ESP in geographical areas where an increase in specialisation of ESP courses is highly required.

Yet, there seems to be a small delay between the rapid growth of ESP courses and the research in this domain. But hopefully, the growth of ESP courses will determine an emphasis on innovation in the field of ESP research. In addition to this, areas of theory that have had a systematic influence on the development of ESP appear to have the same beneficial impact on ESP in the years to come.

If a personal opinion in allowed, then we consider that the ever-increasing use of English as a means of communication in interpersonal relationships between native and non-native speakers of English is likely to have a major impact and it will probably trigger an even more extended use of ESP programmes throughout the world.

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Prefixoide cu valoare semantică cantitativă în termenii tehnici

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ABSTRACT: **Prefixoids with Quantitative Semantic Vlue in Technical Trms**

Determining the functional status of prefixoids is of primary importance both for revealing derivational processes and trends in technical English metalanguage in the field of telecommunications, and for specifying the affixal inventory of the English language. Affixoidation is included in the affixal derivational process when affixoids, especially prefixoids, combine with autonomous bases of conceptual lexical units.

KEYWORDS: *afixoid, prefixoid, productivitate derivațională, etimologie, proces derivațional, diacronie, sincronie, morfem*

Afixoidul este un element de compunere cu etimologie greco-latină care în diacronie a avut un înțeles independent, iar în sincronie poate fi utilizat în calitate de morfem afixal în situația combinării acestuia cu lexemele autonome.

Analiza termenilor tehnici simpli și termenilor-sintagme din domeniul telecomunicațiilor (2425 de termeni), a permis categorisirea prefixoidelor identificate în structura acestora. Astfel, cercetând termenii tehnici derivați cu prefixoide, am delimitat o categorie de derivate în funcție de valoarea semantică posedată de prefixoid, precum *prefixoide cu valoare semantică cantitativă* care indică: a) o cantitate exactă; b) o cantitate abstractă. O cantitate determinată este exprimată de prefixoidele: *uni-*, *mono-*, *quadri-*, *hecto-*, *kilo-*, *milli-*. Prefixoidele *multi-*, *omni-*, *pan-*, *poly-* arată o cantitate abstractă.

Prefixoidul *uni-* (din lat. *unus* „unu, singur”) se atașează la baze substantivale și adjectivale de origine latină, având o productivitate derivațională medie: *unipole* − *unipol* (lat. *unus*+lat. *palus* „suport, arac”) „dispozitiv cu un singur pol”; *unilateral* − *unilateral* (lat. *unus* + lat. *lateralis*„pe o parte”) „component, dispozitiv orientat într-o singură direcție”; *unicircuit* − *unicircuit* (lat.*unus* + lat. *circuitus* „mișcare circulară, cerc”); *unidimensional* − *unidimensional* (lat. *unus* + lat. *dimension* „a măsura”+-*al*) „cu o singură dimensiune”.

Prefixoidul *mono-* provine din grecescul *monos* „singur, numai unul”, este sinonim cu latinescul *unus*, având aceeași productivitate derivațională medie ca și prefixoidul *uni-*. Acest prefixoid se alătură temelor derivaționale substantivale și adjectivale de origine latină și elenă pentru a forma termeni tehnici: *monopole* − *monopol* (gr. *monos* + lat. *palus* „suport, arac”) „un pol magnetic izolat”; *monotonic* − *monoton* (gr. *monos* + gr. *tonos* „ton, mod”+-*ic*) „care are sau păstrează acelaşi ton, sunet”.

Prefixoidul *quadri-* își are originea în latinescul *quadri-* „patru părți”. Acest prefixoid are o productivitate derivațională foarte mică, având doar trei derivate. Este atașat la baze derivative substantivale și adjectivale latinești: *quadripolar − cvadripolar* (lat. *quadri* + lat. *palus* „suport” +*-al*) „care posedă patru poli”; *quadricorelator – cvadricorelator* (lat. *quadri* + *co-* + *relate*<lat. *relatus* „a aduce înapoi”) + *-or*).

Prefixoidul *hecto-* provine din gr. *hekaton* „o sută”. Dispune de o productivitate derivațională redusă, este atașat la bază substantivală de origine englezească, înregistrându-se un singur derivat: *hectowatt – hectowatt* (gr. *hekaton* + engl. *watt*) „unitate de măsură a puterii echivalentă cu 100 wați””.

Prefixoidul *kilo-* (din gr. *khilioi* „o mie”). Cu concursul acestui prefixoid se formează termeni tehnici care indică unități de măsură; prezintă o productivitate derivațională medie, atașându-se în exclusivitate la teme substantivale de origine greacă și engleză: *kilogauss − kilogaus* (gr. *khilioi* + *gauss*) „unitate de măsură a intensității câmpului magnetic, numită în cinstea matematicianului german K.F.Gauss”; *kilocycle − kilociclu* (gr. *khilioi* + gr. *kyklos* „ciclu, cerc, roată”) „unitate de măsură utilizată în radiocomunicații, echivalentă cu 1000 de cicluri ale frecvenței undelor electromagnetice”; *kilobit − kilobit* (gr. *khilioi*+ *bit* „< O.E. *biten* „bucată”) „unitate de măsură utilizată echivalentă cu 1000 de biți”.

Prefixoidul *milli-* provine din lat. *mille-*„„o mie”, este sinonim cu prefixoidul *kilo-* și, efectuând o analiză comparativă cu acesta, am stabilit că ambii formanți dispun de o productivitate derivațională medie (câte 11 termeni derivați). Prefixoidul *milli-* se combină cu baze substantivale elene, latine, dar și germanice, ca și prefixoidul *kilo-*, formează termeni care indică unități de măsură utilizate la diferite dispozitive, aparate, proprii domeniului telecomunicațiillor: *millihenry − milihenri* (lat. *milli-* + *henry*) „unitate de măsură a inducției, numită în cinstea fizicianului american J. Henry, echivalentă cu a mia parte dintr-un henri”; *millisecond* (*timer*) *− milisecundă* (lat. *milli-* + lat. *secunda* „secundă”) „a mia parte dintr-o secundă”; *millimicron − milimicron* (lat.*milli-* + *micron*<gr. *micros* „mic” +*-on*) „a mia parte dintr-un micron”.

Prefixoidul *multi-* (din lat. *multus* „mult, mulți, multe”), exprimând ideea de pluritate, se caracterizează printr-o productivitate derivațională înaltă (66 de derivate), servește la formarea substantivelor, verbelor și adjectivelor, atașându-se în procesul de formare a termenilor tehnici englezești din domeniul telecomunicațiilor la teme substantivale, adjectivale și verbale de origine elenă și latină: *multiprocessing – multiprocesare* (lat. *multus* + *process* <lat. *processus* „acțiune” +*-ing*) „executarea simultană a două sau mai multe instrucțiuni”; *multiprogramming – multiprogramare* (lat. *multus* + gr. *programma* „notiță (notă) scrisă pentru public”) „tehnică de exploatare a unui sistem de calcul prin care două sau mai multe programe sunt rulate simultan de un calculator”; *multisystem(ic) – multisistemic* (lat. *multus* + gr. *systema* „un tot întreg format din mai multe părți componente“ + (*-ic*)) „cu referire la mai multe sisteme”.

Prefixoidul *omni-* (din lat. *omnis-* „(a) tot, (a) toate”). În domeniul telecomunicațiilor este utilizat la formarea unor substantive și adjective, se caracterizează printr-o productivitate redusă, fiind atestați doar 6 termeni derivați, alăturându-se bazelor derivative cu etimologie latină și franceză: *an omnidirectional* (*microphone*) – (*microfon*) *omnidirecțional* (lat. *omnis* + *directional* <lat. *direction* „acțiunea de a orienta”+*-al*) „recepționarea și transmiterea semnalelor în toate direcțiile”; *omni-range – omnigamă* (lat. *omnis* + *range* <O. F. *rangier* „rând, linie”) „aparat de radio de ajutor în navigație, în care stațiile emit semnale distincte pe fiecare din cele 360 de grade, cu referire la câmpul magnetic”.

Prefixoidul *pan-* (din gr. *pan* „tot, întreg”). Cu acest prefixoid au fost înregistrate doar 3 derivate, așadar, în prezent nu este productiv, se atașează exclusiv la baze substantivale autonome formate din morfeme greco-latine: *pantelephone – pantelefon* (gr. *pan* + *telephone*< gr.*tele* „departe” + gr. *phone* „voce, sunet”); „model de telefon construit de Leon de Locht-Labye, profesor la Universitatea din Liege, Belgia, 1880); *pantelegraph – pantelegraf* (gr.*pan*+*telegraph*<gr. *tele*„departe”+gr. *graphos* „(ceva) scris sau desenat”) „telecomunicație care transmite la distanță semnale (corespunzătoare literelor și cifrelor) cu ajutorul unor aparate electromagnetice; ansamblul instalațiilor necesare în acest scop”.

Prefixoidul *poly-* (din gr. *polys* „mai mulți, mai multe, multiplu”). Productivitatea derivațională poate fi determinată ca fiind medie, înregistrându-se 14 termeni, servește la formarea substantivelor și adjectivelor care au la bază teme derivaționale substantivale și adjectivale de proveniență greacă: *polyphony – polifonie* (gr. *polys* + *phony*<gr. *phone* „sunet” + *-y*); *polyphase – polifazic* (gr. *polys* + *phase*<gr. *phasis* „mod, stare de a fi”).

În concluzie vom menționa că în terminologia tehnică din limba engleză sunt evidente tendințele de renovare a sistemului afixal, în special, a celui prefixal, ca urmare a trecerii elementelor de compunere culte de origine greco-latină în categoria morfemelor afixale.

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« Le jour où il n’y avait plus personne à l’autre bout de l’amour »

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ABSTRACT: The day when there was nobody else at the other end of love

The novel, *The day when there was nobody else at the other end of love*, was published in 2017 and it was a revelation for the readers of Ioana Chicet-Macoveiciuc who considered it a recipe who brought them healing. It’s a love story with a lot of pain and a lot of sun. But above all, the novel proves absolute sincerity. The heroine of the novel is Ioana, a girl with „a nest of swallows instead of her hair”, and the hero is Andrei, a man who smiles very rarely. „Their love is a silent dance, with full moments in which everything fits perfectly, then with sad days in which they can not stand next to each other”.

KEYWORDS: *love, expectation, separation, recovery, loneliness.*

1. Préliminaires

Ioana Chicet-Macoveiciuc est une jeune journaliste et écrivaine roumaine. Écrivaine passionnée, Ioana confesse qu’elle écrit avec une grande joie et que les sujets de ses romans viennent directement de son âme :

> Les émotions coulent directement sur mes doigts et je pense que c’est la raison pour laquelle tant de gens ressentent profondément mes livres, enfants et grandes personnes en même temps.
> (Printesa urbana-blog, https://www.printesaurbana.ro/2018/01/cartile-pentru-copii-si-adulti-scrise-de-ioana-chicet-macoveiciuc.html)

Ioana a publié sept livres et elle a écrit deux anthologies. Le roman, *Le jour où il n’y avait plus personne à l’autre bout de l’amour*, a été publié en 2017 et il a été une révélation pour les lecteurs d’Ioana Chicet-Macoveiciuc qui l’ont considéré comme une ordonnance qui leur apportait la guérison. C’est une histoire d’amour avec beaucoup de douleur et beaucoup de soleil. Mais surtout, le roman prouve la sincérité absolue.

2. L’amour partagé

L’héroïne du roman est Oana, *« une fille avec un nid d’hirondelles en guise de cheveux »*. Le héros est Andrei, un photographe qui parle très peu, mais qui aime son métier avec passion. Oana est diplômée en langues étrangères et traductrice de l'allemand. Oana et Andrei sont tombés amoureux l'un de l'autre. À partir du moment où ils se sont rencontrés, leurs vies ont pris un autre sens. Les deux ont décidé de déménager ensemble. Ils ont loué une chambre d'un vieux monsieur qui jouera plus tard un rôle très important dans leurs vies.

Oana a caché à ses parents son déménagement. Elle recevait toujours au foyer pour étudiants, le „saint sac de nourriture" envoyé par sa mère. Trop rapide et trop facilement, Oana est devenue dépendante de tout ce qu'Andrei signifiait. Oana était fascinée de tout ce que faisait son partenaire de vie. Andrei avait une vie captivante, libre et fascinante. Andrei éclipsait par ce qu'il faisait. Il ne parlait à peu prêt pas du tout, il ne s'exprimait pas trop bien ou pas trop souvent.

L'histoire d'amour entre Oana et Andrei était très discrète. Ils vivaient seuls dans la chambre louée par Monsieur Emil. Finalement, Oana a parlé à ses parents de l'existence d'Andrei, mais ceux-ci n'ont jamais connu Andrei. Il était un photographe professionnel, et chaque fois qu'ils se préparaient à visiter les parents d'Oana, quelque chose d'imprévu apparaissait dans le programme d'Andrei. Les parents d'Andrei ne connaissaient pas Oana parce que pas même leur fils ne leur rendait visite trop souvent.

Donc, leur histoire d'amour appartenait seulement à eux. Andrei partait en délégations, il ne manquait aucune occasion de prendre des photos d'un événement majeur. Oana n'aimait pas rester seule dans la maison, mais elle ne pouvait pas changer cela. Quand Andrei était parti en délégation, Oana dormait au foyer pour étudiants ou elle restait jusqu'à minuit en bavardant avec le vieil Emil. Avant de connaître Andrei, Oana n'avait que des emplois mineurs. Au cours de sa relation avec Andrei, Oana a trouvé un lieu de travail stable, elle travaillait dans une agence de voyage, fournissant les vacances à ses clients, ce qui lui apportait une satisfaction supplémentaire, en plus de la belle histoire d'amour qu'elle vivait avec Andrei.

Même l'effervescente et la merveilleuse Lola était disparue du paysage. Lola était la meilleure amie d'Oana, elle était la fille qui a facilité au commencement la liaison entre Oana et Andrei. Même quand Lola a subi une terrible intervention chirurgicale, Oana n'a pas été présente. Oana n'avait dit à personne où elle vivait avec Andrei. Lola a perdu le contact avec Oana et elle ne savait pas où la trouver. Lola était riche, elle mènait une vie libertine, elle avait sa propre maison, des choses qui n'étaient que des rêves pour Oana. Lola avait aidé Oana à connaître la vie. Mais Oana avait privé Lola du droit d'être heureuse pour sa petite amie qui vivait une belle histoire d'amour. Oana voulait Andrei seulement pour elle. Elle a vécu les mois avec Andrei de la même manière comme elle avait vécu les moments passés dans la roue de parc : avec excitation, avec exaltation, avec folie, avec excès, mais aussi avec une peur constante.

Selon Oana, Andrei était sérieux, créatif, mais aussi très étrange. Andrei n'a jamais parlé du passé, du présent ou du futur. Andrei n'a jamais fait de déclaration d'amour pour Oana. Andrei l'a aimée d'une manière bizarre, mais constante. En fait, la raison pour laquelle ils ont rompu la relation, était qu'Andrei ne voulait pas lui dire qu'il l'aimait. Oana se sentait si blessée dans sa propre fierté qu'elle a menacé de le quitter. Ce qui a suivi a été inattendu. Andrei lui a dit de quitter la maison où ils vivaient ensemble. Oana est partie, mais elle ne pensait pas que ce serait une rupture définitive. Andrei ne l'a cherchée plus jamais, bien qu'elle l'ait attendu, malade d'amour pour lui, malade de nostalgie, malade de la vie qu'elle n'avait pas vécu avec lui, comme elle en avait rêvé.

3. L'autre étape de l'amour

La fille avec le soleil dans les cheveux était devenue triste. Le temps passait et Andrei ne revenait plus. C'était l'amour. Sans aucun doute, c'est ainsi que l'amour se manifeste. Oana et Andrei n'avaient pas de relation typique, ils se nourrissaient d'un véritable amour, vierge, pur, intouché par la présence des autres, présence dont ils n'avaient même pas besoin. Oana respirait par Andrei. Probablement, Andrei a respiré par Oana, mais il ne nous en a pas dit, il n'a même pas dit à Oana. Andrei n'est pas parti à cause d'Oana. Andrei est parti à cause de la peur de blesser Oana. Le destin d'Andrei n'a pas été très chanceux :

> L'amour est la première et la plus commune forme d'affectivité qui mène à la coopération, et ceux qui ont vécu aussi intensément l'expérience de l'amour ne seront pas satisfaits par une philosophie dans laquelle le bien suprême est considéré indépendant de celui de la personne aimée ...
> Je ne prétends pas que l'amour dans sa forme la plus élevée peut être trouvé partout, mais je soutiens que, là où on le trouve, il met en évidence des valeurs qui autrement resteraient inconnues, et il a une valeur que le scepticisme ne peut pas l'effacer, bien qu'il arrive aux sceptiques qui en sont incapables d'aimer, d'attribuer faussement, cette incapacité à leur scepticisme: L'amour est feu brûlant/ Et il soulève l'âme/ L'amour ne tremble pas, ne diminue pas, ne s'efface pas/ L'amour par lui-même n'éteint pas.
>
> (Russell, 2013 : 37)

Oana a continué sa vie. Elle a épousé un vétérinaire, elle a donné naissance à deux enfants, dont un était atteint du syndrome de Down. Oana avait trouvé la paix de l'âme dans le calme et la routine de sa famille. Sa belle-mère était une vraie amie qui l'a beaucoup aidée avec ses enfants. Son mari l'aimait énormément, il n'aurait jamais rien fait pour la contrarier. Et justement cette routine a effrayé Oana. En rêvant de son passé avec Andrei, l'appelant toujours avec la pensée qui a la plus grande puissance dans l'univers, l'inévitable s'est produit : *« Puis, par une froide soirée d'automne, l'inévitable c'est produit »*. (Chicet-Macoveiciuc, 2017 : 143)

Oana et Andrei se sont rencontrés dans la rue, par hasard. Cela faisait dix ans qu'ils ne s'étaient pas vus. Depuis quatre ans, Oana n'avait même pas rêvé d'Andrei. Il l'a regardée, mais il ne pouvait pas lui parler. La moitié de sa vie d'adulte, Oana avait espéré revoir Andrei :

> Ils étaient tous deux face à face dans le vent, sous les lumières incandescentes du boulevard, ils se regardaient, silencieusement... Ils se tenaient tous deux comme deux

> arbres immobiles, plantés à une distance suffisamment grande, afin qu'ils ne puissent jamais se toucher, mais toutefois assez petite pour être à côté l'un de l'autre pour le reste de leur vie… Ils n'ont pas entendu ou vu quelque chose autour. Presque la moitié de sa vie d'adulte, elle avait attendu ce moment. Elle voulait le regarder pendant qu'il la regardait.
>
> (Chicet-Macoveiciuc, 2017 : 145)

Ce moment de silence a été suffisant pour que la vie d'Oana prenne un autre tournant. Une fois de plus, après dix ans, Oana est devenue nostalgique. La relation n'existait plus, mais le véritable amour ne s'éteint jamais. Oana s'est changée, elle n'a plus été capable de faire face à sa vie de famille. Son mari l'aimait, mais il savait qu'elle aime toujours Andrei, et elle aime le passé fascinant avec son amour de jeunesse.

Après le revoir avec Andrei, pour Oana a suivi une période très difficile où la seule question était cela de chercher ou non Andrei : *« Pourquoi sa moralité subconsciente est-elle si contradictoire avec la raison ? »* (Russell, 2013 : 94)

Dès le début, Oana connaissait la réponse, elle savait qu'elle allait le chercher. Oana a toujours soupiré après les touches d'Andrei, après ses baisers passionnés, après son souffle, après son corps. Oana n'était pas guérie. Elle souffrait toujours à cause d'Andrei. Finalement, Oana a décidé de chercher Andrei. Et elle a agi en conséquence.

Oana était consciente que la rencontre avec Andrei va apporter des changements majeurs à son destin. Mais elle le voulait avec obstination. Oana n'a jamais oublié Andrei. Elle n'est pas morte physiquement après la séparation d'Andrei, mais elle n'a plus vécu avec passion. Certainement, Oana avait de forts sentiments pour ses enfants, elle respectait son mari, mais Oana ne vivait plus l'amour fou :

> Notre morale officielle a été formulée par des prêtres et des femmes asservies. Il est temps que les personnes appelées à participer normalement à la vie normale du monde apprennent à se rebeller contre ces absurdités maladives.
>
> (Russell, 2013 : 94)

Oana a décidé de chercher Andrei. Elle l'attendait devant la porte de l'institution où il travaillait. Oana savait qu'à son tour, Andrei avait une famille, il avait des enfants. Andrei était devenu un photographe connu, il avait une belle carrière. Oana a accepté, après dix ans, de sentir à nouveau les câlins de son amoureux :

> Mais pour que cette rébellion puisse favoriser le bonheur et rende l'homme capable de vivre selon un petit standard, au lieu d'osciller entre les deux, il est nécessaire pour lui de penser et de ressentir en profondeur ce que sa raison dit ... Quand un individu arrive à une conviction rationnelle, il est nécessaire d'en insister, d'expliquer ses conséquences, de regarder à l'intérieur pour établir s'il y a ou non une autre possibilité de survivre avec sa nouvelle conviction et quand le sentiment du péché s'intensifie, comme cela arrive parfois, il faut le traiter non pas comme une révélation et un appel à des choses supérieures, mais comme une maladie et une faiblesse - bien sûr si ce sentiment n'était pas causé par un acte qu'une éthique rationnelle le condamnerait.
>
> (Russell, 2013 : 94)

Mais l'univers qui les a unis, l'univers qui les a séparés plus tard, le même univers n'était pas d'accord pour que les deux mènent à la fin leur idylle de maturité. Le portable d'Oana sonnait avec insistance parce que sa fille atteinte du syndrome de Down était disparue.

Ce moment a mis fin à l'harmonie de la famille d'Oana. Elle et son mari ne se parlaient plus. Oana s'est sentie coupable envers son mari, envers ses enfants :

> Le sentiment du péché a quelque chose d'abject, il implique un manque de respect de soi-même. Personne n'a jamais obtenu rien de bon suite à la perte de l'estime de soi. En général, le sentiment de péché non seulement qu'il ne contribue pas à une vie heureuse, mais il a exactement l'effet inverse. Cela engendre le malheur et fait que l'homme se sent inférieur.
>
> (Russell, 2013 : 95)

Lola, la bonne et la fidèle amie d'Oana, l'a conseillé de revoir Andrei pour établir ensemble ce qu'ils pourraient faire de leur destin. De nouveau, Oana a décidé de chercher Andrei. Mais l'univers avait déjà décidé autre chose pour eux.

Andrei aimait beaucoup son métier, jusqu'au sacrifice. Malheureusement, cet amour va devenir fatal pour lui. Quand Oana se dirigeait vers l'institution où Andrei travaillait, celui-ci avait une mission. Andrei est monté sur le bâtiment pour trouver le cadre parfait. Il est tombé du bâtiment. La chute a été fatale pour Andrei.

> En dehors de la génération biologique, nous devons également considérer la perpétuation par des actes d'excellence, le désir d'avoir une réputation au-delà de la mort : la gloire. Et ... par désir de gloire, les gens font des efforts et des sacrifices qui vont jusqu'au sacrifice de la vie. Pour que leur mémoire ne s'éteigne jamais. C'est aussi un moyen d'aimer l'immortalité.
>
> (Platon, 2017 : 56)

Malheureusement, Oana a été témoin de cet événement tragique et marquant. Andrei est mort. Physiquement, il n'existe plus. Mais pour Oana, il existera toujours sous une forme ou une autre. Oana ne pouvait pas se pardonner, elle ne pouvait pas pardonner Andrei parce qu'il est parti sans lui dire s'il l'avait jamais aimée. Oana a vécu avec un sentiment constant de culpabilité. Elle se sentait soi-même coupable, coupable envers sa famille, envers Andrei.

Andrei était devenu un mythe pour Oana mais aussi pour la société. Pour Oana, Andrei était le mythe de l'amour pur et fou qu'ils vivaient comme seuls ils en savaient. Pour la société, Andrei était un photographe magnifique, unique, talentueux et difficile à remplacer. Andrei a vécu sa vie en appuyant constamment sur la pédale d'accélérateur. Andrei était un artiste. Il a vécu pour l'art, pour la photographie. Sa vie était représentée par l'art.

> En plus de la procréation biologique, il existe encore un moyen d'aspirer à l'immortalité : la procréation d'excellentes œuvres d'art, celles produites par les poètes et les artistes ou par tous ceux qui inventent quelque chose.
>
> (Platon, 2017 : 57)

La vie n'est pas toujours comme les gens le veulent. Il est difficile de trouver l'amour. Entre une relation familiale fondée sur le respect et un amour passionné, fou et viril, il y a de très grandes différences. Ce n'est qu'après la disparition physique d'Andrei qu'Oana a reçu la lettre écrite par Andrei. Andrei avait été marié et sa femme était morte à cause de lui. Sa femme était enceinte et l'a suivi sur un long voyage. Il a gagné un concours de photo qui avait pour prix un départ en Inde. Malheureusement, en raison des conditions précaires, sa femme n'a pas survécu. Sa femme est tombée malade, elle ne voulait pas quitter l'Inde. Andrei a été marqué par la perte de sa femme. C'est pourquoi il ne voulait pas avoir une relation comme Oana le voulait. Toutes ces informations étaient dans la lettre. La lettre était à Emil. Andrei savait que sa profession était dangereuse. Emil a donné la lettre à Oana après l'enterrement d'Andrei.

La vie d'Oana a suivi son cours. Elle s'est réconciliée avec son mari, mais Oana a connu l'amour avec Andrei.

4. Conclusions

Comme une ironie du destin, Ioan, le fils d'Oana, est devenu photographe. Le destin ne peut jamais être changé par un mortel.

> L'amour établit la relation entre deux êtres mortels, promettant finalement non la fusion qui annulerait toute relation, mais l'abri d'un amour plus grand qui nous garde comme nous sommes en réalité, mais pour nous guérir de la souffrance sans dépouiller notre amour.
>
> (Platon, 2017 : 78)

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The Selection of Materials in ESP Classes

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ABSTRACT

The selection of materials in ESP classes and implicitly the success of the class falls upon the shoulders of professors and learners alike, each party having to respect their roles though. It is a joint responsibility to get the best possible outcome out of the ESP lessons. It must be stressed also that all the materials have to respond to the study needs and interests of the learners; the materials are not limited to subject specific information as there are many skills that learners have to improve, to refine, to acquire and a variety of materials would perfectly serve such purposes. It is also vital to specify at this point that learners do not start from scratch but they can do with some guidance – especially with professional and specialized guidance – and definitely with some extra knowledge which should be carefully interconnected with previous knowledge like in a network.

KEYWORDS: *ESP materials, task-based activities, topic-based subjects, receptive skills*

The choice of materials to use during the ESP class is of paramount importance for the process of learning. Materials are not only important for the content they carry but also for the language used as well as for the opportunity they offer to learners to develop. As texts plus audio and video files are part of the means through which learners acquire the necessary skills in order to be able to communicate in English at work and in life, they should be carefully chosen so that ESP professors can meet the objectives of the lesson(s) being taught. Nevertheless, the selection of study materials should be based on the features of the material – the type of material, its length and the level of the language used in addition to the information put forward – and on the human factor issues – the environmental, organizational, educational aspects as well as the human and individual characteristics of the people involved, i.e. the interaction between course participants and the other elements in the class system.

There are several aspects to cover when selecting the written and spoken discourse to be studied. With the help of the type of discourse chosen for teaching, professors can make learners work on improving their receptive skills and on gaining the necessary knowledge to be able to communicate fluently as well as accurately and as a consequence to be capable of producing written and spoken discourse themselves for there is not and should not be such a thing as an ESP class without integrated skills activities – both work and life situations require competence, even proficiency in using all skills. Moreover, the discourse under the learners' "magnifying glasses" must be not only an excellent source of information and a way of broadening horizons but also the basis for exercises of reasoning, of logical thinking, of problem-solving, of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, of creativity. ESP professors indeed have a very difficult and challenging task in deciding what materials to choose for the teaching-learning process to be successful and so they should ask the learners to make suggestions and share their thoughts on this matter in the class. However, ESP professors should not rely entirely on this collaboration for the material selection; they should have a strategy well-thought of for the course and their own selection of materials. The idea is that professors are like the managers in a company, they should be authority figures but not authoritative if they want to attain their goals because any company ruled by a person who is not interested in his/ her people's opinions and thinking and does not behave professionally and in accordance with his/ her role as a specialist and leader is doomed to failure. Hence, in order to serve the interests of ESP learners and the goals of ESP professors, the materials proposed for studying should include:

- useful information encompassing a wide range of themes presented in various ways;
- new vocabulary, specific and general as well;
- functional grammar structures;

and they should be introduced in such a manner as to allow for:

- frequent possibilities to enhance language skills and other hard skills[8] needed by learners;
- several opportunities to discover the embedded soft skills[9];
- numerous situations to trigger attention to communicative competences.

Contrary to what many might believe, such materials are not taken and should not be taken only from sources specific to the learner's field of study. Not only would they be limiting the learning process but they would also make the lesson dull. On the one hand materials extracted from or about the learner's field of study are indeed relevant to the learners' studies or careers but on the other hand ESP learners' needs go far beyond what these materials can offer. In today's world successful employees

[8] "specific, teachable abilities that can be defined and measured, such as typing, writing, math, reading and the ability to use software programs" plus "the proficiency in a foreign language" (https://www.investopedia.com/terms/h/hard skills.asp#ixzz5R95hXbXf) and so on; abilities referring thus to "a person's knowledge and occupational skills" (https://www.investopedia.com/terms/s/soft-skills.asp) – Accessed in May 2016.

[9] "character traits and interpersonal skills that characterize a person's relationships with other people" being by comparison to hard skills "more difficult to acquire and change" (https://www.investopedia.com/terms/s/soft-skills.asp#ixzz5R96X6yxN) and "less tangible and harder to quantify, such as etiquette, getting along with others, listening and engaging in small" (https://www.investopedia.com/terms/h/hard-skills. asp#ixzz5R96ESiAE) plus all thought processing skills clearly seen as subjective skills – Accessed in May 2016.

and/ or entrepreneurs have to be able to communicate efficiently in an international environment as well as to think out of the box and to empathize with those that interact with them. As ESP learners are the people who aim to be part of this world and who want to take action in this world so that their careers can take off, they must be exposed to complex pieces of information to be used in the introduction of cross-curricular and comprehensive activities, projects and/ or programs.

All of the above can definitely contribute to achieving a successful teaching and learning experience. Nevertheless, there is more to effective teaching and learning than appropriate material selection based on relevant themes, purposeful tasks, correct language level, and suitable length. When it comes to the study of the written and spoken discourse ESP professors should take into consideration both their role and the role of their learners in the process as well as the possible ramifications of any reading or listening material presented.

ESP classes where reading and listening time can entail progress are classes where reading and listening activities are complex and flexible in the same time. Complexity is not to be perceived as a negative characteristic but as an opportunity to use and develop cognitive skills and many other skills, a fact which is very likely to imply high intellectual effort but as long as there is willingness to embrace flexibility and a strong passion for teaching on the part of professors and for learning on the part of learners there are benefits. A choice of complex materials and open-ended tasks implies that professors are able to rethink their strategy and adapt quickly to newly created situations while learners are open-minded and determined to learn meaning that lessons are neither dull, nor repetitive and encourage soft and hard skills development along with the improvement and the refinement of existing reading and listening skills. If professors are the ones who are meant to find ways for lessons to be meaningful and engaging, it does not signify that learners are there to be convinced to acquire and/ or to sharpen certain skills. Professors should keep their learners involved and always connected as well as give them confidence during the learning acts. Learners should have the desire to improve their skills and show readiness to do such a thing. Moreover, there should be a strong collaboration between professors and learners in order to make sure that the educational process serves its purpose.

In today's classrooms, teaching performance is translated as orientation towards student activity and acquisition. A good lesson is learner-centered with a focus on the intellect not on memory. Maryellen Weimer also emphasizes today's learner-centered teaching and its benefits. The class should never contain boring elements; it should be interactive and unexpected. It should cater for its learners' needs, feed its learners' interests and satisfy its learners' curiosity. Additionally, we can say that all classes should be filled with their learners' joy to be there and to study because enjoyment is more than compatible with learning. In such classes, professors are inspiring as well as innovative and have a participative style of management. In *Essential Teacher Knowledge*, often shortened *ETK*, Jeremy Harmer stresses the idea that professors are "at all times facilitators of learning" (146) and in *The Practice of English Language Teaching* he explains that "any role which the teacher adopts –

and which is designed to help students learn – is to some extent facilitative" (57). According to him if teachers are "fluent at" changing these roles, then their "effectiveness as teachers is greatly enhanced" (57). Harmer also mentions the term "scaffolding" (*ETK*, 147) to support and in a way to enrich the idea of teachers as facilitators saying that such teaching helps students advance during their developmental process by "providing the framework to hang their knowledge on, just as we use scaffolding to support a structure that is being built" (*ETK*, 147) and he suggests that professors should stay close to provide emotional support to their learners until they are truly independent. Tom Hutchinson, in his article "Making Materials Work in the ESP Classroom," focuses on the educational process from another angle and brings forward some ideas, some "fundamental principles of learning" (71) as he calls them, to show how professors can have positive results with their learners. He affirms that a thorough analysis of learners' needs so as to make materials as relevant as possible to the learners' necessities and as applicable as possible to the class requirements is what matters in education. Hutchinson further differentiates between targeting "language needs" and "learning needs," i.e. between knowing to identify the needed language items and being able to find the right method to lead learners to gain competence, even proficiency, in English as well as in others skills, we might add. It is a well-known fact that in ESP classes the materials to be studied are not mere linguistic containers but also carriers of information which is a thought to be properly grasped. ESP professors and learners have to focus both on content and on language because there is no successful outcome in communication without language knowledge and without combining soft skills and hard skills. If we take reading as example, language knowledge is not enough for understanding the message transmitted, other skills are also necessary in order to be able to comprehend texts and to be able to produce any follow-up discourse or engage in any follow-up discourse.

In *Essential Teacher Knowledge* (ETK) Harmer describes the roles professors can have from activity to activity. They can:

- be involved in "transmission teaching" "giving the students information or explaining things" (146);
- be "controllers" during the explanation parts of the class and during the announcement times (146) or while "leading a question and answer session" and "restoring order" if the case may be (58) as he writes in *The Practice of English Language Teaching* or while using scaffolding to instruct and guide in certain situations we can add;
- be "organizers" to set up, start, demonstrate, provide feedback (146);
- be "evidence gatherers" in group work activity by monitoring (146) no matter if the activity is meant to end in peer evaluation or professor evaluation, an evaluation which has to be focused on what it is known, what has been learned, and what needs further clarifying in both cases;

- be "prompters" encouraging learners to produce new sentences (146) as well as to be creative and analytical both in terms of language acts and ideas or approaches, as it shall be proved that they need;
- be a "resource" for students when necessary (146), a spring of knowledge even;
- be "feedback providers" and carefully correct learners without forgetting to praise efforts (146) and acknowledge development;
- be "editors" and comment, ask, suggest something to make learners think or overthink about what they want to say or do (146), the thing being not to always ask questions so as to get a definite answer, not to judge but maybe to give advice or make suggestions to help learners look at a certain situation from another angle or even challenge learners' assumptions to trigger argumentation;
- be "tutors" if need be (146) or if asked and according to the case indicate another course of action for tutoring such as accessing tutorials online and immersing in further individual practice so that learners can develop autonomy – sometimes professors can tutor by teaming up with other experts from online or with their colleagues who teach the subject of interest in the learners' mother tongue;
- be "comprehensible input providers" (146) exposing learners to "language that is just above their level but which they more or less understand" (82) in order to "acquire language" some say and to "learn" new language others say, but there should not be any exaggeration with involvement during classes on the professors' part.

And in *The Practice of English Language Teaching* Harmer talks also about professors who can:

- be "participants" and join in the learners' "discussions, role-plays, or group decision-making activities" (60) to "enliven things from inside instead of always having to prompt or organize from outside the group" (61) because sometimes it can be more enjoyable and more useful to have the professor participating than acting as a resource and indeed this can help give learners a boost;
- be "performers" not only by being active participants in the lessons like shown above but by inspiring through reading aloud for example and thus be also that "teaching aid" learners might need sometimes to realize something or even have an epiphany.

In addition to all these roles, ESP professors have to:

- be course designers as there is no such course as to suit all particular needs and be suitable in all situations, thus an ESP course – even if there is a main

English course for a specific subject – should be tailored to correspond with the age, desires, language level, speed of learning, manner of learning, and necessities of the learners being taught especially because we now have "limitless opportunities to engage people's imagination and to provide forms of teaching and learning that are highly customized to them" (Robinson and Aronica, xx);

- be material providers as there is always a must to introduce new pieces of audio and/ or visual material, new texts along with the core material, the subject literature, i.e. new themes to be explored and even subject literature to be updated given the fact that we live in a rapidly changing world characterized by a globalized market dominated by fluctuations in tastes and avidity for state-of-the-art things; and yet professors should not always be the only material providers meaning that sometimes they should team up with their learners in choosing materials or/ and allow their learners to bring materials for study.

Professors should always share their roles with their learners and let them be part of the material selection as well as of the creation of materials to be studied in order to assure the success of the educational process. It is not such a bad idea to team up with learners regarding the way the course unfolds and the materials are used. The English language used in the context of preferred themes becomes easier to learn and motivation increases, which makes of the ESP class the class sought. Both the professor and the learner take turns in being consultants for each other. The professor has the ability to balance skills and language development whereas the learner is the one who has more knowledge and understanding of the subject studied as he is a specialist or preparing to become one. Nonetheless, there are times when even the ESP professor can help the learner with the subject comprehension and the subject orientation because the learner might be a beginner in the field not to mention that the professor can also have the support of field specialists and/ or professors. What is being taught in addition to the specialized subject can be again the result of professor-learner collaboration and not only. The professor can suggest additional themes to be studied along with the specialized themes and present these extra themes through tasks which are convincing per se, intriguing, thought-provoking and exciting.

In his article about materials that work in ESP classes, Hutchinson enumerates the points to be considered in the teaching process by professors so that ESP classes can become a rewarding experience for learners and pedagogues alike. He implies that good management and understanding of the teaching and the learning process can be beneficial to all participants be them professors or learners. Hutchinson stresses the importance of these aspects of the educational process by drawing up some self-explanatory guidelines:

- "learning is development"
- "learning is a thinking process"
- "learning is an active process"

- "learning involves making decisions"
- "learning a language is not just a matter of linguistic knowledge"
- "second language learners are already communicatively competent"
- "learning is an emotional experience"
- "learning is not systematic"
- "learning needs should be considered at every stage of the learning process" (71-75)

His guidelines do not refer solely to learners but to professors too because once the concept of learning is fully understood by professors and by learners, the educational act entails achievement of goals.

With all this being said, it is much more obvious now that in the selection of materials professors should bear in mind the importance not only of intensive but also of extensive reading and listening during course time and of genres as Harmer points out in his book on *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. As far as the differences are concerned, he makes it clear that in the case of the former learners use their receptive skills with a fixed purpose in mind usually under close supervision of professors who are there to offer guidance if necessary whereas in the case of the latter learners exercise their receptive skills in a more relaxed way without worrying about each word as long as they can get the general meaning, they can decode the message, and they can enjoy the experience. In *Learning Teaching: A Guide for English Language* James Scrivener supports Harmer's claims about reading and listening intensively and extensively by insisting on the idea that the material used for study can be read or listened to with the intention of discovering specific details and giving them thoughtful consideration by going back to double-check certain details as much as they can in order to discover/ get the gist. Usually extensive reading as well as extensive listening take up a lot of time and cannot be done entirely during the class but professors can ask learners to do this practice at home and can check learners by having them present summaries or syntheses of the material covered. In his book, Scrivener sheds light on the fact that without accurately understanding the finer details in a piece of material there is no gain when aiming at an intensive study of it and on the fact that extensive reading or extensive listening of any material can become pointless if the aim is not to acquire fluency and get the big picture.

Reading and listening skills are essential skills no matter the educational purpose or the life circumstance, but they are mandatory skills to master especially when it comes to ESP learners because they have to be able to succeed in a vast array of situations. ESP learners need to be active readers and/ or listeners, that is to comprehend, to gather and to process information be it in a top-down manner – "the reader or listener gets a general view" of the material "absorbing the overall picture" (*The Practice of English Language Teaching*, 201) or in a bottom-up manner – "the reader or listener focuses on individual phrases, and achieves understanding by stringing these detailed elements together to build up a whole" (*The Practice of English Language Teaching*, 201) in order to establish rapport, to solve issues, and to be productive. So, it is not far-fetched to see "interactions between top-down and bottom-up processing" of the material studied (*The Practice of English Language Teaching*, 201) which means that sometimes learners need to go back to the material to see if there are relevant elements skipped that can help with the general idea transmitted. And there are times when learners have to combine top-down skills, the skimming and the scanning skills as Scrivener shows too. He mentions that "although scanning is involved with finding individual points from the text without reading carefully through every word of the text, the way that a reader finds that information involves some degree of processing of the overall shape and structure of the text, moving [his/ her] eyes quickly over the whole page, searching for key words or clues from the textual layout and the content that will enable [him/ her] to focus on smaller sections of text that [he/ she] is likely to get answers from" (265). It is all about alternating reading speeds or about increasing or decreasing the level of concentration in the case of listening. For example ESP learners might be in one of the following situations: they have to check whether or not the material given/ found is the needed one and then they quickly listen to or read it while trying to pick up one or two things that can help them differentiate between different materials on the same topic; or they have to listen to many tutorials/ lengthy tutorials or read a lot of materials/ large pieces of text which include specific details, worthy of attention, those bits that they actually need so as to identify the subject and its value meaning that they use their skimming skills but they are also able to notice those points that matter as their scanning skills are running in the background; or they have to decide whether or not to read something in depth, whether or not they have the information needed after covering a piece of material.

ESP professors have to give learners the chance to practice these skills by either bringing materials to class or by asking their learners to bring materials to class. Once in possession of the study materials, professors devise reading and listening activities with a given focus divided into three parts and think of all suitable task types for before, during and after the activity chosen so that learners can exercise and improve their receptive skills and sub-skills. Furthermore, professors should introduce the idea of extensive reading and listening for vocabulary development, for polishing existing knowledge, for broadening horizons, for enhancing thought processing skills be them of an analytical or a creative nature or both.

Reading is defined beautifully and revealingly by McNamara in *Reading Comprehension Strategies: Theory, Interventions, and Technologies*. McNamara writes that "reading is an extraordinary achievement when one considers the number of levels and components that must be mastered" (3) and so can it be said about listening. Written discourse and spoken discourse do not receive enough attention from ESP professors and are not explored enough in ESP classes, mainly because teaching materials are usually limited to specialized themes. Any reading and listening material can entail exercises of reasoning, of logical thinking, of problem-solving, of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, or/ and of creativity as well as exercises which are task-oriented and which Harmer describes as sub-skills such as: identifying the topic, predicting and guessing the content, looking for general understanding (skimming), locating specific information (scanning), finding detailed information, interpreting the message(s) (*The Practice of English Language Teaching*, 201-202). Dudley-Evans and St. Johns (1998) pinpoint a few extra crucial skills that should be dealt with in ESP classes and these are: selecting what is relevant for the current purpose; using all the features of the text such as headings, layout; identifying organizational patterns; understanding relations within a sentence and between sentences; using cohesive and discourse markers; inferring; supporting ideas and examples; processing and evaluating the information during reading/ listening; transferring or using the information while or after reading and/ or listening.

In the world of ESP learners, there is an abundance of tasks which have to be done within a given interval of time, usually a rather short one just as it should happen during ESP classes which should be a recreation of the outside world where the learners live and work. There is need for information analysis in an objective way; for reasoned judgment; for evaluations of dates, facts, figures, phenomena, criteria, research findings; for reasonable conclusions extracted from a set of information; for differentiating between useful and less useful data; for solution findings or problem-solving; for decision-making; for innovation. Every situation has two aspects: one refers to the way people get to a result in good time and the other refers to the correctness of this result. Therefore, ESP teaching and learning should encompass quite a wide range of activities, most of which are based on reading and listening material covered at a given point in time, and these activities should give learners the possibility of practicing open-mindedness and flexibility; getting involved in collaborative work; using deductive reasoning (as a top-down approach to move from the general to the specific) or inductive reasoning (as a bottom-up approach to generalize based on specific observations) well or combining the two if possible; looking for and choosing new ways to solve something rather than applying the norm which might not work hand in hand with the new tendencies; selecting (the main) ideas from certain materials; taking notes; asking questions so as to reach certain goals be them indirect questions for politeness or thoughtful questions for making analyses, for seeking information or for justly interpreting cases; selecting/ thinking about probing questions for offering support in drawing conclusions which should never be made in haste by ignoring evidence or arguments; avoiding biased input; making plans and arrangements; conducting brainstorming sessions; taking evasive actions and providing evasive answers/ replies, comments; speaking and writing in accordance with the circumstances and the people involved which also implies being aware that register is one thing and politeness level is another; showing cultural sensitivity; rephrasing; drafting and editing; reviewing; and so on.

It is must be acknowledged that ESP materials have to include texts as well as audio and video files containing subject specific topics but also the fact that there should be chances for ESP learners to access materials that go beyond general English, are necessary in communication acts and allow for practice in hard skills and soft skills vital for surviving successfully at work and even in life. Such materials can be literary materials among which novels, poems, films, TV series, and non-literary materials such as (auto)biographies, diaries and blogs, text messages and tweets, articles and editorials, reviews, travel guides, advertisements or commercials, TV shows, news, documentaries, tables and diagrams, face to face lectures and online lessons, etc.

Literary and non-literary materials can be studied, taken as examples and used methodologically to teach various skills. For instance, the interests of the learners of exact sciences or of the employees in the industry or business sectors are not entirely opposed to those of the people activating in the arts fields. Science is not the opposite of art and creativity but on the contrary. Studying literature can help improve creativity, imagination, emotional and social intelligence along with summarizing and storytelling skills. TV shows can be examples of good debates and can contain examples of tackling dilemmas. Critical literary studies, reviews, blogs can be excellent sources for teaching and learning how to draw parallels and make comparisons. Documentaries, advertisements and commercials, travel guides can contain proof of ingenuity as they can exemplify the idea of selection criteria and of accuracy, the principles of emotive language and exaggerations, the features of interpretation given by circumstances, and the necessity and the relevance of details. Articles and editorials, face to face lectures and online lessons, as well as news can draw attention to the difference between something being genuine and something being fake. And the enumeration can continue; there are so many variables that we cannot include them all. From this wealth of sources every type of learner can benefit.

Everything included in ESP classes must have immediate applicability and so it should not be difficult to prove that the types of materials presented above have this characteristic. Working with such materials makes it more than easy to acquire new skills or to polish skills which can be used immediately in daily life, at work, at school: writing an innovative computer program or writing shorter code lines can serve for various technologies and faster processing and implies a high level of creativity used to match or even surpass clients' expectations; showing ingenuity in problem-solving activities just as characters in a book or in a movie can save the day and make managers, colleagues and/ or clients feel admiration and respect; developing arguments for those negotiation instances encountered often in various books, lectures, on TV and experienced at work and outside work can increase the chances to succeed; having the gift of storytelling can be an asset when it comes to hooking the audience during presentations; having cultural knowledge and thus adopting a suitable behavior with clients can help with closing good deals and with working efficiently; processing theoretical aspects and definitions in order to apply them to current debates and issues can make the difference between success and failure in business situations; being endowed with social and emotional intelligence can help with building good networks and with maintaining rapport with the people around; drawing parallels and making comparisons to prove a point can translated as excellent marketing strategies sometimes; being able to read between the lines can uncover hidden message(s) and can be of great importance in risk analysis processes or in SWOT analyses; knowing how to tackle dilemmas can lead to good solutions and thus to overcoming stumbling blocks; dealing with conflicts successfully can enable the continuation of collaboration; being capable of summarizing discourse well can save time and money as summaries are needed in updates and commentaries; identifying narrators and differentiating between the narrator's opinions and that of somebody else's in a correct manner can help with the presentation of research findings accurately; working swiftly with direct and indirect speech can be valuable in writing minutes; etc. Moreover, studying facts, opinions and bias can be useful in all domains of life and what better way than that of looking at works of fiction and even non-fiction as explained above so that learners can study better the fine differences between them and see that sometimes a mix of facts, opinions and even bias are inserted in one type of material (e.g. fiction – historical novels; non-fiction – articles, editorials, reviews, news) whereas other times it is almost impossible or even prohibited, as the case may be, to combine any of these (e.g. fiction – novels, poems; non-fiction – reports, documentaries). The decision to study long or short pieces of material, full or short version of texts and audio/ video files rests with both the professor and the learner once time and needs are considered.

Fiction and non-fiction materials such as those offered as examples here can also serve as examples of discourse types, i.e. descriptive discourse, informative discourse, instructive discourse, persuasive discourse, so much needed in the ESP world and in daily life. Learners have to find out how to identify their characteristics and purpose as well as how to manage to produce their own written or spoken discourse keeping these things in mind because they also need to write reports, emails, memos; to make presentations; to talk at meetings; to help new team members; to communicate internally with colleagues about various subjects; to cope with life challenges among which lectures, tests, rapport building, writing and speaking to people in an array of circumstances; etc. All this require knowledge about making descriptions, providing information, giving instructions, or using persuasion techniques to obtain the desired outcome.

In addition to the reasons provided above for studying different genres during ESP classes, professors can also think of the reasons given by Harmer in his book on the practice of English language teaching. He mentions introducing interesting topics, having variation in class, being exposed to authentic material, exercising already existing knowledge which is further used to acquire new knowledge, and enriching the possibilities of working on many challenging comprehension tasks.

Instead of a conclusion we could say that there exists a bulk of materials to choose from and as long as the choice is based on sound reasons, good time management, and mutual understanding between professors and learners for the benefit of the educational act prospects are wonderful. In addition, it worth noting also that all the parties involved in ESP classes should realize that success comes only if attention is equally divided between language learning and content interpretation and only if culture sensitivity is taken into account. And last but not least, in order to avoid disappointment, professors and learners alike should understand that the educational process is a team effort and, as James Scrivener points out, "'teaching' does not equal 'learning'" (21), i.e. "teaching does not necessarily lead to learning" (21). It is not enough for professors to do their jobs; learners must put in all their energy and attention as well.

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Suffixes that do not change the grammatical class of the words
(based on the Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary)

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ABSTRACT

Derivation is the morphological process that results in the formation of new lexemes. Derivation is a process by which a new word is built from a base, usually through the addition of an affix. This process, also called affixation, is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. The present research is devoted to the analysis of suffixes that do not change the grammatical class of the words.

KEYWORDS: *suffixes, new lexemes, grammatical class*

The process of affixation consists in coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to a root morpheme. Affixation is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. Derived words formed by affixation may be the result of one or several applications of word-formation rule and thus the stems of words making up a word-cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees. Functional affixes serve to convey grammatical meaning. They build different forms of one and the same word. A word form, or the form of a word, is defined as one of the different aspects a word may take as a result of inflection. Complete sets of all the various forms of a word when considered as inflectional patterns, such as declensions or conjugations, are termed paradigms. A paradigm has been defined in grammar as the system of grammatical forms characteristic of a word, e. g. near, nearer, nearest; son, son's, sons, sons'.

Derivational affixes serve to supply the stem with components of lexical and lexico-grammatical meaning, and thus form different words. One and the same lexico-grammatical meaning of the affix is sometimes accompanied by different combinations of various lexical meanings. Thus, the lexico-grammatical meaning supplied by the suffix **-y** consists in the ability to express the qualitative idea peculiar to adjectives and creates adjectives from noun stems. The lexical meanings of the suffix are various: 1). 'full of', (e.g. bushy, cloudy), 2). 'composed of', (e.g. stony), 3). 'having the quality of, (e.g. slangy), 4). 'resembling', (e.g. baggy), 5). 'covered with', (e.g. hairy, etc.).

This suffix sometimes conveys emotional components of meaning, e.g. My school reports used to say: “Not amenable to discipline; too fond of organizing,” which was only a kind way of saying: “Bossy.” (M. Dickens). The word bossy not only means ‘having the quality of a boss’ or ‘behaving like a boss’; it is also a derogatory word. [Arnold, 1986]

In conformity with the division of derivational affixes into suffixes and prefixes affixation is subdivided into suffixation and prefixation. Distinction is naturally made between prefixal and suffixal derivatives according to the last stage of derivation. Words like reappearance, unreasonable, denationalise, are often qualified as prefixal-suffixal derivatives. [Ginzburg 2004]

A careful study of a great many suffixal and prefixal derivatives has revealed an essential difference between them. In Modern English suffixation is mostly characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while pre-fixation is mostly typical of verb formation. The distinction also rests on the role different types of meaning play in the semantic structure of the suffix and the prefix. The part-of-speech meaning has a much greater significance in suffixes as compared to prefixes which possess it in a lesser degree. Due to it a prefix may be confined to one part of speech as, e.g., enslave, encage, unbutton or may function in more than one part of speech as, e.g., over- in-over-kind a, to overfeed v, overestimation n. Unlike prefixes, suffixes as a rule function in anyone part of speech often forming a derived stem of a different part of speech as compared with that of the base, e.g. careless a — care n; suitable a — suit v, etc. Furthermore, it is necessary to point out that a suffix closely knit together with a base forms a fusion retaining less of its independence than a prefix which is as a general rule more independent semantically, for example reading — ‘the act of one who reads’; ‘ability to read’; and to re-read — ‘to read again’.

The American structuralists B. Bloch and G. Trager formulate their point as follows: “A suffixal derivative is a two-morpheme word which is grammatically equivalent to (can be substituted for) any simple word in all the constructions where it occurs." This rule is not to be taken as an absolutely rigid one because the word building potential and productivity of stems depend on several factors. Thus, no further addition of suffixes is possible after **-ness, -ity, -dom, -ship** and **-hood**. A derivative is mostly capable of further derivation and is therefore homonymous to a stem. The word foolish, for example, is derived from the stem fool and is homonymous to the stem foolish- occurring in the word’s foolishness and foolishly. Inflected words cease to be homonymous to stems. No further derivation is possible from the word form fools, where the stem fool- is followed by the functional affix -s. Inflected words are neither structurally nor functionally equivalent to the morphologically simple words belonging to the same part of speech. The word things is different from the word business functionally, because these two words cannot occur in identical contexts, and structurally, because of the different character of their immediate constituents and different word-forming possibilities [Bloch and Trager 1986].

Another essential feature of affixes that should not be overlooked is their combining power or valency and the derivational patterns in which they regularly occur.

Thus, unhappy, untrue and unattractive are quite regular combinations, while seemingly analogous unsad, unfalse, unpretty do not exist. The possibility of a particular stem taking a particular affix depends on phono-morphological, morphological and semantic factors. The suffix -ance/-ence, for instance, occurs only after **b, t, d, dz, v, l, r, m, n**: disturbance, insistence, independence, but not after **s** or **z**: condensation, organization. It is of course impossible to describe the whole system. To make our point clear we shall take adjective-forming suffixes as an example. They are mostly attached to noun stems. They are: -ed (barbed), -en (golden), -ful (careful), -less (careless), -ly (soldierly), -like (childlike), -y (hearty) and some others. The highly productive suffix -able can be combined with noun stems and verbal stems alike (e.g. clubbable, bearable). It is especially frequent in the pattern un- + verbal stem + -able (unbearable). Sometimes it is even attached to phrases in which composition and affixation are simultaneous producing compound-derivatives (unbrushoffable, ungetatable). These characteristics are of great importance both structurally and semantically [Arnold 1986].

Their structural significance is clear if we realize that to describe the system of a given vocabulary one must know the typical patterns on which its words are coined. To achieve this, it is necessary not only to know the morphemes of which they consist but also to reveal their recurrent regular combinations and the relationship existing between them. This approach ensures a rigorously linguistic basis for the identification of lexico-grammatical classes within each part of speech. In the English language these classes are little studied so far, although an inquiry into this problem seems very promising.

Some affixes, i.e. suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words to a, different part of speech. There are suffixes however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another; a suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a different semantic group, e.g. a concrete noun becomes an abstract one, as is the case with child — childhood, friend — friendship, etc.

Chains of suffixes occurring in derived words having two and more suffixal morphemes are sometimes referred to in lexicography as compound suffixes: -ably = -able + -ly (e.g. profitably, unreasonably); -ically = -ic + -al + -ly (e.g. musically, critically); -ation = -ate + -ion (e.g. fascination, isolation) and some others.

Compound suffixes do not always present a mere succession of two or more suffixes arising out of several consecutive stages of derivation. Some of them acquire a new quality operating as a whole unit. Let us examine from this point of view the suffixation in words like fascination, translation, adaptation and the like. Adaptation looks at first sight like a parallel to fascination, translation. The latter however are first-degree derivatives built with the suffix -ion on the bases fascinate-, translate-. But there is no base adaptate-, only the shorter base adapt-. Likewise, damnation, condemnation, formation, information and many others are not matched by shorter bases ending in -ate, but only by still shorter ones damn-, condemn-, form-, inform-. Thus, the suffixation is a specific suffix of a composite nature. It consists of two suffixes -ate and -ion, but in many cases functions as a single unit in first-degree derivatives. It is referred to in linguistic literature as a coalescent suffix or a group suffix. Adaptation is then a derivative of the first degree of derivation built with the coalescent suffix on the base adapt-.

Further we'll focus our attention on the investigation of the affixes that do not change the grammatical class of the words they are added to. Firstly, we'll take into consideration the suffixes that do not change the grammatical class. We identified the following patterns:

Pattern 1. **n. + ~ = n.** **Meaning of morpheme**

lemon + -ade = lemonade,
Africa + -ana = Africana 'collection of facts, objects, etc.',
discipline + -arian = disciplinarian 'practice of',
function + -ary = functionary,
director + -ate = directorate,
boot + -ee = bootee 'diminutive',
mountain + -eer = mountaineer 'person concerned with the **n**',
philosophy + -er = philosopher 'practicer of',
fish + -ery = fishery 'place where an action is carried out',
cook + -ery = cookery 'art of, practice of',
snob + -ery = snobbery,
rival + -ry = rivalry 'state, quality, character of',
journal + -ese = journalese 'in the (literary) style of',
lion + -ess = lioness 'female of **n.**',
cigar + -ette = cigarette 'diminutive',
usher + -ette = usherette 'female',
flannel + -ette = flannelette 'imitation',
hand + -ful = handful 'amount that fills',
boy + -hood = boyhood 'status, rank, condition of life',
mathematics + -ian = mathematician 'specialist in',
music + -ian = musician,
dog + -ie = doggie 'pet name or familiar name',
pig + -y = piggy,
hero + -ism = heroism 'showing qualities typical of',
Buddha + -ism = Buddhism 'specific doctrine, principle or movement',
drama + -ist = damatist 'agent of an **–ize** verb',
king + -dom = kingdom 'domain',
pound + -worth = poundsworth 'using the amount of',
tobacco + -ist = tabacconist 'person concerned with a specific activity',
Labor + -ite = Laborite 'follower, devotee of a person or organization',
pig + -let = piglet 'diminutive',
duck + -ling = duckling 'diminutive',

hire + -ling = hireling ‘person connected with’,
country + -man = countryman ‘dweller in’,
milk + -man = milkman ‘somebody connected by a specific activity to’,
fish + -monger = fishmonger ‘somebody who deals in’,
song + -ster = songster ‘somebody connected with the **n**’
land + -scape = landscape ‘a stretch of scenery’,
friend + -ship = friendship ‘a state of being, status, office’,
musician + -ship = musicianship ‘skill, proficiency as’,
photograph + -y = photography ‘system of’.

Pattern 2. **adj. + ~ = adj.** **Meaning of morpheme**

outer + -most = outermost ‘superlative of **adj.**, very’,
two + -fold = twofold ‘of (so many) parts’,
red + -ish = reddish ‘somewhat, near to’.

Analyzing the suffixes that do not change the grammatical class of the words they are added to, we observed the models: **n + ~ = n; adj + ~ = adj.**

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European Legal System, Legal Istruments and Translation – related Issues

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ABSTRACT

The paper focuses on legal translation issues, more precisely, on the translation of contracts from an empirical perspective. It is systematically organised, defining the key terms of the scientific investigation - translation, legal translation, contract language - in an interdisciplinary landscape, i.e. achieving a coherent conceptual and methodological toolkit deriving from linguistics (diachronic and synchronic perspectives are combined in this respect as the language of contract is envisaged in its dynamics), sociolinguistics, pragmalinguistics, corpus linguistics and translation studies.

KEYWORDS: *international legal english, translation, issues*

1. International legal English

The concept of *international legal English* in any specific legal field is controversial and it demands specific approaches based on socio-cultural contexts, i.e. specific legal systems. In this respect, Northcott (2008: 3) proposes the learners that starting from "the essential elements of a contract under English law [...] to use the language they have learnt in order to compare their own country's contract law".

According to Tiersma (2008:7) "Legal English means the language of the law of England, America", of other countries whose official language is English and of most of the countries who internationally interact within business and international affairs and trade.

Earlier, Trosborg (1991) advocated that law reflects society, and a legal system of a particular nation or a speech community is a reflection of its culture and its institutional traditions and regularities. Because of this close interaction between the legal system and the culture of a nation, legal translation becomes more difficult. Therefore, sustaining the importance of the cultural variable in all kinds of translation, in general, and in legal translation, in particular, linguists and sociologists "emphasize the importance of cultural awareness on behalf of the legal translator beside his ability to manipulate over the linguistic barriers of the two languages" (Trosborg, 1991: 78).

1.1. Historical development of the English legal language

Though there is no single answer to the question of how legal language came to be what it is. According to Tiersma (2008: 8), the British Celts has a less significant the impact o on the English legal system, while the Germanic invaders who spoke Anglo-Saxon or Old English grounded the basis of a type of legal language, the remains of which have survived until today, examples such as "bequeath", "theft", "guilt", and "land" can attest this historical reality. Furthermore, the Anglo-Saxons made extensive use of alliteration in their legal language, which survived in today's legal language expressions such as "aid and abet", "any and all".

Later on, the spread of Christianity played a significant role in the evolution of language and law of England in 597 AD, as it promoted writing in Latin. Thus, the influence of the Roman Catholic Church and, implicitly, of the Latin language had obvious effects on England's legal matters; as the use of Latin as legal language introduced terms such as "client", "admit" and "mediate" (*ibidem*).

The time span after the Duke of Normandy had claimed the English throne and invaded England in 1066 indicates further linguistic and social influences the Norman Conquest had on the written legal language that replaced English with Latin. Even though, beginning with 1210, the language of statutes was French, t it was not until two hundred years after the Conquest that France became the language of oral pleadings in the royal courts and it remained so for the next one or two centuries. A reversed situation occurred starting with 1417, when King Henry, while fighting the French, dissolved the Norman linguistic bonds and ordered that most of his official documents to be written in English.

At this point we could identify two main influences upon legal English historical development, i.e. the traditional Latin influence that developed across centuries and the emergence of France, both languages functioned alongside within the field of legal language, especially in its written form. We can still encounter evidences of the fact that the writs were drafted in Latin for so long - even nowadays many of them have Latin names. Moreover, Latin is still present in expressions relating to the names of cases and parties; for example in England the term for the crown in criminal cases is "Rex or Regina" (*ibidem*).

After the era of Anglo-French as a living language, French became extensively used within the legal profession, especially by lawyers and judges. A series of French terms are still highly frequent in current legal English, such as "accounts" "payable/receivable", "attorney" "court martial" (*ibid*:7). Similarly to early Anglo-Saxon era, where structures containing the association of two words with closely related meaning, such as "to have and to hold'", this type of repetitions are to be encountered in legal French as well, often containing a native English word together with the equivalent French term, for as most of the inhabitants at the time were partially bilingual and thus at least one of the terms could have been easily understood, for example, "acknowledge and confess", "had and received", "will and testament", "fit and proper". (*ibid*: 8)

Historical researchers within this field testify the fact that during Middle Ages, the legal profession made use of three different languages, while throughout the rest of the 17th century, the influence of Latin and legal French decreased, and in 1731, the Parliament permanently ended the use of French and Latin in legal proceedings. However, it became difficult to translate many French and Latin terms into English, taking into consideration that the exact words of legal authorities mattered very much to the profession.

Cumulatively, legal English stems from Latin and French and therefore has got several layers. Most of the technical vocabulary in legal English derives directly from French or Latin and not from Anglo-Saxon; Latin and Norman French terminology still exists side by side in legal texts:

Anglo-Saxon	Norman French
bid	offer
freedom	liberty
land	country
worth	value

Starting with the 18th century, Tiersma (2008) mentions a slow simplification of the legal language. The author equally discusses the efforts of "plain legal English Campaign" within the 19th century. But despite these efforts at simplification and clarification, the gap between legal language and everyday language is still very wide.

The complexity of the legal register is highly obvious in written documents, which are often not easily understood by the general readership. However, the plain language movement has been compelling commercial, banking and insurance. Starting with the 18th century, Tiersma (2008) mentions a slow simplification of the legal language. The author equally discusses the efforts of "plain legal English Campaign" within the 19th century. But despite these efforts at simplification and clarification, the gap between legal language and everyday language is still very wide.

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companies to rewrite information about their policies in the everyday English and make legal documents clear and short. Many English speaking countries have passed laws requiring the leases, insurance policies, loan agreements, and other documents for non-lawyers to be written in plain English.

On 26 April 1998 the legal language and traditions that characterised British courts for decades were swept away in a set of rules published in an 800-page document by Lord Chancellor´s Department1. Old Latin and French law terms such as writ or plaintiff were replaced by “plain legal English” terms.

The Lord Chancellor’s Department was a United Kingdom government department answerable to the Lord Chancellor with jurisdiction over England and Wales. Created in 1885 as the Lord Chancellor’s Office with a small staff to assist the Lord Chancellor in his day-to-day duties, the department grew in power over the course of the 20th century, and at its peak had jurisdiction over the entire judicial system and a staff of over 22,000. Before it was merged into the Department for Constitutional Affairs (now the Ministry of Justice), it was the oldest United Kingdom government department.

Despite of these efforts to make legal language easier for understanding, the present day legal English continues to be a highly specialised and distinctive field of English.

1.2. European legal languages and legal English as **lingua franca**

Moving forward in the attempt to explain the phenomenon of an international English Language, we share Salmi-Tolomen’s (2001: 506) perspective, based on the views advocated by Fairclough and Foucaultin that “technologisation” is the process of the authorities to bring changes in society. Thus, as suggested, these changes are generally imposed by the most *powerful players*, who manage to change or influence the social reality by means of language.

According to Luttermann (2009: 318-319), within Europe and within European Union, “legal language is multilingual”. This entails numerous language relations regarding the protection and distribution of language, as well as procedural questions. Formal language law distinguishes between *treaty languages*, *official languages*, *working languages* and *language of a case*.

Treaty languages are of main importance as they are the languages used for the interpretation of the Constituting Treaty of the European Union. They are regulated by primary law Treaty establishing the European Community. This first denotes the original text in German, French, Italian and Dutch. The wording of each version is authentic. This regulation was extended in the respective accession documents to the official languages of the joining member states.

Official Languages are those languages used externally by the Community organs. At the moment there are 24 official languages: Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Irish, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Slovene, Spanish, Swedish and Croatian. Regulations and documents of general validity have to be written down in these languages and published in the Official Journal; the respective language version is concurrent with the versions in other languages. In the same way, collections of decisions of European jurisdiction must be published in all official languages. Furthermore a member state may address a document to a Community organ in one of the official languages and demand and answer in this language. An organ must answer a member state in the language of this state (Article 3, Regulation no. 1/58).

Working Languages are languages in which the Community organs work internally in communication with one another. They are also set down in the Council Regulation. In this respect, Lutermann (2009) mentions Article 1, Regulation no.1/58, where working languages are treated equally like the official languages. It is only regarding details that the Community organs can decide for themselves within the autonomy of their own rule of procedure. Yet, he (2009: 318-319) reveals the fact that "in practice languages are no longer treated in identical fashion. For instance the Commission has officially determined that all internal documents must be published in German, English and French." But even this regulation is not always adhered to as commission staff regularly use only English or French.

Languages of a case denote the language used in legal proceedings before the European Court of Justice. They are determined separately in the Rules of Procedure (Article 290 TEC, Article 7 Regulation no.1/58). Article 29 § 1 of the Rules of Procedure of the European Court of Justice (ECJ) determines that all official languages and Gaelic can be languages of a case. According to Lutermann (2009), the plaintiff has the privilege of language choice and may choose of the 24 languages as the language of a case. This language then dominates all the stages of the court case. The parties have to submit their documents in it. The closing arguments and the sentence are binding only in the language of the case, not also in the other languages. This means that the European Court is the only Community organ in which procedures are not legally binding on a multilingual level. The sentence must be published in the official collection of the Court in all official languages.

During the last two decades the interdependence between modern societies has increased political and economic cooperation between countries in Europe and brought legal, political and language systems into closer contact. Today ordinary citizens are required a higher level of institutional literacy in order to participate with full standing. Therefore a speaker of a language other than English would choose English as a language of communication and publication and this can be understood as an integrating effort of one's own writing into the cultural and stylistic conventions of an "Anglophone tradition" (Kretzenbacher, 2001:452)

1.3. The **Community paradox** *and the increase of English legal translations*

As endorsed by Robertson (2001: 698), "the European Union is multilingual", yet as the author himself argues, there is an international trend towards a single language - English. In this climate of opinion, Doczekalska (2009: 339-340) points out that there exists a *Community paradox* which does not stem from the phenomenon of multilingual law, but rather from the linguistically diverse communication in the EU institutions. Starting from one of the basic principles of the European Union – unity in diversity, Doczekalska highlights two contradictory tendencies that can be observed at the same time. The first tendency is the growth of an international *lingua* *franca*, which would lead to a decrease of linguistic diversity. The second is an increase in the use of translations which should cause greater linguistic diversity. Even though apparently these two approaches contradict each other, the author comes to see a common result, that of translation intensification. She further explains that even though the European Community sustains language diversity, not all languages can be used at the same time in a productive way, leading to the intense use of a language that becomes *a lingua franca*, which, in its turn, has to be understood and translated in different languages. Moreover, Doczekalska argues that this contradictory situation can be explained by the diverse ways of using languages within EU. Within formal and institutional situations EU members use different languages according to the Constituting Treaty of the European Union and moreover according to the accession treaties. On the other hand, due to a more effective and functional reason - the emphasis was drawn upon a common language as communication, working and interacting tool - named *lingua franca*, which produces the increase of translation and therefore the use of diversity.

Hence, beyond these legal frames stipulated by treaties, regulations and decisions, European citizens become aware of special professional needs and demands which allow them to adapt within a world of changes. Even though EU trains specialists who are taking care of both linguistic and legal matters regarding the European legislation and its translation into different Community languages, this solves only the framed picture regarding law and business procedures which the European employee faces daily, as each individual becomes aware of the importance of English as an international language.

The continuously expanding sector of business investments and the increased occupational mobility is resulting in a need of a common medium of communication. Nevertheless the role of English as "legal lingua franca" (Doczekalska, 2009:342) is expanding while more and more professionals need English to understand and even to draft contracts in English. As European companies are competing in an increasingly aggressive commercial environment "business and law genres are merging" (Northcott, 2008:27), demanding the professionals more accurate and specialised knowledge.

This matter was previously discussed by Erling and Walton in their article "*English at work in Berlin*" (2007: 32-39). The authors give an overview of a report on a survey of the importance of the English language in international companies located in Germany. They start by giving a short introduction about the change of use of the English language in German companies. The authors see the reason for the change in the progressive globalization: *"[...] In a country where transnational corporations increase in number and power, where the technologies for information exchange are developing rapidly, where a supra-state appears to be evolving, there is also growing pressure to communicate across national boundaries, to be part of a larger community of communication than the national*." In accordance with this, there is no possibility to make an international career without special skills in English.

No matter the intentions, legal English fully integrates within these demands for understanding, communicating and writing. What makes the situation of legal English more specific and problematic at the same time is the broad sphere where it is used: from court trails to drafting and translating legal documents. While regarding the basic use of legal language - lawyers and law graduates are concerned, the second facet of the problem concerns more the linguistic activity of specialists, linguists and professional translators, individuals who do not have necessarily law education. This aspect was also discussed by Robertson (2001:699), arguing that even though linguistics and law could be seen as "a combined discipline", there are to be spotted two different ways in following a specialisation road. Depending on one of the two hemispheres of this discipline one focuses, the individual would struggle to gain knowledge and specialised training. Robertson suggests that if applying this to "the linguistics of law" or "the language of the law" (*ibid*: 700), than the specialist, i.e. the linguist or the translator, starts by taking language as the first focus and considers legal phenomenon from a linguistic point of view. This could evolve by examining the linguistic nature of legal texts, how they are constructed, the use of vocabulary, the meaning of legal utterance, how these aspects change over time.

Concerned with linguistic aspects of a language, translators face real challenges when dealing with legal language. Trying to find answers for such a complex approach, within the present research thesis we sought to discuss different dimensions of English legal language that highly affect, but also improve the performance of a translator or of an interpreter.

While a lawyer or a legal practitioner is mainly concerned with the understanding of law, a linguist and a translator are concerned in how to give meaning of law in communication. In this respect, Northcott (2008: 27) emphasises individuals' different needs for language learning which depend on the purpose of communication and moreover on the learning contexts.

As English has been highly used in international trade legislation and policy making it has achieved the status of the dominant world language. Current research and practice studies have revealed the fact that texts can only be understood within the context in which they are applied, pinpointing the idea that skills and language cannot be "divorced" (notably, Northcott, 2008:27) by the context, as the disciplines and the professions are created by the communicative practices of their members for particular audience.

It is at this stage that a translator realises the importance of these two dimensions which she/he has to acquire academically before practising his/her specific profession. As advocated by Northcott (2008), we consider that the lawyer or the legal practitioner needs to improve language skills for the improvement of his legal profession. The linguist, on the other hand, grows aware that besides general English knowledge she/he needs to enrich his/her language skills with a view to legal language historical and social realities, which would be then applied while acquiring specific English train. Consequently, the linguist grows aware that both academically and professional practice of language stand as germane prerequisites for professional development and longlife learning within the field of legal translations.

2. Legal English as a specialised language

Special languages find their origin in the eighteenth century, as they are based on the division of work. Their rapid development depends on the time when specialisation in the working world found a climax; this is to regard before the background of the Industrial Revolution. The earliest special languages were only used orally, for the most part by sailors or craftsmen. With the Industrial Revolution in the eighteenth and nineteenth century, however, the development of special languages was initiated, above all technical languages and languages in the field of natural science. This means that in practice the more differentiated the working process is and the more complex technologies are, the more special languages are developed and part with the standard language.

Considering this background, legal English has become a highly differentiated variety of language, the peculiarity of which has given rise to the question of whether it may be treated as a separate dialect, register or sublanguage. Kennedy and Bolitho (1990: 12) believe that the linguistic differentiation of legal English may be great enough to justify this variety view, while others prefer to consider legal English a special register which is mainly a matter of formality. Outlying the levels of formality (frozen, consultative, and casual), Danet (1984:3) places the legal discourse toward the formal end of the scale. Frozen, written uses of legal English comprise documents: insurance policies, contracts, wills, frozen spoken genres.

2.1. Legal language and current translator's competence

The fundamental assumption is that a person with knowledge of the source and target languages has basic *translation ability*. This basic ability to translate derives from knowing more than one language, if there is a sufficient degree of functional overlap - this means that he/she is able to perform the task of translating from one language into the other, naturally subject to the constraints posed by the extent of the individual's knowledge of the respective languages, most notably the second language (Toury, 1984: 190).

What is also at stake is the translator's metalinguistic ability to analyse and compare the meaning of different linguistic structures and to switch to another mode of expression in order to express "the same thing" in other words (Toury, 1984: 189) or to paraphrase it (Hewson & Martin, 1991: 27ff).

Likewise, Newmark (1995) sees a good translator as having developed and proven mastery of reading comprehension ability in a foreign language, knowledge of the subject (in other words, a specialized language as well as encyclopaedic knowledge about the topic), sensitivity to language (source language and target language alike), ability to write in the target language clearly, concisely, resourcefully and effectively.

According to Shreve (1997), drawing on Hymes (1972), the translator's competence is communicative in nature - the translator mediates communication by converting the source language text into the target language text to be used by the target readership in another culture, showing appropriate language use and a correct construction and organization of the discourse. Microscopically, we detect *grammar competence* (also termed *formal competence*), *sociolinguistic competence* (also socio-cultural competence; context-embeddedness or knowledge of the relationship between language and its extra-linguistic context, awareness of language variations - intraspeaker variation as identity markers - geographical, temporal, social dialects; interspeaker variation with regard to level of formality/tenor, field and mode), *discourse competence* (ability to combine form and meaning to achieve unified spoken or written text in different genres), *strategic competence* (mastery of communication strategies to improve communication or to avoid or compensate for breakdowns), and intercultural competence (roughly equated to awareness of cultural specificities).

Vîlceanu (2004: 29) links these sub-competences to the task of the translator, i.e. to the deconstruction and construction of a text, and puts forward a threefold perspective: the traditional *areas of activity* (technical, literary, religious, medical translator, etc.), the *modes of translation* (oral or written) and the translator's choice or focus depending on the text type (mainly, *semantic vs. communicative translation*).

Growing aware of professional specialisation and lifelong learning requirements to meet the contemporary market demands, translators undertake considerable efforts to answer both general and specialised translation loads. Under the circumstances, special attention has been attached to the current collaborative work across Europe with a view to defining a common framework of translator training programmes. Thus, based on the EMT (European Master's in Translation) framework, a partnership project between the European Commission and the relevant academic community in Europe that aims to establish a quality label for university translation programmes at master's level that meet agreed standards in education, Vîlceanu (2011: 343-434) advocates that the translator's competence harmoniously combines multi-dimensional complex features which, according to the author, can be characterised as follows:

- the interpersonal dimension: the translator's work is not self-contained; it interrelates interactively, being shaped by internal and external factors alike. Translators initiate and maintain socio-professional relations; they network and accomplish tasks on translation events via cooperation.
- the product dimension: the end product as the translation deliverable seemed to be attached overriding importance as readily available for assessment and use. The translator is committedly-orientated to quality assurance as a career management prerequisite;
- language competence as twofold: language mastery (L1 and L2) as well as specialised knowledge acquisition in order to secure a smooth, natural and an error-free version of the original;
- the sociolinguistic dimension: translation is context embedded; therefore, the translator has to channel resources and perform accommodation work with respect to language variation, more specifically in what concerns field-related variation, dialectal variation, etc.

 text dimension: the translator should be able to recognise, internalise and produce a variety of texts in a variety of formats;
 thematic competence: the translator should acquire encyclopaedic or protocol knowledge so as to enhance functional adequacy. In this respect, literature recommends the organisation of information into thematic maps via top down or bottom up processing of information;
 technological competence: undoubtedly, the mastery of IT tools will secure the translator's professional growth-orientation and career management alongside membership to virtual communities of practices (forums, chat rooms, associations) and interconnectivity.

2.2. Legal language in terms of translation norms, methods and procedures

With a view to the process of translation, we need first and foremost to highlight the two major categories, i.e. literary and non-literary translation. While the first category is strictly connected to the translation of serious imaginative literature, the second category comprises all the other text types, which starting with the last decades of the previous century started to increase in number, constituting an overwhelming translation body with whom translators are daily faced in an attempt to meet the requirements of the clients and the quality assurance conditions imposed by this market.

A landmark in the theory and practice of translation is certainly represented by Vinay and Darlbernet's (1977/1998: 37-43) epoch-making work "Stylistique comparée du français et de l'anglais", where the two influential authors within the field of Translation Studies dicuss the idea of *conceptual unit* (*unité de pensée*), *lexicological unit* (*unité lexicologique*) and *translation unit* (*unité de traduction*), and referred to the unit of translation as a compound lexicological unit that conveys one single concept.

Vinay and Darlbernet (ibidem) divide the units of translation into three main types:

 functional units (*unité*s *fonctionnelles*) - a set of elements that display the same syntactic function, though do not always sharing the same conceptual unit, thus not suitable to be regarded as units
e.g. *Il habite / Saint-Sauveur / à deux pas / en meublé / chez ses parents.*

 semantic units (*unité*s *sémantiques*) - a conceptual unit:
e.g. *sur le champ:immediately / on the spot* (Ro. *pe loc*)

 dialectic units (*unité*s *dialectiques*): pinpointing a way of rationalising:
e.g. *en effet: actually* (Ro. *într-adevăr*)

 prosodic units (*unité*s *prosodiques*): in close connection to intonation:
e.g. *Ça alors! You don't say!* (Ro. *Nu mai spune!*)

A further classification of translation units indicates the following grouping:

 simple units (*unité*s *simples*) – there is correspondence between the number of translation. Units and the number of words/lexemes:
e.g. *Il gagne 5000 dollars. He earns $ dollars.* (Ro. *El câştigă 5000 de dolari*).

 diluted units (*unité*s *diluées*): compound lexemes that form a conceptual unit
e.g. *simple soldat : private* (Ro. *soldat*)

 fractional units (*unité*s *fractionnaires*)> where the lexeme comprises several conceptual units:
e.g. *re/couvrir – re/cover* (*Ro. a acoperi din nou*).

According to the degree of internal internal cohesion we can distinguish between:

 idioms (*idiotismes*): e.g. *l'échapper belle: to have a narrow escape* (*Ro. a scăpa ca prin urechile acului*)

 collocations (*groupements par affinité*):
e.g. *un refus catégorique* : *a flat denial* (Ro. un *refuz categoric*)

As postulated by prominent translation theorists such as Newmark (1981), no clear -cut rules can indicate a clear characterisation of translation units, for as it depends on the translator's skills and competences as well as on his/her experience and expertise. Generally speaking, when referring to translation units we can regard them as the linguistic units which the translator uses when translating.

An array of translation units classification and grouping has been proposed by scholars, ranging from individual word and group to clause and sentence and even higher levels such as *text* and *intertextual* levels (Beaugrande, 1978). However, even if most of the time a translator is mainly focused on shorter structures at clause and sentence level, special attention should be attached to context and the *function* of the whole text. (Hatim and Munday, 2004: 25).

Translation units and translation procedures are to be seen as interrelated concepts, considering the fact that we use translation proceeds to investigate of formal elements which will be interpreted semantically and pragmatically (language in use).

Starting with Vinay and Darbelnet who first proposed and described seven fundamental translation methods or procedures in 1973, well known researchers such as Newmark (1991), Delisle *et al.* (1999), Bassnett (2002) or Toury (2012) established further taxonomies and particular features of translating procedures. We shall focus on the classification proposed by Vinay and Darlbernet's (1977/1998), considering at the same time remarks and recommendations proposed by Newmark (1988), while attempting to define and classify the translation procedures as methods applied by translators when they formulate equivalence for the purpose of transferring elements of meaning from the Source Text (ST) to the Target Text (TT) (Delisle *et al.* 1999: 81-83).

Vinay and Darlbernet (1977/1998: 46) identify two basic translation modes: *direct translation traduction directe*) and *oblique translation* (*traduction oblique*), the former covering structural and conceptual parallelism between the two languages. Each mode encompasses a number of procedures, although not in equal proportions.

According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 1-41) we can categorize the translation procedures in:

- *borrowings:* the simplest method used mainly for the realization of a stylistic effect;

e.g. En. *Job: Responsible retail customers*
Ro. *Loc de muncă: responsabil clientelă retail*

- *calque*: each of the elements in a borrowed expression are translated literally;

e.g. En. *European Commission; NATO (The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation)*
Ro. *Comisia Europeană; NATO*

- *shift*: the replacement of one word class with another word class;

e.g. En. *The documents must be compliant with the new requirements*
Ro. *Documentele trebuie să fie în conformitate cu noile cerințe*

- *modulation*: a variation of the message due to a change in the point of view;

e.g. En. *The documents must be in compliance with the new requirements*;
Ro. *Documentele trebuie să respecte noile cerințe*

- *literal translation*: the word for word translation;

e.g. En. *The law applies without exception*
Ro. *Legea se aplica fara excepție*

- *equivalence*: applied especially in translating idioms, clichés and proverbs;

e.g. En. *high school, Law School*
Ro. *liceu, Facultatea de Drept*

- *adaptation*: when the situation referred to by the original message is unknown in the target culture and therefore the translator must create an equivalent situation.

e.g. En. *mile*
Ro. *kilometru, leghe*

The classification provided above and most of the terminology used by Vinay and Darbelnet were further mentioned, adapted and reinforced by Newmark (1981), Chestermann (1997) and Bassnett (2002) in specialised scientific research studies within the translation studies field. The prevailing analysis method that defines each of the previously mentioned procedures reveals that the linguistic units of the source language are compared to those of the target language in order to obtain general operative solutions for the translator.

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The Dynamics of Teaching–Learning Foreign Languages through the Lens of ‘directive and co-creative perspectives’

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ABSTRACT

The article foregrounds ideas like ‘teaching is not a destination but a process’, that is to say, teachers are compelled to strive for improvements in their performance throughout their career. By the same token, HETs are determined to incessantly search for new ways of enhancing their students’ academic results. In the light of such techniques, teaching and learning seem inextricably intertwined.

KEYWORDS: *a better communicator, academic achievement, foreign languages learning, differentiating versus integrating, crutch words*

1. Introduction

It strikes me that being bilingual doesn’t merely stand for finding language learning easier than those who are monolingual; it also enhances life skills and broadens one’s horizons. Likewise, bilingualism helps students gain a greater outlook on social life, education, and cultural environment.

Furthermore, it is often alleged that an accurate description of successful language learners reinforces how they seem to toggle effortlessly between the two languages, while no strained thought has ever surfaced.

Along the same lines, I would like to accentuate that there have been myriad studies and research into the topic of bilingual people endeavouring to learn a third language. It’s worth noticing that the outcomes are rather similar: they stop being monolingual, embrace bilingualism, and afterwards tackle the prospect of learning a third language. In a nutshell, the linguistic journey is gathering pace with each new challenge.

To my mind, students might be amazed to discover how accessible the linguistic process becomes. Since *great oaks from little acorns grow*, students will excel at the assignment they envisage fulfilling if they pick up effective language learning habits.

In view of the aforementioned insights into language learning habits, I will take into consideration which of the two teaching techniques, *directive perspective* and *co-creative perspective* undeniably gives prominence to students’ academic achievement.

2. Student Competencies

Should we ask ourselves how efficient students' speaking and writing skills are nowadays? As an illustration of such concern, I will make a reference to *'Why Can't College Students Write Anymore?'*, published in *Psychology Today, 2014*: 'Is it just me, or are student competencies like basic writing skills in serious peril today?... Teachers have been reporting anecdotally that even compared to five years ago, many are seeing declines in vocabulary, grammar, writing, and analysis.'[1]

Seemingly, they are no longer willing to explore all avenues in the quest for a brushed-up phrasing. What is more, students are unaware that 'it's all too easy to fall into the trap of mindlessly regurgitated language' and that 'selecting unique adjectives demonstrates more original thinking.' Along the same lines, when they gravitate toward any one of the *crutch words* to describe the world around them, 'it's time to visit the thesaurus for a few peppery alternatives.'[2]

Indeed, students find *crutch words* quite reliable, despite being terms that chain speakers to unremarkable language. Needless to say, if they were interested in enlivening their speech, they would have to single out creative words instead.

By the same token, I would like to underline how often experts claim that in order to convey confidence, assurance, and expertise, speakers should avoid both *crutch words and mumbles* entirely, if they want to come across as professional and prepared.

Equally important, if students choose to be better communicators, they must listen, observe, organize, and connect. Before they begin to craft their message, they have to consider who the message is intended for. Another key point resides in students' ability to determine their choice of words, level of information, organization pattern alongside motivational statement.[3]

3. Teaching Approaches

Teachers should consider how they can incorporate formative instructional practices:

a) make the learning intentions clear to students. Be sure students understand what you want them to know and be able to do.

b) align assessments with the intended learning and allow students to partner with you on collecting the data.

c) ensure that the feedback you give around the learning is effective. Teach students how to use and give feedback to you and their peers. This strengthens classrooms.

d) allow for opportunities for strong student engagement and ownership of learning. Teach students how to self-assess and set goals. When the vision is clear for students, they can and will join you on the teaching and learning journey.

4. Value-Added Scores

Value-added is a phrase that has become prominent in recent years. The term is associated with the effort to objectively measure teacher effectiveness. A classroom-level value-added score is a quantitative assessment of how much a teacher contributes to student learning in one academic year. It measures the change in the standardized test scores of students in a given class, or in multiple classes, taught by a given teacher. The scores are adjusted for differences in student characteristics and student scores on previous tests.

Value-added scores are not without controversy. Standardized test scores do not always reliably measure student achievement, and a single measure cannot fully capture everything teachers contribute to student learning.

Because the conventional assumptions of a culture are often reflected in that culture's language, an examination of the dictionary is a good place to start. To teach is to instruct, train, school, discipline, drill, or educate.

a) *teach:* to impart knowledge or skill;
b) *instruct:* to provide with knowledge, especially in a methodical way;
c) *train:* to coach in or accustom to a mode of behaviour or performance;
d) *school:* to discipline or control;
e) *discipline:* to train by instruction and practice, especially to teach self-control;
f) *drill*: to instruct thoroughly by repetition in a skill or procedure;
g) *educate:* to develop the innate capacities of, especially by schooling or instruction.

These definitions suggest that a teacher directs and controls the classroom. Teaching is a process in which a more expert person imparts knowledge or skill to a less expert person. The student is in a lower position in a knowledge hierarchy. The student is expected to perform to an existing standard or acquire an accustomed mode of behaviour or performance. The provision of knowledge is methodical. The student is subjected to discipline and control. The process may be repetitive and should lead to the development of self-control on the part of the student. According to scientific research, this view is called *'the directive perspective.'*

5. Mastery in the Classroom

Excellence is a dynamic process: 'Sometimes look at a novice teacher and compare his expression with that of a master teacher whose work you know is excellent, and you'll see the difference. The master teacher isn't ever following a single line of instruction. He has a plan, but it soon becomes a rough guide as he begins to respond to students' needs and to improvise. He is fully present, making decisions as he goes. The master teacher is absorbed and attentive to what he is doing even though he does not deliberately contrive this. His actions and the actions of his students are in a kind of harmony. The master teacher's ongoing assessment of his students determines his thoughts and actions, which simultaneously change the nature of what and how students are learning.' (Quinn *et al*., 2014: 19)

As this process unfolds, the teacher recognizes needs, facilitates discussion, builds trust, and inspires spontaneous contributions. The natural hesitancies within students and the natural disparities among students begin to diminish. The conversation becomes more authentic, more engaging, and more reflective. Listening becomes mutual, and students expect one another to contribute.

The classroom becomes a place where students engage in activities that they find relevant and challenging. The teacher improvises and encourages creativity. As the teacher relaxes overt control, the students take ownership of their learning, and leadership shifts seamlessly from one participant to another. Through discussion, they explore the big picture and continually question assumptions. Students begin to see from multiple perspectives. In this heightened, common state, students arrive at creative, joint conclusions. Participating in the process not only builds knowledge but also increases self-efficacy. Students see more potential in themselves and in their world, and they begin to more fully believe in their own capacity to learn and create.

6. Interconnected Perspectives. Two Views of Teaching

Each of the subsequent perspectives provides a set of assumptions or lenses for making sense of teaching. Looking through the lens of the directive perspective, learning is a technical process managed by a teacher. It tends to be about content and control. The teacher is in charge-a person in a position of hierarchical authority, who sets high standards while maintaining order. Planning, assessment, and achievement are emphasized. The *directive perspective* provides the foundation for good teaching. A new teacher often uses the directive perspective to build his or her confidence and capabilities to create an orderly classroom. The directive perspective can be broadened over time to grow into the *co-creative perspective.*

DIRECTIVE PERSPECTIVE	**CO-CREATIVE PERSPECTIVE**
Conveying high standards	*Understanding needs and interests*
Encouraging achievement	*Encouraging collaboration*
Focusing on individuals	*Focusing on the collective*
Assessing performance	*Facilitating discussion*
Providing challenge	*Building trust*
Emphasizing urgency	*Taking time to listen*
Being in control	*Shifting leadership*
Planning	*Improvising*
Knowing the details	*Seeing the big picture*
Expecting compliance	*Expecting creativity*
Covering required content	*Questioning assumptions*
Expecting the right answer	*Examining multiple perspectives*

To bring about the co-creative process, the teacher becomes a facilitator of learning. In this role, the teacher pays attention to relationships and works to create a culture of collaboration, a context that is more likely to give rise to full engagement and accelerated learning.

6.1. Connecting the Two Views

The kind of improvisation a master teacher employs cannot occur without sufficient underlying structure. Teachers still must teach content. They still strive for high achievement. They continue to focus attention on individuals and assess performance.

Doubtless, 'what changes in the co-creative perspective is the teacher's stance relative to students. The teacher is willing to surrender control until it is again necessary to take control. In the *directive perspective*, the focus is on the teacher and the teaching. In the *co-creative perspective*, the attention is on the learning of the student rather than the knowledge of the teacher. The co-creative perspective focuses on who the student is becoming and how the teacher can serve as a mediator between where things are and where things could be.' (*id.*: 22-3)

6.2. Practices Associated with the Directive and Co-Creative Perspectives

CO-CREATIVE PERSPECTIVE	
Relationships: *Cultivating a supportive community (belonging)* • *understanding needs and interests* • *encouraging collaboration* • *focusing on the collective* • *facilitating discussion* • *building trust* • *taking time to listen*	***Continuous improvement:*** *Adapting and embracing change (growth)* • *shifting leadership* • *improvising* • *seeing the big picture* • *expecting creativity* • *questioning assumptions* • *examining multiple perspectives*
DIRECTIVE PERSPECTIVE	
Stable environment: *Creating structures and processes (security)* • *being in control* • *planning* • *knowing the details* • *expecting compliance* • *covering required content* • *expecting the right answer*	***High expectations:*** *Maximizing every student's achievement (accomplishment)* • *conveying high standards* • *encouraging achievement* • *focusing on individuals* • *assessing performance* • *providing challenge* • *emphasizing urgency*

7. Conclusion

In essence, scrutinizing the classroom dynamics underpins the advantages of a series of teaching methods. First thing to remember relates to the transcendence of traditional teaching methods, also known as 'jug and mug' (Scrivener, 2005: 21), so that students may become more assertive and primarily equipped 'to move language from up-there knowledge to actively usable language.' (*id.*: 147)

Additionally, the efforts of these two teaching perspectives' advocates are aimed at fathoming out how their students can be encouraged to formulate their views, giving substance to the topics under discussion.

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Advantages, Barriers and Challenges in Teaching English to Adult Students

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ABSTRACT

Adult students refer to university students or people already in employment. Teaching English to adult students can be advantageous, but very challenging as well. Adults have many duties; they are people already in employment. Because of these, adults may meet barriers and challenges in learning English. But adult learners possess maturity; they come to English class with a set of tools and information that are very useful for teachers.
The paper shows the advantages that come with teaching adult students. But, at the same time, we examine the barriers and challenges facing adult English language learners.

KEYWORDS: *adult students, advantages, challenges, barriers, to overcome, maturity*

Introduction

Teaching English to adult students is not the same as teaching English to children. The learning process is different and the teaching process is also different. Adult students are unique, always fresh, and they learn in distinct ways. For example, adult students can be divided into three categories (according to their age): young adult, middle-aged adult and older adult. These students attend English classes for various reasons: to improve their abilities in the workplace, launch a new career, prepare for admission to university or they are already students and they need to follow the English language classes for their domain.

Adults have strong opinions about the way they want to learn, and, probably, they want to take classes depending on their busy careers or family issues, with little spare time to prepare homework.

The secret in education lies in respecting the students.
(Ralph Waldo Emerson)

The first characteristic of adult student the teacher should learn is that they are not children: *Never underestimate them*! Adult education is an integral part of right to *education* and *lifelong learning*.

> Such learning has the following four definitive characteristics: 1. it is intentional – learners are aware that they are learning. 2. It has specific goals, and it is not aimed at vague generalizations such as "developing the mind". 3. These goals are the reason why the learning is undertaken (it is not motivated simply by factors like boredom). 4. The learner intends to retain and use what has been learnt for a considerable period of time.
>
> (Knapper & Cropley, 2000: 12)

Advantages in Teaching English to Adult Student

Teaching English language to adults differs from teaching English to children in several ways. Most adult education is *voluntary*; therefore, the learners are generally *self-motivated*. Unlike children, adult learners are seen as more *self-directed*, rather than relying on others to help.

> University and adult language learners showed significantly higher scores on the motivated learning behavior scale; that is, they were willing to invest more effort in language learning, they persisted longer, and language learning itself was more important in their lives than in that of the secondary school students.
>
> (Kormos & Csizer, 2008: 341)

Adults are *mature*; therefore, they have rich knowledge and they have gained life experiences which provide them a foundation of learning. According to Knowles (1984) "their orientation to learn is problem centered rather than subject centered. Their motivation to learn is internal." Many adult students need to develop English language skills that will allow them to understand and be understood in both oral and written English. The learners being generally self-motivated, they experience great joy in learning English and find that their lives are enriched as they learn to understand a new language and culture.

Adult English learners are *autonomous learners*.

> The idea of learner autonomy is not new, but it has been widely referred to in the field of ELT only over the last decade. Previously, terms referring more directly to practical interventions or situations of learning were more favoured within ELT: 'individualization', then 'learner independence' for example. One sign of the shift to "learner autonomy" as a preferred term has been the recent name change of the I A T E F L 'Learner Independence' Special Interest Group (S I G) to 'Learner Autonomy' S I G.
>
> (Smith, 2008: 395)

When we teach English to adults, we co-operate with individuals who have a set of study skills, they possess writing, summarizing, and note-taking skills. Each leaner has individual needs and there are also more general factors to consider, like age. Effective teachers are sensitive to students' affective needs. Positive affective support for learning serves to increase achievements. For example, ask them to produce a summary of a video seen in class. Encourage them to prepare charts or graphs or give them challenging exercises. They may even make a Power Point presentation.

Another advantage in teaching English to adults is their own *volition*. Most adults attend the English lectures voluntarily. Their needs may vary: some need to develop English to advance in their careers; others need to improve their English communication skills to do business. As an English teacher you should inspire them to learn by motivating them or simply considering their goals.

The *wealth of knowledge* represents a valuable advantage in teaching English to adults. Most adult students can bring to class great amount of knowledge and experience obtained by them in the professional area. It may happen to be things you know nothing about. This knowledge may be highly specialized or industry-related.

You can ask your adult students to talk about what they know best. An advanced student can give a presentation on the fuels of the future or on future developments in the global car market. While a beginner who is really into cars can describe different types of cars showing in some images. That is why it is important for you to become familiar with you students' interests. The wealth of knowledge means power. A well-educated population is now more possible than ever with the wealth of knowledge and information that is available. The sharing and exchange of knowledge is easier now than it has ever been before in human history.

Barriers and Challenges in Teaching English to Adult Students

There are some complex factors in teaching English such as: cultural and environmental impediments. *Environmental barriers*, such as time limitations, and *financial barriers*, such as limited budgets, restrict the process of language acquisition in a way. As you know, adults have many responsibilities. When they decide to learn a new language, first of all they should think about their life as a whole – their family, friends, leisure pursuits, personal development goals, and involvement in their community.

We also meet some *biological barriers* in teaching English language to adults: psycho motor skills, cognitive functioning or age and health.

Social barriers: childcare issue, job demands, e.g. shift work patterns that can interfere with ability to attend classes, lack of time.

Cultural barriers, for example religion (women who need or want women-only classes) may appear during English language lectures.

Language barriers can cause many negative effects on an adult but they can be successfully overcome. The teacher can help adult language learner by using techniques such as highlighting and discussing academic vocabulary before introducing the lesson or by providing the same material at an easier reading level, and using clear, simple language when describing new concepts. Cassity and Harris (2000), Copeland (2007), and Eberly *et al*. (2007), all argued that by not understanding and appreciating a student's culture, teachers limit their success.

Unlike young learners, adult learners have many duties. Because of the numerous responsibilities adults face, there exist barriers and challenges to adult learning that must be overcome in order to unleash the leader in you. Most researchers divide barriers in two parts: external or situational barriers, and internal or dispositional barriers. External ones are defined as "influences more or less external to the individual or at least beyond the individual's control" (Merriam & Caffarella 1999: 56-57). Internal barriers are associated with those who "reflect personal attitudes, such as thinking one is too old to learn" (Merriam & Caffarella 1999: 57).

Some examples of *situational barriers* to adult learning are lack of time due to career or family. Situational barriers to adult students can be challenging because they are dependent on so many other factors: the adult learner must have cooperation of his boss, spouse, and childcare providers.

Dispositional barriers include low motivation; low self-esteem, embarrassment, and fear of failure. There are some teaching methods to help your adult students acquire English faster. Here are some ideas on how to overcome the most common challenges English student learner teachers face with adult students. Dispositional barriers can be overcome by using encouragement. Encouragement can help cultivate a positive attitude toward the task (for example, pronunciation lessons). The language teacher could use recordings of the adult's own speech.

Unfortunately, the *biological bar*riers – the age and health – do not represent valuable assets for mastering a new language. But, despite all these aspects, the challenge of language learning helps to keep our brains healthy. For this reason, the language teacher should fire up the adult students with interactive activities (dialogues and role-plays), by simulating natural conversations and keeping the class entertained. Another way to keep the adults engaged is by using authentic videos (TV shows, music videos, news, etc).

Situational barriers (family commitments, work deadlines, paying bills) may be overcome by making sure that as an adult language teacher you are punctual and well-prepared. Keep your lessons moving at a good pace!

> A language is a part of a culture and the culture is a part of language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture.
>
> (Jiang, 1994: 302)

In general terms, *culture* represents a collection of social beliefs, values, religious, credence and ideologies accepted by most members in a social community. The language teachers must know the student's cultural backgrounds. By knowing this aspect, teachers know how to plan for groupings and activities.

> Despite these barriers, research has shown that adult learners of any age can learn and succeed in their pursuits if they are afforded the opportunity, assistance and support they need.
>
> (Falasca, 2011: 587)

Conclusion

The paper deals with some of the most important advantages and challenges regarding the teaching English language to adult students. In a way, teaching adults is different from teaching children. They are self-motivated, possess maturity; have great knowledge and experience. Thus, English language educators can help adult students by being sensitive to their needs, and enhancing their achievements.

But, at the same time, we try to answer to a very complex question: as teachers, how should we treat our adult students? The easiest way is to adapt our teaching methods to help our adult students acquire English faster.

The article also looks at some of the most common barriers and challenges ESL teachers face with adult students and offers some ideas on how to overcome them in the classroom.

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Legal English Lexical Features

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ABSTRACT

The research thesis aims at a multi-layered investigation of lexical features and culture-bound issues in translating English legal documents. At the same time we sought to carry out an applied study of the above-mentioned aspects base on a specialised corpus analysis. In this respect we have undertaken a thorough study of particular lexical features of the English legal lexicon and of typical socio-cultural concepts.

KEYWORDS: *legal English, lexicology, lexicon*

1. The lexicon of the English language

We shall embark on our lexical investigation of legal language by presenting first general aspects and notions regarding the definition and the structure of the English lexicon. Thus, while grammar is the domain of systems, lexis is the domain of vast lists of formal items about which rather little generalisation can be made (Strang 1986; Lipka 2002: 12). Yet, from a historical point of view, *the vocabulary of a language is an accumulation of words* (Lipka, 2002: 12), and, as a consequence, not only a list of items, which can be further subjected to generalisation. It can be said therefore that the lexicon is not a simple inventory of isolated terms as it definitely has a structure.

With regard to the organization of the lexicon, seminal research studies indicated numerous types of relations and connections that occur between its elements.
Even though the term lexicon has previously been considered somehow synonyms with the term dictionary, such usage of terms is accepted only if regarding them as technical terms within the literary style.

The *term* lexicon, however, may be further referred to in two senses, i.e. as a metalinguistic level or a sub branch in linguistics; in the sense of vocabulary, if seen from a systematic and synchronic point of view.

Lexicology, the discipline concerned with lexis or the lexicon, is considered the level or the branch in-between phonology and syntax. All these three levels – phonology, lexicology and syntax – are subsystems of the entire language system. They can be described both synchronically – at a particular point in time and diachronically – throughout their historical evolution. Lexicology has both a morphological and a syntactical dimension and both may be regarded from a diachronic and a synchronic point of view.

Lexicon can be also regarded from a systematic and a synchronic point of view. In this respect, the study of the English lexicon is mainly concerned with the "etymological heterogeneity" (Ibid: 15) of the English language vocabulary, the problem of the mixing languages and its causes and stratification.
Considering the above mentioned aspects further characteristics are to be pointed out. Thus, Lipka (*Ibid*: 17) discusses further typical features of the English lexicon in terms of historical strata and synchronic structure.

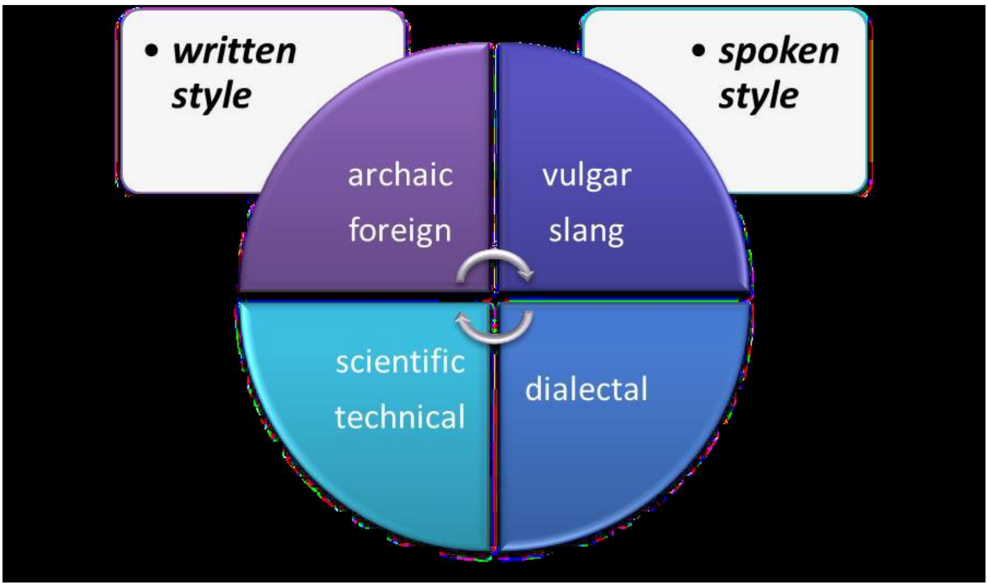
2. Synchronic approach of the English lexicon

If approaching the English lexicon from a synchronic perspective we would no more speak about etymological strata but rather about *areas* or *zones* (Ibidem). Concerning these synchronically displayed zones of the English lexicon, a general rule would state further that these areas tend to overlap, as no clear-cut distinction is to be established.

Typical characteristics of this approach emphasize social and cultural features which occur while dealing within different areas of the lexicon. It can be said therefore that there exists an interrelated relationship among various regional, social and situational parameters that results in the choice of a specific lexicon item.

Based on Lipka's description of typical lexicon areas, a graphical representation of these aspects is being presented. It is worth mentioning that this graphical representation is a personal interpretation of the theoretical materials.

Figure 1 - Strata of the English lexicon



The basis of our reinterpreted illustration is based on the assumption that the English vocabulary contains a large central area which is common to all styles, registers and socio-cultural classes. Thus, the term **core** represents the common elements of the English lexicon. This core contains words like: *house, family, chair, car, sister, good, nice, sad,* and can be regarded to what is usually called *Common English* (Ibid: 18). On the left and the right side of this common area there are situated the two main styles of the language, i.e. written and spoken style. Furthermore layers and sub layers of these styles can be observed on each side of the core. The left side, i.e. the written style, contains layers of archaic, foreign, scientific and technical elements. On the right side, there are represented layers of the spoken or the colloquial style, i.e. vulgar, dialectal and slang elements. Further arguments concerning this representation, sustain that no clear distinctions and boundaries can be established between the layers of the common core. Moreover it has been proved that if analysing the structure of the layers starting with the archaisms' area towards other layers we could reach the dialectal layer where a large number of archaisms are to be encountered as well.

3. Legal language lexical productivity – internal structure

Starting from a general statement provided by Aronoff we can define morphology as that sector of linguistics which refers to *the mental system involved in word-formation or the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure and how they are formed* (Aronoff, 2005: 9). Moreover morphology can be divided into main branches, *inflectional morphology* (Lipka, 2002: 21), which studies various forms of the lexeme and *word formation*, which investigates the formation of new lexemes from a given base.

The present section will focus mainly on the second branch of morphology, i.e. word-formation. Aiming at investigating aspects of the English lexicon, the present thesis proposes the study of internal structures of lexical items by means of morphology. Thus, under the following sections morphology will be regarded as the science of language that investigates the pattern on which a language forms new lexical units- words.

Based on both theoretical study and practical observations, in what follows we shall present typical aspects of legal language productivity in terms of word formation.

3.1. Legal language specific compounding occurrences

Noun Compounds

Proper Noun Compounds

Special attention should be paid to certain compounds which appear in legal English in capital letter. If regarding these compounds from the perspective of General English we could state that they are normal common nouns compounds. Yet, taking into consideration the formal style and strict register of legal language these forms become proper noun compounds denoting technical documents and data, for example: *Commencement Date, EU Regulations, Good Friday, Interim Certificates, Substantial Completion, Taking-over Certificate.*

Common Noun Compounds
Regarding compounds, our analysis indicated that this process is not quite productive, especially regarding compounds from adjectives, verbs and even adverbs.

Examples provided by the analysis mention compounds such as:

- **Noun+ Noun**: *calendar day, parent company, subject- matter, trade union.*
- **Verb + Noun**: *working days, joint venture, figured dimensions, workshop.*
- **Adverb +Noun**: *additional facilities, arbitral award, overtime.*
- **Phrase Compounds**: *sub-surface conditions, semi-skilled labour.*

Compound Verbs

- **Particle +Verb:** *undertake*, *withdraw.*

However, our investigation on the corpus proved has indicated that derivation is more productive. Thus, derivatives were more frequently encountered than compounds. Though some distinctions have to be made, namely that derivation by prefixes was encountered less productive than derivation by suffixes.

3.2. Typical prefixes in legal language

Prefixes added to nouns and verbs

- ***fore-***: *foreseen, foresaid, foremen, foregoing;*
- ***re-:*** *removal, replace, repay, re-execution, re-export;*
- ***mis- :*** *misconduct, misuse.*

Prefixes added to nouns and adjectives

- ***im-/in-:*** *incompetence, insolvency, improperly, impracticable;*
- ***ex-:*** *exchange.*

Prefixes added to nouns, verbs and adjectives

- ***counter- :*** *counterparty;*
- ***dis-:*** *disruption, dismissed, disregarding, dissatisfied, disorder;*
- ***co-:*** *co-insured, co-operation, co-ordination, collateral;*
- ***sub-:*** *subcontractor, sub-clause, submission, sub-surface.*

3.3. Typical suffixes in legal language

Suffixes proved to be the most frequently encountered elements of word formation within the analysed texts. Moreover the suffix ***-tion***, typical for the written style and scientific register was abundantly encountered. Further examples of the analysis are:

Suffixes forming nouns

- ***- ism:*** *terrorism;*
- ***- ship:*** *ownership, workmanship, partnership;*
- ***-al:*** *approval, proposal, removal, renewal;*
- ***-er:*** *employer, supplier, receiver, examiner, insurer, broker, underwriter;*
- ***-ment:*** *arrangement, government, employment, reinstatement, infringement.*
- ***-cy****:, insolvency, accuracy, adequacy, bankruptcy, emergency***;**
- ***-ness:*** *correctness, witness*;
- ***-ist:*** *specialist***;**
- ***-tion:*** *obligation, clarification, legislation, jurisdiction, regulation, rectification;*
- ***-ative:*** *representative;*
- ***-ee:*** *guarantee, employee, trustee, assignee;*
- ***-ure:*** *failure, manufacture, pressure, procedure***.**

Suffixes forming verbs

- ***-ify:*** *identify, rectify, indemnify, notify, specify, verify, certify, disqualify***;**
- ***-en:*** *foreseen, taken, given, written*

Suffixes forming adjectives

- ***-al:*** *- environmental*
- ***-ly:*** *recently, generally, validly, monthly, fully, purposely, electronically;*
- ***-ous:*** *hazardous, malicious*
- ***-able:*** *liable, unforeseeable, enforceable, applicable, desirable, predictable;*
- ***-atory:*** *explanatory.*

3.4. Other word-formation products in legal English

Further processes of word formation seem to be rarely used in legal langue. Among other products of word formation which were encountered in the coups documents, though not so productive, were examples backformation and acronyms.

Backformation

According to Bauer (1983: 230) the majority of back-formation in English is verbs. The rule which applies in the process of back-formation follows the reversed pattern of word-formation. Thus, if explaining this rule in by means of a formula where **A** and **B** are elements of different word classes and **C** is a particular suffix, we can obtain:

Formation: **A + C = B** □ **train** (vb.) + **er = trainer** (noun)

Back-formation: **B – C = A** □ **trainer** (noun) **– er = train** (vb.)

□ *employee < employer, process <procession*

Acronyms

An acronym is a word which is devised from the written form of a lexical construction. A construction, by definition, consists of more than one morpheme; a written construction consists, usually, of more than one written word; an acronym is formed from the first letter or letters of each major word. Moreover acronyms must not be pronounced as a series of letters, but as a word in itself.

Acronyms may be formed either from each major word in the construction or each from major morpheme. E.g. *VAT* (Value Added Tax), *USA* (United States of America), *FBI* (Federal Bureau of Investigation), *AIDS* (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome), *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), *BBC* (British Broadcasting Corporation), *FAQ* (frequently asked questions), *Interpol* (International Criminal Police Organization), *Gestapo* (Geheime Staatspolizei -secret state police), *Radar* (radio detection and ranging).

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On Crises: From Economic to Linguistic

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ABSTRACT

The subject of crises has long been debated among scholars and has invited to numberless discussions with the purpose of finding solutions and curing the economic environment. Students who attend the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration at the University of Craiova have also shown interest in this particular subject and have participated in national discussions on this theme. They have recently been open to international participations in students' conferences and symposia and, thus, the need for further business English study related to crises has increased. This study analysed students' comprehension of a genuine text about economic crises taken from a Bachelor's Thesis defended in July 2015 at the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Craiova, specialization Economics and Business Administration taught in English. Results indicated that first-year students may sometimes be tempted to guess the meaning of business phrases and, thus, use them incorrectly. However, students are highly motivated to actively participate in a course when genuine material is used as it stimulates interest and arouses curiosity, leading to a clear way for the Business English teacher to use suitable approaches meant to develop students' business vocabulary.

KEYWORDS: *crises, business phrases, limitations, genuine materials, comprehension*

Introduction

It is widely accepted that using genuine materials in class is both interesting and motivating for students who are interested in studying a foreign language for specific purposes. As English has already become the international language used in business, the students who attend the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration at the University of Craiova show a more and more vivid desire to read genuine materials about economics or the world of business in English. Experience has proved that the closer the students feel towards the real business environment, the more eager they are to study business English in order to be able to better understand and more efficiently communicate with others in English.

Materials and Method

Approaching the theme of economic crises is definitely a challenge for first-year economics students whose specialization is Finance, as it is obviously a subject they will have to take into consideration as future economists. A 2-hour course was delivered on reading and speaking about economic crises in English and the material used was a part of the Bachelor's Thesis entitled *The Recent Economic Crisis - Analysis, Alternatives and Perspectives. A Case Study*, pages 1-5, defended by Adriana Stancu (Lazarescu) in July 2015 and coordinated by Associate professor Anca Tanasie, PhD. The main purpose of the course was to expose students to a genuine ESP text on a quite popular business theme nowadays and to make them understand the meaning of the text and then be able to talk about it. The anticipated problems were that students were not at all familiarised with the history of economic crises and with the economics principles that were dealt with in the text. The solution chosen by the teacher was to allocate enough time to the reading-comprehension part and design the course in such a way as to encourage students to receive explanations of the unknown phrases and economics concepts in English. The text used in class was the following:

> "If we tackle studying the history of crises, it is facile to see that we can no longer say current crisis, as, since the 20th century, the global economy, or at least an important segment of global economy, has been faced with crisis on a regular basis. So, what is the current crisis? Is it a mere perpetuation of the financial crisis started in 2007 or is it a different one started sometime after 2011? The main reason for the choice of this theme was a vivid interest in researching the characteristics of the current financial crisis which so drastically affected the global economic environment. Indicators such as inflation, public debt, GDP per capita and budget deficit had a huge influence upon economic growth. Nevertheless, they also affected people's lives in such a way as it makes it mandatory today for researchers to analyse, diagnose and try to deeply understand this crisis in order to avoid recurrent mistakes. During the past eight years' global economy has experienced the severe effects of the current crisis and researchers have struggled to analyse, detect and find viable solutions in order to overcome this disaster.
>
> The technical literature analysed crises either under the auspices of global indicators, taking into consideration global economy as such, or based on each and every national economy, by the way of evaluating the nuclei of its emergence with the purpose of discovering and applying the suitable antidote. More often than not, this so valuable antidote has not been identified and cure and success have not been found, as crisis finds an idiosyncratic analogy with influenza: after it ends, there are signs of economic recovery which tempt the gigantic economic players to instantly forget about their influence in starting the crisis and re-engage in venture business, jeopardizing again the smooth functioning of the economy.
>
> Ana Bal (2009)[10] considered that financial globalization made it easy for crises to spread from one economy to another thanks to the import of mechanisms and financial

[10] Bal, Ana, *Opinii privind cauzele crizei financiare actuale, The Romanian Economic Journal*, Year XII, No.31, 2009, p.15

products and opening national markets for foreign investors. Rogoff K. and Reinhart C. (2008)[11] stated that "new unregulated, or lightly regulated, financial entities have come to play a much larger role in the financial system, undoubtedly enhancing stability against some kinds of shocks, but possibly increasing vulnerabilities against others". C.M Dragan (2010)[12] stated that we live hard times when the recent crisis and the inability of the leaders invite towards random decisions - people in charge can influence the future through their individual choice of action.

Maybe the study of crises would be more successful if it was done according to the different domains it affected, such as trade, banks (credits), automobile industry, insurance, etc. Each of these domains has its own very important role in triggering the financial crisis whose effects can be specifically seen and the solutions can be particularized. Thus, it is generally stated that the debut of crisis in 2007 can be attributed to liquidity crisis and countries hurried to throw capital onto the market in order to try to save and rebuild the economy. Nevertheless, in 2008 the crisis aggravated, Stock Exchanges collapsed, there were bankruptcies, company closures, etc.

What really happened has not been ascertained yet. It could have been that the virtual business transactions registered huge values which did not have support in the real economy. Business people had taken for granted that things would always work well and that nothing bad could possibly affect them. However, the time came to pay back part of the virtual amounts which had matured in the meantime. The real economy did not have the means to pay this amount by the payment due date, moment when the virtual economy collapsed and went down to the level of the real economy. The entire surplus, the total difference between the virtual economy and the real one was formed around the lack of liquidities and the lack of economic value. The result led to population’s distrust in these uncovered transactions, financial institutions got into difficulty, people withdrew their savings from the banks and did not require any credits. Could this be an explanation of the crisis started in 2007?

It is utterly important to provide an accurate answer to this question in order to prevent the perpetuation of these unfavourable effects. Although much has been done regarding the study of the present crisis, more studies need to be conducted in order to be able to ascertain viable solutions to this crisis. If we were to consider an example, the petrol crisis in 1973, or even better, the crisis erupted in 1973 and repeated in 1978-1979 was diagnosed as a direct consequence of the petrol price. If this diagnosis had been accurate, the solution to overcome it would have been fixing a price for the petrol which could have had the effect of the resumption of trading at its initial quotas before the crisis. This did not happen, which means that there were other unknown causes, or, if they were somehow acknowledged, they must have been superficially investigated. The result is that even today the global economy feels the effects of the petrol policies brought about in 1973.

There have always been crises in the history of mankind which have brought about the collapse of empires and re-establishment of boundaries. Throughout history, not all crises have been caused by economics, but mostly by politics. A proper example could be the Imperial Crisis in the third century (235-284) precipitated by the murder

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[11] Rogoff K., Reinhart C., *Is the 2007 US sub-prime financial crisis so different? An international historical comparison*, NBER, Working Paper nr. 13761, January 2008, p. 12.

[12] Drăgan, C.M., *Criza. România la răspântie*, Bucureşti: Editura Universitară, 2010, p. 21.

of the emperor Marcus Aurelius Severus Alexander Augustus, which unfolded for a period of 50 years.[13]

The bankruptcy of a bank (Peruzzi bank in Florence) caused the crisis in 1343, and the Tulip crisis in 1637 (Tulip mania) made the price of tulip bulbs plummet after huge increases, decrease which led to The Netherlands' trade severe deregulation.

The crisis in 1796-1797 started as an effect of credit market plunge[14], which triggered commercial downturn both for the United Kingdom and the United States of America. Real estate speculation provoked the crisis in the US in 1796 and problems went even deeper when the Bank of England cut payments on 25 February 1797, according to the Bank Restriction Act (1797).

The United States of America were faced with several crises in the 19th century and they affected not only the American economy, but also part of the international business environment. The crisis in 1819[15] was considered the first huge financial crisis in the US. It led to banks collapse, unemployment, agricultural and industrial crisis. It represented the end of economic expansion following the war in 1812. In 1837 another financial crisis hit the US, when banks only accepted payments in gold and silver coins. This crisis took 5 years. The crisis in 1847 started as a collapse of British financial markets. It was caused by excessive monetary inflation. It lasted until 1855. The crisis in 1857 was a financial crisis in the US causes by the declining international economy and the over-expansion of national economy. The Black Friday, 24 September 1869, also known as the Fisk/ Gould scandal, was caused by gold speculates on the New York market.

In 1873, Germany decided to abandon the silver standard and this, among other reasons, led to a severe international economic crisis which affected both Europe and the US. It lasted until 1879, and, in some European countries, even longer.

The crisis in 1882 was a stock crisis in France and it was the most severe crisis in French economy. It caused the bankruptcy of l'Union Générale. The Paris Stock Exchange was saved from closure by a loan from Banque de France, which allocated enough resources to sustain it. During the Recession between 1882 and 1885, gold reserves in Europe ended and banks, with the tacit approval of the US, stopped investments in the rest of the US and demanded that unpaid credits should be paid. There were many banks and more than ten thousand small businesses which did not manage to survive.

The end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century were also dominated by major crisis in the US. The crisis in 1893 was a very severe economic crisis in the US and led to the collapse of the railway. The crisis in 1901 was caused by the disputes between EH Harriman, Jacob Schiff and JP Morgan, and J. Hill over the control of the railway. They finally reached a compromise, but there were thousands of small investors which went bankrupt. The crisis in 1907 started when the New York Stock Exchange dropped by almost 50% from the maximum of the previous year. It

[13] *Mari crize economice care au afectat umanitatea* in Asistenta Contribuabili 12.05.2014, http://asistenta-contribuabili.ro/mari-crize-economice-care-au-afectat-umanitatea.

[14] Skrabe, Quentin R. Jr., *100 Most Important American Financial Crises, The: An Encyclopedia of the Lowest Points in American Economic History*, ABC CLIO LLC, 2015, p. 42.

[15] Rothbard, Murray Newton, *Panic of 1819. Reactions and Policies*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1962, p. 26.

ultimately spread throughout all the US, when more state-owned banks and some companies went into bankruptcy. The crisis between 1920 and 1921 was a recession which affected the US after the first world war.

Crash Wall Street in October 1929, also known as The Great Depression, was the most devastating stock market accident in the history of the US. It affected all industrialized countries and it lasted until 1941, when the US joined the second World War.

A quite devastating crisis took place between January 1973 and December 1974. It affected all stock markets in the world, but it had a huge negative effect upon the United Kingdom. It was one of the most severe stock market economic crises of modern history. It came after the Bretton-Woods collapse associated with the Nixon shock - the United States of America devalued the dollar in the Smithsonian Agreement. This was severely aggravated by the petrol crisis of 1973.

The Silver Thursday was on 27 March 1980 and it meant the decrease of the price of silver which brought panic on the market and futures exchange. The stock exchange crash in 1982 was a consequence of the stock market collapse in Kuweit, Souk Al-Manakh. The Black Monday refers to Monday, 19 October 1987, when all stock exchanges in the world collapsed. This crisis began in Hong Kong and ultimately spread in the West of Europe, reaching the United States after other stock markets decreased by a major margin. The Black Wednesday refers to the events occurred on 16 September 1992 when the British Conservative government had to withdraw the sterling pound from the European Exchange Rate Mechanism after they had not been able to keep it to a high value.

In 1994, there was a major crisis in Mexico which resulted in the adoption of more restrictive policies on lending money by the new elected president of Mexico, Ernesto Zedillo. This measure ended a bubble economy created on the basis of a false impression of a quite easily available capital on the market (this crisis known as the mistake of December) and of the banking system too lax and willing to credit at any price. This crisis was followed by crises throughout Latin America (Brazil, Argentina, Chile, Uruguay) known as the Tequila Effect.

Between 1999 and 2002, an acute crisis hit Argentina. It was mainly caused by the corruption in the governmental system. there were taken excessive loans from international markets in order to start all kinds of public development projects subsequently proven to be complex mechanisms of international money laundering. Another reason is related to the fixed exchange rate applied by Argentina over a long period of 10 years which has led to cheaper imports and subsequent unemployment.

In 1997, a terrible financial crisis had covered a great part of Asia and there had been a huge possibility that the crisis could have determined the collapse at a global level. It began with a strong crisis in Thailand followed by a generalized crisis in other countries (South Korea, Malaysia, Indonesia, Philippines, Hong Kong). It was based on all credit expansion that had generated the development of entrepreneurial projects which, under normal circumstances, would not have been achieved. The effects were devastating for all countries in the region: in 1998, for example, South Korea's GDP fell to 33% compared to the GDP in 1997, the GDP / capita decreased by 42% in Indonesia and by 21% in Thailand in 1998. These countries have not fully recovered even today.

In 1998, the crisis in Russia was induced, according to experts, by the crisis in South-East Asia having as causes the fall in exports of oil and gas (and other commodities) to this region (on which Russia was heavily dependent) but also unpaid duties and taxes by a significant part of energy companies and manufacturing. It was doubled by a political crisis (the war in Chechnya, Yeltsin's declining authority).

After the attacks on 11 September 2001, global markets registered a sudden decrease. The attacks caused 40 billion dollars worth of insurance, as it was one of the greatest events ever insured. From March, the US dollar had started losing value compared to the euro and it kept on steadily going down through July and September.

In 2007, the Chinese government tried to reduce inflation by increasing interest rates. Thus, the Stock Exchange in Shanghai fell by 9%, their greatest decrease in the past 10 years.

The economic crisis in late 2000 contributed to the failure of certain businesses, losses of trillions of dollars, leading to a global economic recession in 2008. The financial crisis was provoked by a liquidity deficit in the banking system of the United States of America. The real estate collapse in the US brought about the financial collapse of institutions around the world. Global economies collapsed and crediting conditions became harder, fact which favoured international trade decrease. Governments and central banks reacted by fiscal stimuli and expansion of monetary policies beyond example.

In 2009, Spain, Greece, Ireland and Portugal started having debt burdens. In 2011, in Greece, there were major protests against the measures taken. By the end of June 2011, the crisis situation was under control again thanks to the Greek government's having been able to pass through an important package of austerity measures. This welcomed financial aid on behalf of the European Union in order to support the country. On 9 May 2010, finance ministers in Europe approved a package of global salvation worth 750 billion Euros, with the intent to provide financial stability in Europe. They created The European Financial Stability Facility [16] in order to finance Ireland, Greece and Portugal.

In August 2011, stock markets register a sudden decrease of the selling prices in the United States, Middle East, Europe and Asia. This was a consequence of the debt crises in Spain and Italy, on the one hand, and the concern regarding the very slow economic growth in the US".

Results

The table below presents the key Business English phrases of the course discussed in class in the first column, students' intuitive understanding of their meanings and use in the second column, the definition provided in the Longman Business English Dictionary in the third column and some examples in the fourth column, selected from the same dictionary, with the objective of further clarifying the meaning.

Business English phrases	*Students' intuitive understanding*	*Correct meaning*	*use in examples*
Global economy	The economy of the world	the economy of the world seen as a whole	• *an interconnected global economy where billions of*

[16] *The European Financial Stability Fund* Available at http://www.efsf.europa.eu/about/index.htm.

			dollars and other currencies can be shifted at the touch of a button
Futures exchange	-	a place where **FUTURES CONTRACT** *s* (=contracts to pay a particular price for the delivery of a particular amount of something in the future) are bought and sold	• *At the Chicago Board of Trade, the world's largest futures exchange, total futures and options volume fell 9.7% last year.*
Current crisis	The crisis period we are living today	Today's period of great difficulty, danger, or uncertainty, especially in politics or economics	• *Opposition leaders accused the president of ignoring the country's growing* ***economic crisis***.
collapse	-	if a company, organization, or system collapses, it suddenly fails or becomes too weak to continue	*We did not want existing company pension schemes to collapse.*
To be faced with crisis	To have to deal with crisis	If you face a particular situation, or it faces you, you have to deal with it	The company is faced with crisis.
Inflation	-	a continuing increase in the prices of goods and services, or the rate at which prices increase	*A slowing economy would help* ***contain inflation*** (= control it). • *Gold does well only during periods of* ***high inflation***. • *Portugal had annual average inflation of 11.4% last year.* • *The* ***inflation rate*** *rose to 4.5% last month.*
Public debt	The debt owed to the citizens	**1** [uncountable] money owed by a local or national government **2** [uncountable] debt in the form of loans obtained on financial markets, rather than other forms of lending	This country's public debt amounts to a fortune.

Debt burden	-	the amount of debt that a business or country has	• *a major restructuring by the company to cut its $500 million debt burden*
Margin	The edge of a surface	the difference between the price that something is sold for and the cost of producing or buying it. A margin is usually calculated as a percentage of the price that something is sold for, unlike a **MARK-UP** which is calculated as a percentage of the cost of producing or buying it	• *Prices and margins were down as a result of the recession.*
Budget deficit	Not enough money in the budget	the amount by which what a government spends is more than it receives in taxes or other income, during a particular period of time	*Any savings on military spending should be used to reduce the budget deficit*
GDP	-	the total value of goods and services produced in a country's economy, not including income from abroad	*Canada's annual* ***growth in gross domestic product*** *declined to about 1%.*
GDP per capita	-	the gross domestic product of a country divided by the number of people living there	*The country's per capita gross domestic product has more than doubled in the last ten years.*
Economic growth	An increase	an increase in the value of goods and services produced in a country or area	• *At 7% economic growth a year, the economy would double in size in twelve years.* • *The country will have* ***strong economic growth*** *and reduced unemployment through next year.*
Financial globalization	-	the tendency for the world financial economy to work as one unit, led by large inter-	• *The publishing company is stepping up its globalisation and moving into new media such as the*

		national companies doing business all over the world. Some of the things that have led to globalization are the ending of **TRADE BARRIERS**, the free movement of capital, cheap transport, and the increased use of electronic systems of communication such as the Internet	*Internet and digital broadcasting.* • *The* ***rapid globalization*** *of the world economy and the creation of a single European currency has doubled cross-border capital flows.*
Due date	The date by which something must be done	**due date** MANUFACTURING TAX COMMERCE the date by which an amount of money must be paid, a document received etc.	*The loan wasn't paid on its Sept. 7 due date.* • *Taxpayers have until the due date of the tax return to make these arrangements.*
Resumption	-	The act of beginning something again after it has stopped	We are hoping for an early resumption of peace talks.
Plummet	-	to suddenly and quickly go down in value or amount; = **PLUNGE**	*House prices have plummeted.* • *The Nikkei index plummeted by 577.38 points yesterday.* • *Its stock plummeted 19% after an investment analyst said the company has had trouble selling its Internet commerce technology.*
Plunge	-	to suddenly and quickly go down in value or amount; = **PLUMMET**	*Stock prices plunged again yesterday.* • *The company's shares plunged 33% in a single day.*
increase	To go up	to become larger in amount, number, or degree	*Manufacturing output increased 0.6% in July.* • *Sales increased to 11.5 million tons from 11 million tons.*

Commercial downturn	A disadvantage of commerce	the part of the economic cycle when prices or the value of stocks, shares etc fall	*The publishing sector has proved largely immune to commercial* ***downturn.***
Economic expansion	-	when an economy becomes more successful, and there is increased economic activity, more jobs etc	*the continued expansion of the Japanese economy* • *The study was carried out at a time of* ***economic expansion*** *and three out of four of the firms had experienced growth in the year prior to the study.*
Recession	-	a period of time when an economy or industry is doing badly, and business activity and employment decrease. Many economists consider that there is a recession when industrial production falls for six months in a row	• *The economy is heading into a recession.* • *Analysts concluded that the US would get out of recession and interest rates would rise.*
Stock exchange	A place where people can exchange currency	a market where company shares are traded; **= STOCKMARKET**	*Companies listed on the Madrid stock exchange dropped about 3% this year.* • *the New York Stock Exchange*
commodities	Something that is easy to be done	**comˈmodity exˌchange** [countable] FINANCE a place where people can buy and sell raw products or materials such as grain or metals in large quantities	• *the Singapore Commodity Exchange*

Conclusion

Of a total of twenty-four phrases discussed in context, students could not even guess the meaning of twelve, a number representing half of them and leading to the interesting analogy between economic crisis and the linguistic crisis students might have to cope with and overcome in order to achieve effective communication in English. This indicates that first-year students attending the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration need further practice and exposure to genuine economics materials in order to succeed in correctly understanding the meaning of a business text. The teacher's main objective here was to identify the business vocabulary that the students needed further explaining and to clarify the correct meaning by offering the correct definition and examples and, then, by asking the students to actively use them in follow-up discussions.

Furthermore, even after having understood the meaning of all key phrases in the text, students still could not fully grasp the meaning that the text conveyed, which indicated that a good command of language, patterns and vocabulary, is essential, but it must be combined with proper knowledge of the subject matter – in this case the economic crisis – in order to allow students to comprehend more facets of the text. In this respect, the Business English teacher doubled language teaching methodology with economics methodology that led to their increase in motivation and curiosity.

This approach showed that economics students are motivated to actively participate in class when the materials used are genuine and when the theme of the course is actual and of high interest. Throughout the course, it was agreed that the main reason for students' lack of understanding is their poor knowledge of business vocabulary in English used in a text that tackles an insight into economic crises. All students who participated in the delivery of the course were able to remember and use the key expressions correctly. Furthermore, the students received the genuine text positively, and their curiosity welcomed questions and further discussions which helped the better grasp of the business phrases discussed.

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Vocabulary in ESP Classes

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ABSTRACT

The present paper aims at presenting facts related to the importance of teaching and learning vocabulary in English for Specific Purposes classes. Those who attend ESP classes are motivated into acquiring a certain type of vocabulary or terminology needed in their careers or lives depending on different situations. Since vocabulary is an indispensable part of any language, special emphasis should be offered to terms and words which belong to a certain field of activity, be it Business, Medicine, Engineering, Law, etc. The paper is based on studies centered on vocabulary acquisition and teaching, studies led by specialists in the field, it discusses the specificity of ESP vocabulary and the methods which may be used in class in order to reach the goal of a successful learning process – that of becoming fluent in a foreign language. This task should be perceived as a challenging one, a task that requires full involvement on behalf of all parties – teachers and learners. Vocabulary is highly important, 'it makes the language', and even though it might seem difficult at the beginning, with the help of all existent materials in the market as well as with an open-mindedness of the subject it becomes an enjoyable and challenging teaching task.

KEYWORDS: *ESP (English for Specific Purposes); technical vocabulary; specialised vocabulary, AWL (Academic Word List)*

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) cannot be seen or considered a totally different area from English as a Second Language (ESL) since it represents just a branch of this domain of study in respect of its purpose for learners, specific terminology and use in the future communicative processes. Those who attend ESP classes are motivated into acquiring a certain type of vocabulary or terminology needed in their careers or lives depending on different situations. ESP mainly relies on general English knowledge; we cannot expect a person become competent in ESP without a basis of General English. The latter is the foundation for what it is to follow in the professional development of a person or student. Therefore, all the necessary skills applied to ESL are also valid for ESP. Yet, the difference consists in the specific need of students to acquire and develop skills needed at work or in their studies.

ESP, be it Business English, Technical English, English for Medicine and Nursing and so on, focuses on vocabulary, not so much on the general one but on specific terms and chunks of words frequently and less frequently used in one domain of activity. The need of acquiring specialized vocabulary is obvious since we deal with people who work or will do this in a circle which somehow is restricted to specific language. It is the case of the native language as well, when people, in their studies, become familiar with terminology and concepts specific to one field, so, in ESP, we talk about the same idea only that in this case people are confronted to a new language, a language they do not feel very sure of since it is not something they frequently use. Many times, no matter how professional individual might be, the language barrier prevents him/her from being able to communicate efficiently to people of different places in this world. This is the main factor which drives individuals towards attending ESP classes.

Since motivation is clear in many of our ESP classes, then, many times, it comes the issue of how to better present/teach/instruct learners so that they become effective communicators. Vocabulary is an important part of this process, not to say that, when we talk about specific language, it may be considered as the most important aspect. Learners need to get accustomed, acquire, retain and later effectively use "words" in their communicative processes. And, many times, these "words" have nothing to do with their general knowledge of a language, they are specific and fix.

*Estimates of how much technical vocabulary might be in a text can range from 20% to 30% of a text (Chung & Nation, 2003). If up to one word in three in a line of discipline-specific text could be technical in nature, then the sheer amount and frequency of discipline-specific lexical items in specialised texts is a powerful reason why this vocabulary is important. (*Coxhead, 2018: 7-8)

There have been numerous studies (Nation, 2013; Chung & Nation, 2003; Beck, McKeown and Kucan, 2013; Durrant, 2014) related to technical, semi-technical or specialised vocabulary, offering different approaches of splitting the vocabulary into separate groups. It is extremely difficult to estimate the size and degree of vocabulary learners need, since each specialisation has its own set of words and expressions particular to it, while, at the same time, there are other technical terms common to two or more specialisations.

ESP vocabulary may be classified in three main types. The first type is technical vocabulary, also called specialist, or specialised vocabulary; this refers to vocabulary specific to the discipline and not widely used or understood outside this area. The second type is semi-technical vocabulary, also called sub-technical vocabulary; this refers to terms commonly used in the discipline which may have a specific usage and meaning. These terms may be used or understood outside the field but may be used in a different way (Dudley - Evans & St John, 1998). The third type is general vocabulary: common everyday vocabulary necessary for any communication in the language. (Woodrow, 2018: 35)

The facilitator of the second/foreign language, the teacher, is responsible with what type of specific vocabulary they draw the attention of the students to, since, vocabulary is a vast area and more focus should be offered to certain terminology depending on their frequency in usage. At the same time, vocabulary should be divided into spoken and written, discourse and procedural vocabulary, basic and non-basic one. One should never forget that the teacher is not a professional in the specific domain, like accounting or medicine, and, therefore, he/she might find difficult to teach terminology which is understood only by studying that field. If, many times, we encounter words which have somehow become 'international', there are many instances when we deal with completely new concepts, out of our expertise. Therefore, teachers and learners should closely cope with each other since we can perceive this situation as a 'professional giving and receiving' process. It is the decision of both teachers and students to integrate or not the rarely-used words depending on the aims and needs of the group or individual attending the class.

There are several strategies for teachers to integrate in their classes the acquisition of new vocabulary. There is a difference between the acquisition of general vocabulary, which, besides the traditional methods, may occur incidentally due to exposure, and the learning of specific vocabulary, which is usually made on purpose – learners setting out to acquire certain terms and expressions they need or are interested in. The latter process is a more conscious one, driven by the desire to retain vocabulary learners will most probably use in the future. It is well known that one of the best means of enriching vocabulary is by reading. Extensive reading helps students acquire new terminology and, at the same time, it helps them understand words and expressions out of context.

A distinction should be made between learners with a strong background of English and those beginners who also need specialised English. According to specialists in the field (Nation, 1990; Paribakht & Wesche, 1996; Zimmerman, 1997; Coady, 1997 and Prince, 1996), beginners highly need explicit instruction on behalf of the teachers since they do not master the needed level of English to cope with unfamiliar texts by themselves or they do not posses such an extended vocabulary in the L2 so that they might infer the meaning out of context. In the case of more advanced students, the incidental learning frequently appears, significantly contributing to vocabulary development. These specialists in the field consider that one needs at least 3,000 words as a basis for further development of vocabulary.

Yet, besides reading and getting the meaning out of context, teachers and learners have different other tools they may rely on when working with vocabulary. First, there are the word-lists, usually made up by professionists which mainly focus on terminology specific to that domain of study. Then, there are the dictionaries people frequently use, especially when they are unsure of the meaning of a specific word, a meaning which cannot be deducted from context, since it is not too common in the area or is surrounded by other words unfamiliar to the learner. Corpora, general and specific are of great help in improving and working with terminology. Listening materials, if available, represent another important source of acquiring new vocabulary, they are many times easier as they do not include a multitude of 'rare' and uncommon words and, at the same time, help learners with the correct pronunciation of a word or expression. All these resources should be used in ESP classes when the main goal is that of acquiring specialised vocabulary and its future use.

A special attention should be offered to word lists, especially when we talk about the academic language. Nowadays, both teachers and learners may rely on such lists as a starting point in the activity of vocabulary acquisition. It is highly improbable for a learner to retain terms only by having a look at the list, these should be used as a resource for some of the activities mentioned in this paper. One of the most well-known list is that of Coxhead – Academic Word List (AWL) which includes around 570 word families derived from a written corpus of academic texts, including areas such as science, commerce, law and arts. At the same time and of great help, this list is divided into several sub-lists depending on the frequency of the presented terms.

As noted by Coxhead (2011 :357), on average the AWL provides a roughly 10% coverage of academic language, which means it covers around 10% of running words in any academic text. Given these benefits, the mastery of AWL words came to be known as a vital element of understanding academic English. […] To take a well-known resource, Schmitt and Schmitt (2005) published a textbook called Focus on Vocabulary which offers numerous examples of activities built around the most frequent academic words. (Szudarski, 2018:142-143).

The type of vocabulary teachers selects to present and discuss in class is closely related to the needs of the learners. If, for example, an ESP teacher works with a group specialised in Accounting, then he/she selects various texts and listening materials that focus on accounting terminology. But if the teacher deals with a medicine group, the vocabulary will definitely be extracted from this specific domain. Yet, it is not enough just to select the type of terminology learners use in their professions, what is more important is how to make this experience as pleasant and useful as possible. Pleasant, since the selected activities shouldn't become boring and distract the attention of students, useful since these precise activities should help students retain the terms for their correct and efficient use in the future. Therefore, activities should be designed as diversified as possible, ranging from matching words from text with their meaning, filling the gaps with the proper choice, rearranging words to form meaningful utterances, playing with guessing and crossword puzzles. Besides these, students may be asked to work with synonyms and antonyms, suffixes and prefixes as well as translation. Nowadays, it is rather easy to find the proper materials to base your course on since teachers may choose specialised textbooks, newspapers articles, online presentations or dictionaries. These may be perceived as useful tools in working with terminology and, they also represent a way of better retaining terminology for long-term.

It has been established (McCarthy, 1990; Schmitt, 2000) that, in order to retain a certain term, learners need to be exposed to it as frequently as possible. The idea is not that of just learning a word at a time and then not using it for long periods since it is natural to be completely forgotten. As McCarthy says, *No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wider range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way" (McCarthy 1990, p. viii).* At the same time, according to Schmitt, *the object of vocabulary learning is to transfer lexical information from short-term memory, where it resides during the process of manipulating language, to permanent long-term memory (*Schmitt, 2000: 131). The short-term memory is the one involved in the process of meeting and working with specific words at a certain point in the educational process while in the long-term one, words and expressions are retained and used further when needed. The purpose of vocabulary teaching is to store expressions and terms in the long-term memory. Therefore, from time to time, a revision of the main vocabulary should be inserted in the syllabus of the subject matter, since, if they are not frequently met in various situations, the terms are likely to be forgotten. The goal of each ESP class should be that of students being able to produce language by themselves, integrating specific terminology as natural as possible so that their speech may resemble the native one.

Dudley-Evans & St John in their *Developments in ESP* make a distinction between the terms learners just comprehend while reading, which is described as the most important method of learning vocabulary and those which are needed for production. In ESP, teachers and facilitators should emphasize both methods as being equally important. ESP learners are not interested only in understanding written and spoken messages, they are even more interested in their future ability of using the terms in their speech acts.

It is important to distinguish between vocabulary needed for comprehension and that needed for production. In comprehension, deducing the meaning of vocabulary from the context and from the structure of the actual word is the most important method of learning new vocabulary. For production purposes, storage and retrieval are significant. Various techniques have been suggested for storing vocabulary: the use of word association, mnemonic devices and loci, that is the use of visual images to help remember a word (Nattinger, 1988). (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 83).

According to Nation (2001, 2007), when dealing with vocabulary acquisition, teachers have at hand four strands for a balanced instruction. First, there is the meaning-focused input, which is made through reading and listening, then, there is the meaning-focused output through speaking and writing, followed by the language focused learning which deals with the linguistic study of an item and last, but not least, the fluency development. All these stages should be considered when designing a successful vocabulary acquisition process since they all form the umbrella under which learners are able to evolve in a professional way. That's how, when teaching vocabulary, one works with all the skills needed to produce quality and long-term speech.

Teaching ESP and dealing with specialised vocabulary is a demanding task for the instructor since they always need to think about the needs of the learners, the proper methodologies to be used in class, the genre analysis when it comes to writing activities, the speaking practice with further use in their professions, all these in a terminology environment they are not very familiar with. Yet, this task should be always perceived as a challenging one, a task that requires full involvement on behalf of all parties – teachers and learners. Vocabulary is highly important, 'it makes the language', and even though it might seem difficult at the beginning, with the help of all existent materials in the market as well as with an open-mindedness of the subject it becomes an enjoyable and challenging teaching task. Teachers and learners should closely collaborate for choosing the most suitable learning strategies when dealing with low-frequency words, strategies that lead students toward the proficient use of the second language.

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Idioms and Idiomatic Phrases and Expressions used in Travelling and Tourism (II)

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ABSTRACT

The article stems from a desire to better comprehend the multiple meanings and symbolic connotations of words related to travel in English.An idiom as a whole expression is a traditional view of idioms.But there is a lot of language which is idiomatic and a lot of individual words with idimatic uses. Here is a run down on both Bristish and Americam idioms related to Tourism.

KEYWORDS: *idiom, expressions, english, tourism*

1. Introduction

There are thousands of idioms and they occur frequently in English language.It is estimated that there are at least twenty-five thousand idiomatic expressions in the English language.Merrier-Webster Dictionary[17] tells us that tourism"is the activity of travelling to a place for pleasure and the business of providing hotels, restaurants, entertainment for people who are travelling". Finding idioms in a general dictionary is a slow and laborious task and it is hoped that this article will provide assistance to both teachers and students in a practical way.

According to John Wright[18] an idiom is "a fixed expression and is recognised by native speakers. It uses language in a non-literal or metaphorical way." For example, the literal meaning of „pile" is a heap of something, piles of money, however simply means *lots of money*. A *hot potato* is not for eating it means a contoversial issue. *An uncle at sea* works on a boat, if you are at sea it means you are in a situation which you do not understand and where you cannot cope. Inspiration for research has come from many places. Besides attending conferences, seminars and reading the latest

[17]https://www.merriam-webster.com/ accessed on 5th December 2017.

[18] Idioms Organiser, Thomson Heinle Language Teaching Publication Series, Boston, USA, p. 7.

academic literature, I have generated many ideas from listening to radio programmes, reading my favourite online sites and blogs and engaging in social media such as Twitter, Instagram, Facebook, etc.

2. Practical direction

The article has a practical directtion by offering in the section below a list of some common/uncommon English phrases, expressions or idioms used by travellers which will assist you in developing your vocabulary in many modern travel-related situations.

VERBS & PHRASAL VERBS

to get off to a flying start (a holiday) - to start well
to get off on the wrong foot - to start badly
to know a place like the back of your hand - to know a place extremely well
to push the boat out - to spend more than usual
to set foot in - enter/visit a place
to go like a bomb (a destination) - be bought in large numbers
to travel with a crowd - to travel in a group
to be all Greek to someone - not understanding with when travelling
to wind down - to relax
to foot the bill - to pay for, to stand the expense of
to be what the doctor ordered (a destination) - exactly what you need or wish
to dub a restaurant - to give it a name that describes it in one way
- to label it
to take a toll on your wallet - to have a bad effect on your wallet
to be eschiewing a destination - to deliberately avoid a destination
to be a hallmark of a great hotel - an idea, method, quality that is typical in a particular hotel
to break a journey - to stop somewhere for a short moment
to look/work a treat - (for a place) to look very good
- to work well
to hop on the subway - to get on it after suddenly deciding to do so
to snap a photo - to take a photo
to jump/climb/get on the bandwagon - to start travelling somewhere where a lot of people are already travelling
to travel for the "likes" - to travel for the „likes" you will get on your destination on social media
to flock to a place - to go to a place because something interesting/exciting is happenning there
to embrace your destination - to try new foods, talk to the locals
to span the globe - the distance between one side of the globe and the other
to twist someone's arm (to go on a journey) - to persuade someone to go on a journey

to have a head for heights - to be able to go to high places without feeling sick or afraid
to relive your holiday - to keep sharing photos on social media even after you go back after the holiday
you are not at the Ritz! - the Ritz is a hotel in a Piccadilly (London) which has made a name for excellence of its cooking and accommodation
to take a rain-check - to keep an invitation open
something is not all it is cracked up to be - it is not good as people say it is (a hotel, a restaurant)
to get away from it away - to have a relaxing time in a place that is very different from where you work and live, so that you can forget your problems
to push the boat out - to spend more than usual
to cath the sun - to be sunburned/burnt by sun
to be off grid - to be on holiday
there are no flies on something - flawless (about a place)
to foot the bill - to pay for, to stand the expense of
to jet off - to travel by plane to many different places
to take a wander - to take a stroll
to be nestled in the mountains (a resort) - to be surrounded by mountains
to span the globe - the distance between one side of the globe and the other one
pay least, board last - passengers with cheaper tickets will be thelast to hop on the aircraft
to splash each other in the water - to hit something/somebody and to scatter in a lot of small drops
to spend money like water - to spend much money
the world is somebody's oyster - do/go whatever/wherever you want
to catch somebody's eye - to draw somebody's attention
to have a ball - to have a good time
to make yourself at home - to be comfortable, feel at home

NOUN PHRASES

on the big/expensive side (travel, journey) - more expensive than you want it to be.
rough and ready (accommodation) - crude and lacking in sophistication
on the shoestring - with little money to spend
a bird's eye view - a general view from a high position
home-body - somebody who doesn't like travelling
land of milk and honey - utopia, a perfect place where there is plenty of goods
cheap as dirt (a hotel, a meal) - very cheap
from China to Peru - all over the world
citizen of the world - cosmopolitan person
at one's door - very close to the place where one lives/stays
short-haul - a journey over a short distance especially by car

shoulder-season - between peak and off-peak season (spring and autumn) when fares tend to be relatively low
outbound travel - a travel that implies moving away from a town, country
low-key staff - not intended to attract a lot of attention
free stop over policy - allowing travellers to explore a place for up to seven nights without paying an additional fee
stop over buddies - locals will help traveller spot the best hidden places/gems of an area
a nap-room - a room which allows travellers to use the bed, eye wash, toothbrush or just chill out in a plane
etiquette faux-pas - embarrasing mistake related to etiquette (in a hotel, restaurant)
frequent flier - someone who is flying frequently
vacation shaming - work environments where colleagues and bosses indirectly discourage employees from taking time off
jet-lag - the tired and confused feeling that you can get after flying a long distance, especially a distance in time between the place you left and the place you arrive at
an El-Dorado - an imaginary country where the traveller can make a fortune without any effort
a fly in the oitment - something/ someone that spoils your plans and causes troble
the highways and byways - all the roads from the most important to the least important (in an area)
Mexican standoff - when two groups cannot agree on what to do next (when they travelling)
the Venice of the North - there are three cities in north of Europe which boast they are compared to Venice: Bruges, Amsterdam and Stockholm
travel hacks - shared experiences that make your travel experiencee easier and more enjoyable
top-notch - of the highest quality/category
hipster holiday - which follows the latest trends and fashion especially those outside the cultural mainstream
bleisure traveler - professionals who are refraining the all-wok and no-fun kind of business type by mixing them with vacation time
busman's holiday - a holiday in which somebody is doing the same thing he does when he works
one for the road (Amer.) - to have one last alcoholic drink somewhere before you leave
- to get two of something, one of the present time and one for later
hot spot - a place that is very popular for a particular type of entertainment
life in the fast lane - fast, high-pressure lifestyle
on the go - very active
step-on guide - a guide which is offred to you when you are on the bus/coach
Blue-Flags awarded - a certification issued by the Foundation for Environmental Education (FEE) that a beach, marina or sustainable boating tourism operator meets its strigent standards

wanderings - journeys to places where do not stay for long
bag and baggage - all movable belongings
bed and board - sleeping accommodation
a destination on the top of trends - modern and responding to the latest tastes
an unspoiled view - a view that has not changed in ways that make it less beautiful
inner-city - the central part of a city where people live
culture-hungry traveler - a traveler who is eager to know as more as possible about the culture of a certain place
travel buzzwords (used in tourism) - words/phrases from one special area of knowledge that people think is very important
far-off land/country/place - distant land/country/place
Indian summer - a period in late autumn when the weather is ususlly warm
spick and span (a room) - very clean, neat
on the spur of the moment - without previous thought or plan

Conclusion

Today, in the age of mobile phone and social networks the period from the birth of an idiom and its full usage may be a matter of years. The present study has provided a starting point for future studies which can use them to explore cultural differences between national varieties of English. Languages are living organisms and therefore new words and phrases are coming to life and this process is the most obvious in idiomatic expressions. This article is intended to be an attempt of representing a learning material which may facilitate the access to the English which is a language rich in idioms. Without them English would lose variety and humor, especially in speaking. This paper stems from a desire to comprehend the idioms and idiomatic phrases and expressions used in travelling and tourism are reflected in English language. Languages are living organisms and therefore new words and phrases are coming to life and this process is the most obvious in idiomatic expressions. This article is intended to be an attempt of representing a learning material which may facilitate the access to the English which is a language rich in idioms. Without them English would lose variety and humor, especially in speaking.

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Framing Contact Language: Definition and Main Features

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ABSTRACT

The paper focuses on legal translation issues, more precisely, on the translation of contracts from an empirical perspective. It is systematically organised, defining the key terms of the scientific investigation – translation, legal translation, contract language – in an interdisciplinary landscape, i.e. achieving a coherent conceptual and methodological toolkit deriving from linguistics (diachronic and synchronic perspectives are combined in this respect as the language of contract is envisaged in its dynamics), sociolinguistics, pragmalinguistics, corpus linguistics and translation studies.

KEYWORDS: *legal translation, contract language*

Contracts are one of the oldest forms of legal documents dating back to medieval times. The contract is also the genre of legal writing that ordinary people encounter most often.

According to Throne and Bailey (1990: 2) the closest equivalent used in business law would be the term *deal*. However, one definition suggested by the authors refers to the term *contract* as *an agreement which the parties intend to be legally binding* (ibidem). A more explicit definition, based on the contractual law, is provided by Blum (2007: 6) who states that a "contract is an exchange relationship created by oral or written agreement between two or more persons, containing at least one promise, and recognized in law as enforceable." Both research studies mentioned above strengthen their approach to the term *contract* by mentioning the legal concept *freedom of contract*, which according to Throne and Bailey (1990: 2) is one of the few legal maxims which means exactly what we might expect to mean, i.e. "to enable a person who has made a deal to hold the other party (or parts) to it."

Resorting to dictionary definitions, we pick up the *LDCE,* which defines the noun **contract** as *a formal written agreement between two or more people, which says what each person must do for the other* (Summers *et al.,* 2005: 293). However, specialised research studies within the field of contract law, argue that the law provides no formal definition of what a contract is.

1. Contract language as a specialised language

The first step in approaching the particularities of this domain would be to place contract language among the languages and sublanguages used for special purposes, i.e specialised languages, and, moreover, to frame the very specificity of this language according to its genre and register categories.

As indicated by main stream literature, a controversial aspect which arises when dealing with specialised languages definitions and features is their classification. The question of how to categorise specialised language has led to a dichotomic approach of linguists, as prominent figures within the field of linguistics and the other interrelated research domains argue whether to consider specialised languages as closed systems existing next to common language, or just as various lexical deviations.

Some linguists postulate that it is inadequate to provide an overall definition for specialised languages and that it is only possible to define them within a certain field. Others describe specialised languages as varieties with general characteristics in which institutionalised language planning has become effective. This aspect implies that no evolution takes place; this kind of language is considered as a policy from the outside, as nothing natural. The latter is the approach which we adopt, because specialised languages cannot exist without the standard language. They can therefore be defined as subsystems or sub-varieties of the standard language. Consequently, specialised languages can be seen as a range of domains which may be further divided into sub domains involving a number of *sublanguages*. This concept is in agreement with the East European conception of languages as coordinate systems with horizontal dimension involving the number of domains into which language can be divided, e.g. scientific language, legal language, language for economics, language for medicine, etc., and a vertical dimension specifying a specific *layer* of this domain. The latter dimension is defined according to sociological functions and yields a number of functional styles (scientific, official, publicist, literary, colloquial styles).

According to Kennedy and Bolitho (1990: 10), specialised languages find their origin in the eighteenth century, as they are based on the division of work. The earliest specialised languages were only used orally, for the most part by sailors or craftsmen. The Industrial Revolution, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, marked the development of most of the specialised languages we know today (above all technical languages and languages in the field of natural sciences). Thus, in line with Bholito and Kenedy (ibid:12), the more differentiated the working process is and the more complex technologies are, the more specialised languages are developed and part with the standard language.

Against this background, modern legal English has become a highly differentiated variety of language, whose specificity has given rise to the question of whether it may be treated as a separate dialect, register or sublanguage. On the one hand, specialists believe that the linguistic differentiation of legal English may be great enough to justify this variety view, on the other hand, there are scientists who prefer to consider legal English a special register which is mainly a matter of formality.

2. Contracts: definitions and taxonomies

Having established the main reference term with a view to the language of contracts as a specialised language, the following step in our research is to define and classify contracts. Not only that contract language belongs to the field of languages for special purposes, thus forming a separate *sublanguage* within the field of legal language, but the very contract itself is characterised by typical structures and forms meant to emphasise certain particularities which are to be studied throughout our research thesis.

A diachronic approach to the term *contract* and, implicitly, to contract law would help us reinforce one of our main research objectives in the analysis of contract language, i.e. translation-related issues in contract English. English contract law has its origin in early times, based on local customs, applied in local courts (notably, Blum, 2008: 21). Once the centralised Royal Courts began to increase in importance, a national law was founded that gradually became a common law to all of England, called *common law*. Blum (*ibidem*) also mentions that later on the British colonists *transplanted* English law into the territories they had occupied, in most of the ex-colonies, including those that became the United States, the common law of England has remained the basic legal system. Subsequently, the term *common law* used in the broadest international sense designates a country whose *legal system is based on the common law of England* (*ibidem*). On the other hand, most other countries all over the world have legal systems derived from Roman law, especially in continental Europe. Because the source of Roman law was "the Corpus Juris Civilis of the Emperor Justinian, these systems are called civilian" (*ibid*: 22).

Even though nowadays cross cultural ties and international commerce have reduced the difference between the civil law and the common law, each system continues to have a distinct approach to legal analysis. Consequently, from a linguistic perspective, we become aware that such legal differences may be also the source of language ambiguities, which might arise due to divergent legal, political and socio-cultural models and concepts.

The official business language is sometimes called *officialise* and differs from other kinds of the English language, mostly because of specific character of its functional usage, which can be illustrated in classical terms of style, its predestination, and main features. The form of a document itself is informative, because it tells something about the matter dealt with. According to specialised works and research studies within the contract language field, the general characterisation of the linguistic field would mention attributes such as formality, frozen, consultative style. Therefore, the main features on the contractual register and style round up the idea of concreteness, conciseness, and clearness of intentions and actions, a special system of clichés and stamps which lack emotional colouring.

Though contracts are of different types, each contract type maintains its specific fixed and formal structure. From the viewpoint of its structure, the whole document is one sentence. It looks like separate, shaped clauses, often divided by commas or semicolons, and not by full stops, often numbered. Every predicate construction begins with a capital letter in the form of a participial or an infinitive construction.

By law, contracts are made in writing. When striking a deal, standard contracts are widely used. Standard contracts are not a must. Some articles can be amended and supplemented. According to Byrd (1998: 7-10) in *Law & Language of Contracts* *and Torts,* the following items are of utmost importance in any contract: contract No.; place and date of signing; names of the Parties to the contract; subject of the contract; quality of goods; price (per unit and total price); destination; delivery time; requirements for packing and marking; payment terms; conditions of submission and acceptance of goods; transport conditions; warranty conditions and sanctions; arbitration conditions; force majeure; judicial addresses of the parties; signatures of the Seller and the Buyer.

The appendices of a contract are an integral part as well. A contract is drawn up in accordance with the established form, frequently on special printed forms filled in with basic information by one-time writing (*ibid*: 17).

As textual varieties, contracts are divided into:

a. administrative-managerial;
b. financial-economical;
c. advertising;
d. scientific-technical;
e. artistic-publication contracts.

Their function and the type of the business activity each contract type regulates can be easily guessed based on the above-mentioned classification.

2.1. Contract language – a source of translation ambiguities

Contract language, as a linguistic variety derived from legal language, would imply specific register and style features that emphasise the idea of "concreteness, conciseness, and clearness of intentions and actions, as it must contain a high capacity of information, strict logic and a clear rhythm of sentences" (Crystal and Davy, 1979: 34). According to specialised works and research studies within the contract language domain, the general characterisation of the linguistic field would mention attributes such as *formality*, *frozen*, *consultative* (Danet, 1984: 3). The main idea of the contract is reinforced by words, repetitions, being further characterized by a special system of clichés and stamps which lack emotional colouring.

It is noteworthy that the linguistic aims in drafting or translating a contract refer to the use of accurate and coherent structures. In this respect Feldman and Nimmer (2004: 33) recommend that a drafter "should not be elegant or artful in constructing the organisation and the language of the contract, as the purpose is not to impress with the beauty of composition, but to achieve the practical effect intended".

Consequently, it can be said that effective drafting clearly involves issues that are properly matters of style and grammar. But, even though the contractual goal will most often be best served by being clear and simple in expressing the intent of the parties' agreement, linguistic ambiguities may arise. Beyond the legal, political and socio-cultural variations which may lead to the occurrence of ambiguities in drafting and translating contracts, style and grammar instances may also lead to a kind of ambiguities, i.e. linguistic ambiguities.

2.2. Equivalence of nominalisations and grammatical metaphor

LDALT defines the term *nominalisation* as "the grammatical process of forming nouns from other parts of speech" (Richard and Schmidt, 2002: 360). Similarly, Bussmann (2006: 16) defines nominalisation as: "1 Broadly speaking, every derivation of nouns from another word class, 2 Productive process of word formation through which words of all word classes can be used as nouns. […]

In the same climate of opinion, Trask (2005: 135) defines *nominalisation* as "any grammatical unit which behaves like a noun or a noun phrase but which is built up from something very different." The author (*ibidem*) further mentions that nominalisation can be quite simple, at least at the morphological level, when, for example, we build a noun from a verb:

(1) *He arrives tomorrow at noon.*
(2) *His arrival makes us all impatient.*

However, more complex situations of nominalisation can be encountered when entire phrases or entire sentences are turned into a noun phrase. Thus, in example (3)

(3) *They treat wild animals.*

The structure *treat wild animals* is a *verb phrase*, though by rephrasing this verb phrase into

(4) *Treating wild animals* is not an easy job.

Treating wild animals in (6.4) has been nominalised into a *noun phrase*. An even more complex situation is revealed at sentence level where entire sentences like:

(5) *Tom drinks.*

can be nominalized into a *noun phrase*, as in

(6) *That Tom drinks does not surprise me.*

Trask (*ibidem*) emphasises that "the use of nominalizations for various communicative purposes have been particularly investigated within Systemic Linguistics, within which nominalizations are treated as a kind of grammatical metaphor. "

Under the frame of generative semantic theory, noun compounds are the products of the nominalisation (e.g. *signal detection – […] detect the signal*) (Levi, 1978), defined as a *grammatical metaphor*.

Referring to nominalisation, Halliday and Webster (2004: 171) consider that "the main cause of ambiguity is that clauses are turned into nouns." The authors mention that scientific writing uses many nominal constructions of this kind, although according to Halliday and Webster (*ibidem*) “we usually do not recognize the ambiguity until we try to reword the passage in some other form.”

Additionally, Halliday and Webster (*ibidem*) conceptualise *grammatical metaphor* as a variation of the typical realisation of semantic choice, namely “the semogenic power of the nominal group is brought into play through progressive nominalising of the process and qualities involved” (*ibid*: 124). This approach to the grammatical metaphor is also adopted by Downing (1991, in Linh 2010: 6).

Discussing the term grammatical metaphor, Linh (*ibid*: 7) provides two examples:

(7) *We walked in the evening along the river to Henley.*

(8) *Our evening walk along the river took us to Henley.*

While the first sentence is defined as a typical grammatical wording, in the second sentence the correspondence between the word classes and their function cannot be seen, as in this sentence the process of walking is expressed by the noun. If we analyse the second sentence semantically, the two circumstances *in the evening* and *along the river* become classifiers and qualifiers expressed in the form of a ***noun phrase***.

In the phrase analysis of (7) according to the model proposed by Downing (1991) and to the labelled and bracketed method proposed by Yule (2006: 84), we can observe the grammatical metaphor in the form of a noun and a noun phrase.

(9) *[Our evening walk] along [the river] took us to Henley.*

Various classifications of grammatical metaphors have been established ranging from thirteen to nineteen types. Nevertheless, it seems that in such classifications, nominalisations are present in 3 up to 5 types. Based on such a classification, Banks (2005) adopts a similar approach stating that “nominalizsation derives from the formation of noun-phrases to express process and quality instead of verb and adjective.”

Based on further linguistic arguments claiming that nominalisations are widely preferred in legal language and, particularly, in contract language, we emphasise a commonly acknowledged conclusion that this process allows the drafters and the translators to package the process in the previous sentence in a nominal group which, in its turn, will act as a theme in the next sentence thus appointing a given piece of information that would lead further to new information. Under the circumstances, nominalisations have been considered a linguistic device in forming noun combinations, preferred in such texts. Yet, these combinations are a source of difficulty in reading, understanding and translating.

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La perspective actionnelle dans l’enseignement/l’apprentissage du FLE

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ABSTRACT: The Actional Perspective in Teaching/Learning of Fench as a Foreign Language

The *Common European Framework of Reference* presents a variety of concepts and tools to revitalize the teaching / learning of foreign languages. The student is considered as a social figure and his role as an integration into contexts in which he has tasks that he must carry out: the actional representation. Learning advances according to skill levels accurately exposed in reference systems. We will illustrate the impacts of the Framework’s provisions on the development of the Echo Method for big adolescents and adults: goal formulation, task-based learning activities, the search for learner autonomy, actor of his apprenticeship.

KEYWORDS: *Common European Framework of Reference, actional perspective, teaching, learning, French as a Foreign Language*

1. Introduction

Le *Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues* (CECR) remet l’enseignement/l’apprentissage dans une perspective de type actionnel. Le néologisme français « actionnel » représente assurément incomplètement l’anglais « action oriented approach » mais a l’avantage de consolider le trait novateur de l’approche dans la tradition méthodologique française.

> Encourager le plurilinguisme en Europe est en effet l’une des priorités du Conseil de l’Europe : c’est en formant une personne sensibilisée à la réalité de différentes langues et de différentes cultures que l’on peut en faire un médiateur linguistique et culturel capable de jouer pleinement son rôle de citoyen européen. Avec l’implication suivante pour l’enseignement / apprentissage des langues : selon la perspective – actionnelle – promue par le CECR, l’on prépare alors les apprenants en classe, par une approche fondée sur la réalisation de tâches, à pouvoir s’intégrer dans les pays d’Europe qu’ils seront amenés à fréquenter pour une durée assez longue (pour effectuer une partie de leurs études à l’étranger, pour y effectuer une partie de leur carrière, etc.).
>
> (Rosen, p. 488)

La perspective actionnelle est articulée de la manière suivante : l'utilisateur de la langue est regardé comme un personnage social qui prendra l'initiative dans les grandes sphères de la vie sociale (personnelle, éducationnelle, professionnelle, publique). Dans chacun de ces domaines il se trouvera face à face à différentes situations. Par exemple, dans sa vie privée et dans les relations avec les autres personnes : assister à un mariage ; dans sa vie professionnelle : faire un stage de formation. Ces contextes inspireront un certain nombre de situations. Par exemple, participer à un mariage implique qu'on réponde à une invitation, qu'on se vêtît, qu'on offre un cadeau, qu'on félicite les mariés.

Ces situations conduiront à des tâches : composer un mot d'acceptation ou téléphoner pour remercier. Ces tâches pourront prendre une forme langagière (en félicitant les mariés) ou non langagière (en se repérant dans un plan de table). Elles mettront en pratique :

- des acquis (connaissance des cérémonials du mariage, du cercle social dans lequel on va aller)
- des savoir-faire (prendre la parole en public)
- des savoir être (il y a des mariages où tout le monde s'embrasse, d'autres où l'on n'embrasse que les gens que l'on connaît, certains où les deux familles sont séparées, d'autres où les femmes et les hommes sont séparés, etc.)
- des savoir apprendre, autrement dit, l'habileté à s'adapter à ces diverses circonstances.

2. La notion de tâche langagière

Dans sa définition de la perspective actionnelle le *Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues* (CECR) identifie l'apprenant à l'utilisateur de la langue. Tous les deux représentent des acteurs sociaux qui doivent exécuter des tâches. Dans la classe de langue nous pouvons distinguer trois types de tâches.

Premièrement, les tâches qu'on peut désigner comme étant naturelles parce qu'elles sont suscitées naturellement par le groupe social de la classe. Celui-ci emploie des coutumes sociales spécifiques à la vie d'un groupe d'apprenants (poser des questions à un collègue de banque qui a été absent, demander une explication au professeur).

Deuxièmement, les tâches simulées, car, il est évident que l'espace classe ne peut pas produire de façon naturelle toutes les situations que l'étudiant rencontrera dans un pays francophone. Nous devrons recourir en classe à des activités de simulations pour apprendre à réserver une chambre d'hôtel, à acheter un billet de train ou à demander son chemin dans la rue. Les étudiants peuvent jouer au vendeur et au client, ils pourront s'imaginer d'être obligés de remplir une fiche d'hôtel ou d'avoir une panne de voiture. Troisièmement, les tâches techniques ou les tâches d'apprentissage qui nécessitent des moments d'observation de la langue, de conceptualisation, de mémorisation et d'automatisation des formes linguistiques ainsi que de mise en place de stratégies de compréhension et de production.

La notion de tâche est relativement nouvelle en France alors que chez les Anglo-Saxons elle est employée depuis longtemps en classe de langue en tant qu'activité communicative et plus récemment en tant qu'activité réelle. En France elle ne fait pas partie de la tradition méthodologique. En outre, le mot « tâche » rend incomplètement le mot anglais « task » et présente le désavantage de suggérer la pénibilité : on parle en général d'une tâche lourde et difficile. D'après les auteurs le mot sera susceptible de plusieurs interprétations.

Il est donc primordial de se rapporter à la définition qu'en donne le *Cadre* :

> Est définie comme tâche toute visée actionnelle que l'acteur se représente comme devant parvenir à un résultat donné en fonction d'un problème à résoudre, d'une obligation à remplir, d'un but qu'on s'est fixé. Il peut s'agir tout aussi bien suivant cette définition de déplacer une armoire, d'écrire un livre, d'emporter la décision dans la négociation d'un contrat, de faire une partie de cartes, de commander un repas dans un restaurant, de traduire un texte en langue étrangère ou de préparer en groupe un journal de classe.
>
> (CECR, p. 16)

À la source de la tâche il y a donc un projet d'action sur l'environnement qui correspond à un besoin, à une nécessité ou à un but qu'on a précisé. Une tâche peut être ordinaire (commander le déjeuner au restaurant) ou complexe (elle peut se scinder en tâches simples). Elle peut être verbale ou non verbale.

Imaginons que je veuille déplacer une armoire. J'exécute une tâche non verbale. Pourtant j'ai besoin d'aide. J'ai la possibilité d'aller sonner chez ma voisine pour lui demander un coup de main. Je matérialise à ce moment-là une tâche langagière. Supposé que, sur le palier je tombe sur le gardien de l'immeuble et que je discute avec lui, c'est une autre tâche langagière. La tâche peut impliquer un seul individu (écrire une carte postale à une amie française) ou plusieurs individus (faire une partie de dominos). Elle peut mener à un produit palpable (créer un blog en français) ou sur un simple dialogue verbal (échanger des points de vue sur un projet de loi du gouvernement ; faire une projection de diapositives sur un endroit qu'on a visité récemment).

Nous nous reporterons plus rigoureusement sur ce concept mais présentement on peut voir que la tâche n'est ni un exercice ni une activité quelconque de la classe et qu'elle ne se réduit pas à un projet (même si un projet prend souvent la forme d'une tâche).

Cet aspect présente plusieurs intérêts. Premièrement, d'un point de vue philosophique elle nous fait évoluer de l'homme communiquant à l'homme agissant. La communication ne représente qu'un aspect de l'action même si c'est le plus important. Les savoirs, les savoir être et les savoir apprendre doivent compter parmi l'arsenal de l'utilisateur acteur social.

Si je désire être promptement servie dans un café en France, l'essentiel ne sera peut-être pas de savoir six façons différentes de formuler une demande mais de savoir comment attirer l'attention du serveur par un sourire, un mot gentil ou une blague de façon à ce qu'il fasse preuve d'un peu de zèle. En d'autres termes, l'interdépendance entre l'utilisateur et son environnement est envisagée en termes de tâches à accomplir.

Les actes de parole, et par conséquent le vocabulaire et la grammaire qui permettent de les réaliser sont des auxiliaires rapportés à la tâche. Ils n'ont de signification que parce qu'ils se situent dans des actions en contexte. Cela introduit une nouvelle vision relativement à la méthodologie et plus particulièrement à la progression. Pendant une longue période de temps les progressions ont été assimilées en termes d'actes de parole ce qui mettait en évidence un désavantage : une fois l'acte de parole introduit (par exemple les salutations dès la première leçon), on avait tendance à considérer que le problème était réglé et l'acte ne réapparaissait plus dans la progression (tandis que le contrôle des salutations aurait mérité une réapparition programmée de cet objectif). Il y avait une absurdité de proposer un inventaire d'expressions structurées autour d'un acte de parole alors que la leçon ne présentait en général qu'une ou deux situations d'emploi.

Avec une succession élaborée en termes de tâches, les actes de parole vont être repris inévitablement à plusieurs reprises tout au long de la progression. En définitive cette stratégie vaut à la fois pour l'utilisateur de la langue et pour l'apprenant. L'apprenant représente clairement un utilisateur qui exécute des tâches dans le contexte situationnel de la classe. Par ailleurs, la classe n'est pas seulement le milieu où l'on s'apprête à affronter des situations ultérieures, où l'on apprend ce qu'on mettra à profit plus tard, c'est aussi un espace social où la langue s'utilise dans ses fonctions naturelles (partager des connaissances, exprimer des opinions, mener à bien des projets) et s'apprend grâce à cet emploi.

3. Les effets de la perspective actionnelle dans l'enseignement/l'apprentissage du FLE

Quels sont les impacts concrets de cette représentation de l'apprentissage sur la méthode que nous avons élaborée ? Nous en développerons trois :

a) L'apprentissage de la langue sera une continuelle accommodation à des contextes situationnels eux-mêmes dépendants des domaines qui intéressent les étudiants.

b) L'étudiant sera un personnage social dans la classe.

c) La classe sera un univers social dans lequel il pourra accomplir naturellement de nombreuses tâches et simuler celles qu'il devra mener à bien quand il sera dans un pays francophone.

Pour l'apprentissage des compétences l'étudiant va être acteur de sa propre instruction en collaborant avec le groupe classe. La méthode de l'avancement par unité d'adaptation à des contextes situationnels organise l'apprentissage selon une alternance de contextes situationnels auxquels l'apprenant devra s'habituer. Ce sont ces contextes qui sont à l'origine des tâches dont l'étudiant devra s'acquitter.

Une unité de la méthode Écho est conforme à chaque contexte et cette unité représente environ 30 à 40 heures d'enseignement. Effectivement le premier contexte d'adaptation est celui de la classe de langue et la première unité de la méthode est nommée : apprendre ensemble. Dans cette unité on habitue l'étudiant à être, dans la classe, un acteur social qui doit accomplir des tâches et vivre sans réserve en français la situation d'apprentissage en classe. Il ne s'agit pas uniquement de se présenter et de discuter de ses loisirs préférés ou de ses talents mais aussi de s'assumer son apprentissage, de se justifier quand on arrive en retard, de communiquer qu'on manquera à l'appel la semaine suivante, de nouer des liens sociaux avec les autres (inviter son voisin au restaurant, lui raconter ce qu'on a fait la veille, etc.).

À la fin de l'unité on doit être à même d'« étudier ensemble ». La classe doit avoir évolué vers une micro société, une micro entreprise d'apprentissage. On sera alors en mesure de passer à l'unité suivante « Survivre en français » qui se fixe pour objectif d'entraîner l'étudiant à survivre en français à l'occasion d'un court séjour dans un pays francophone c'est-à-dire à voyager, à louer un logement, à se conduire, à se procurer de la nourriture et à résoudre les moindres problèmes de la vie quotidienne. On se rend compte en conséquence que dans une unité, en d'autres termes, dans une situation donnée, les rôles sont structurés de deux façons : intégrative et narrative.

La manière intégrative suppose tout ce qu'on doit savoir mettre à exécution dans une situation donnée. Par exemple pour être inclus dans un milieu professionnel on devra s'habituer à rechercher un emploi, gérer les relations avec les collègues, la hiérarchie, les syndicats et le public, parler d'un produit, analyser et évaluer un projet de développement économique.

La manière narrative se présente sous forme de scénarios d'actions. Pour chercher un emploi on doit examiner des offres d'emplois, envoyer des CV et des lettres de motivation, participer à des entretiens, etc. Cette progression parcourt effectivement les niveaux du *Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues*.

La méthode Écho englobe quatre niveaux. Trois unités sont réparties au niveau A1, trois au niveau A2. S'il s'avère que la progression est ensuite exponentielle et que le niveau B1 correspond au Niveau Seuil, six unités seront destinées pour aboutir à B1 (en deux étapes B1 (1) et B1 (2)). Ensuite quatre unités sont attribuées pour le niveau B2.

La résolution d'attribuer 30 à 40 heures à chaque unité tient du choix personnel des concepteurs. Nous avons estimé que c'était la durée au-delà de laquelle les étudiants ont la prédisposition à se sentir fatigués et ont besoin d'être remotivés. Cette organisation met en évidence plusieurs avantages : à chaque unité on délimite un objectif facilement compréhensible par l'étudiant. Il sait où il va, il pourra s'évaluer, c'est bénéfique. L'unité ne représente pas une phase passagère sur la route vers une compétence magistrale, c'est une multitude de tâches qui apprêtent l'étudiant à être accoutumé à un contexte social et situationnel déterminé.

Au commencement de chaque unité on s'élance à la découverte d'un territoire dans lequel on sera entièrement acteur et on saura se débrouiller. L'intérêt sera ainsi relancé à chaque unité. Les pages d'ouverture des unités peuvent être envisagées comme des contrats de travail négociables. Si, par exemple, les étudiants ne se proposent pas de se servir du français à des fins professionnelles l'unité : *S'intégrer dans un milieu professionnel*, qui appartient au niveau B1(2), pourra être abrégée. Elle pourra être renforcée dans le cas contraire. On découvre des situations contextuelles similaires « en écho » qui permettent d'enrichir les savoir-faire. Par exemple, l'unité *Établir des contacts* (niveau A1) est enrichie par *Entretenir des relations* (niveau A2), puis par *S'affirmer au quotidien* (niveau B1).

La succession dans la méthode Écho est édifiée sur les principes suivants : les référentiels qui précisent les contenus linguistiques et communicatifs pour chaque niveau de compétence ont été exploités comme des outils non contraignants, de la même façon que nous nous servions auparavant du Niveau Seuil qui précisait les compétences demandées pour le niveau 3 des anciennes méthodes (et qui coïncide aujourd'hui avec le niveau B1).

Par exemple, le descripteur du niveau A1 (5) recommande l'introduction du passé composé pour des emplois isolés et sporadiques, en particulier pour ses valeurs d'accompli avec le verbe *être* (Il *est* sorti). Pourtant, si nous souhaitons que, dès le commencement de l'apprentissage, nos étudiants soient capables d'échanger des informations en se posant des questions aussi simples que : « Qu'est-ce que tu as fait hier soir ? » il est adéquat d'enseigner davantage l'utilisation du passé composé avec quelques verbes utiles (Je suis allé(e), j'ai su, j'ai pensé, etc.). Cela ne concerne pas bien sûr une extension à toutes les personnes et à tous les verbes connus.

Nous devons prendre en compte l'inégalité d'accès aux compétences de la part des étudiants. Nous savons qu'il est plus simple de comprendre un texte à l'écrit qu'en l'écoutant. Nous proposerons par conséquent des textes plus difficiles à l'écrit qu'à l'oral.

Nous avons tenu compte également du fait que la majorité de nos étudiants connaissent déjà une langue qui présente des similitudes avec le français soit par leur langue maternelle, soit parce qu'ils ont déjà appris l'anglais. Nous pourrons de cette manière jeter des passerelles entre les langues connues ou en train d'être apprises et former une compétence plurilingue. C'est la finalité du *Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues* (CECR).

Les signifiés linguistiques sont présentés par des introductions successives, de manière non linéaire et non exclusive. Par exemple, dès la première leçon d'A1, nous introduisons la demande de permission sous sa forme la plus simple : *Je peux* ? Nous la retrouverons à la troisième leçon *Je peux venir avec toi ?*, ensuite à la cinquième leçon *On ne peut pas aller à Arcachon*.

La majorité des actes de parole sont présentés à partir de la première unité. Néanmoins, bien sûr, ils seront matérialisés à l'aide de moyens linguistiques très limités et adaptés à la capacité de mémorisation d'un étudiant débutant. La méthode avance en conséquence, non pas par une addition ou une capitalisation de savoir-faire mais par accommodations successives. Dès le commencement, on sait faire un peu de tout. Ensuite, graduellement, on se perfectionne, on y voit plus clair, on se débrouille mieux.

4. Conclusions

Dans le passé, avec les méthodes audio-visuelles, ensuite avec l'introduction des documents authentiques, l'objectif était de transposer le pays francophone dans la classe de langue, de faire de la classe de langue un espace francophone fictif dans lequel l'étudiant pouvait jouer son futur rôle de locuteur. Le concept d'apprenant utilisateur acteur social, nous anime à transformer la classe dans un espace réel et naturel de communication en français.

La méthode Écho repose sur une interprétation possible de la perspective actionnelle et des préconisations du *Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues* (CECR). Mais il y a aujourd'hui d'autres méthodes très différentes qui peuvent avoir pour origine le *Cadre européen*. L'objectif du *Cadre* est en premier lieu la réussite des tâches. La langue ne représente qu'un mécanisme, sa richesse, sa correction ne sont primordiales que si elles déterminent cette réussite. Au lieu d'être hyper correctif, il est préférable d'apprendre aux étudiants à exécuter un maximum de tâches avec les moyens qui sont à leur disposition.

Sur le plan méthodologique, le *Cadre* ne rejette pas l'éclectisme. Si une technique est efficiente pour faire assimiler telle compétence, il n'y a aucun motif de la rejeter sous prétexte qu'elle n'est pas en cohérence avec la théorie qui sous-tend les autres démarches mises en œuvre. Cette technique ne peut être validée que par l'apprenant acteur social, responsable et pleinement conscient de son apprentissage, en collaboration avec l'enseignant.

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The Education that Everyone Receives from their Family and from Schools May Reduce Violence among the Young Generation

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ABSTRACT

Violence among teenagers has become a real phenomenon. Violence can have different causes and it is used in educational institutions as well as in public places. Humanity, solidarity and education can defeat and even prevent possible acts of violence. Maybe the most publicized case of violence from Romania is a recent one and it took place at the beginning of April 2018. This cruel case of violence started when two teenagers brutally abused and beat up an old man. The reason for this atrocity was an insignificant one. The rebellion triggered by the cruelty of this case led to debates in all Romanian social media. Many Romanian people – no matter their occupation – decided to help and to protect the victim. The impact of this violence has made Romanians aware of the terrible effects that violence can have. Doctors, psychologists and professors have reinforced the importance of education, solidarity and human compassion for the victims of violence.

KEYWORDS: *violence, solidarity, human compassion, education*

A quiet Friday night, at the beginning of April 2018, in the centre of Brasov, was disturbed by a violent incident. In a subway passage some terrible images have been caught by surveillance cameras. Two young people – one of them 18 years old and the other 23 years old – started hitting without mercy an old man aged 67. The reason for this aggression was, according to the victim – some money problems. The old man worked for one of the aggressors and when he asked for his money the young man refused to pay him – instead he used physical violence. The victim was pushed on the stairs and he was hit until he fell on the ground. Nevertheless, he was lucky, ironically speaking, because a security agent saw the incident and called 112. The agent also called some of his colleagues to come and help him catch the aggressors. Finally, the two young aggressors were caught and handed out to the police. The security agent who saved the old man was congratulated; the company where he worked appreciated his civic spirit and courage.

This violent episode proved that not only kids are victims of verbal and physical abuses but also elder people. It came as a surprise that in this case the two aggressors are part of the young generation – the generation that is surrounded by technology and is regarded as being open-minded, creative and sensitive. Nevertheless, the two young aggressors choose to show off their power and supremacy by using physical violence. The public's reaction was an extremely rapid one. Hundreds of people offered to help the old man. Moreover, an attorney took his case and he want to ask the prosecutors to give a penal punishment for this brutal case of violence. The same exemplary mobilization took place on online social networks – a doctor started a campaign to support victims of violence. In this campaign, the financial donations of Romanians were impressive – around 90.000 lei. During this violent episode, the old man had his teeth destroyed and a dentist offered to fix them voluntarily. Although some skeptic people may say that this gesture was made only for obtaining publicity, the dentist did not want his name to be made public. The victim was also offered a place to stay and this natural reaction impressed and marked Romania's population. Everyone was shocked because the old man had a sad life story. He did not have identity papers; he was separated from his wife and he had a disabled child of whom he had to take care of. In fact, he used to work in order to support his child.

Finally, the doctor who took care of the victim moved him into a retirement home where he feels protected and safe. The same doctor wants to build him a house using the money that the victim received from donations. This house will shelter similar victims of physical abuse.

This exemplary mobilization of Romanians proved that violence can be defeated if everyone is involved in this process. The involvement should be a personal one and it should be supported by all public institutions like: schools, universities and police.

Violence is not a hopeless story

A general definition for the word *violence* has to comprise all its aspects. One of the many definitions for his terrible and disturbing act is: "Violence or violent behaviour is aggressive behaviour where the actor or perpetrator uses his or her own body or an object (including a weapon) to inflict (relatively serious) injury or discomfort upon another individual"[1]. There is not one thing in particular that causes violence. Violence is a feeling caused by a memory, stereotype or a frustration that is transformed in gestures or words in time. Some psychologists trace violence back in everyone's childhood when we all had the tendency to copy and imitate gesture and vocabulary. Others say that violence is a result of our social environment and that it is up to each of us to educate our character. The social environment means – at least until a certain age – activities like going to the kindergarten, then to school and the final step to complete ourselves as mature people is to get admitted to a faculty. Therefore, education plays an important role in shaping our character: "education is a means by which social and cultural values are transmitted from generation to generation and, depending the values concerned, these may convey negative stereotypes or encourage attitudes that explicitly or implicitly condone violence or generate conflict"[2].

[1] Fiona Leach and Máiréad Dunne, *Education, Conflict and Reconciliation*, *International Perspectives*, p.170, Peter Lang AG, International Academic Publishers, Bern, 2007.

[2] *Idem* 1, p. 22.

All our educational steps have to be guided by dedicated and specialized teachers who should have a constant contact with the parent/ parents/ tutors of each student. Yes, it is true that even faculty students must be monitored by their parents even if the majority of them are above 18 years old. In Romania, the parent's interest for the education of his child decreases once he is accepted to a certain faculty. Probably, many parents consider that they have attained their goal – finished their mission regarding the child's education. Despite all of these, reality surprises us in many unpleasant ways – let's remember that one of the aggressors from Brasov was only 18 years old.

During the last quarter of the twentieth century there have been several approaches that were meant to prevent violence – an act that produces millions of victims annually. "Results of the most effective models for violence-prevention programs utilize social skills training. Social skills training programs generally utilize structured and interactive curricula (e.g. role playing) and are usually classroom based. In addition to social skills training, these programs focus on parent training, family interaction and family dynamics."[3]

In conclusion educational institutions and families should be in a permanent connection in order to guide our young generation on the right path. Violence should not be the answer, no matter how the possible aggressor feels. Cases like the one from Brasov should not happen again.

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Rôle de la terminologie dans l'actualité (état des lieux : République de Moldavie)

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ABSTRACT: Role of Terminology Today (the Current Situation: Republic of Modova)

The article studies the role of terminology within actuality, in general, and its situation in the Republic of Moldova, in particular. The author's objective was to have an insight on the Moldavian social and political environment in order to ease, eventually, the elaboration of an adequate linguistic policy within the field of terminology.

KEYWORDS: *normalization, socioterminology, linguistic arrangement, status/corpus planning*

L'histoire nous apprend que la terminologie moderne telle qu'elle apparaît avec Eugen Wüster, naît d'une demande sociale réelle et correspond à des besoins économiques concrets. En effet, dans les années trente du XX^{e} siècle les progrès accélérés que connaissent les différentes techniques et l'évolution rapide de la technologie nécessitent non seulement que l'on dénomme de nouveaux concepts, mais surtout qu'on procède à leur harmonisation. Les fondements de la terminologie se situent alors, comme Gaudin l'affirme, dans le processus de la normalisation de la langue : *« La terminologie est avant tout la fille de la normalisation industrielle et de la traduction technique. »* [1]

Il s'en suit donc qu'on devrait envisager la terminologie comme un outil de travail devant servir de moyen efficace à éliminer les ambiguïtés de la communication scientifique et technique.

Dans cet esprit, la terminologie peut être conçue comme veillant à la rectitude des dénominations. Cependant, on serait tenté plutôt, dans les conditions actuelles, par une terminologie qui se fonde sur une observation plus large du fonctionnement du langage, une terminologie qui ne se limite pas à travailler sur des termes-étiquettes, mais qui soit fondée sur la circulation des notions et des termes et leurs transformations incessantes, une terminologie préoccupée également par les problèmes que soulèvent la vulgarisation et, plus largement, le transfert de connaissances. Il y serait question donc d'une socioterminologie.

La terminologie apparaît donc actuellement comme « une discipline qui permet de repérer systématiquement, d'analyser et, au besoin, de créer et normaliser le vocabulaire pour une technique donnée, dans une situation concrète de fonctionnement de façon à répondre aux besoins d'expression de l'usager [2]. C'est une définition globale, qui sans écarter la dimension théorique, met davantage l'accent sur son aspect pratique.

Il nous paraît nécessaire de rappeler que la complexité de l'époque que nous vivons, n'est pas sans laisser des traces sur la terminologie en tant que science, dont nous retenons, en particulier, l'aspect culturel sans pour autant réduire l'importance d'autres aspects comme le cognitif ou le communicatif. En effet, le changement culturel substantiel qui marque ce début de siècle s'illustre par la place prépondérante qu'occupent la technologie et l'information. Par conséquent, la langue et les formes de communication interpersonnelle ont directement été touchées par ces deux éléments.

Le statut des langues subit une métamorphose paradoxale : d'un côté l'unilinguism*e* s'avère nécessaire pour une communication directe et efficace et, d'un autre côté, l'usage des langues nationales est encouragé comme instruments naturels de communication générale aussi bien que spécialisée. J.-C. Corbeil explique cette mutation : *« La question de la langue n'est pas un problème strictement linguistique, mais surtout un problème économique et politique ; le statut de la langue explique sa qualité. »* [3].

Ainsi, l'on découvre que les facteurs extralinguistiques déterminent la force ou la faiblesse des langues. Une langue sous domination politique et culturelle en rupture avec les sources de sa culture, ne saurait avoir le souci de sa qualité. Toute révolution linguistique doit commencer par la consolidation du statut national de la langue. Cette idée a bouleversé l'ordre des choses qui régnait jusqu'à très récemment. Ainsi, la concentration des langues dominantes cède la place à la revendication de l'identité culturelle et linguistique des langues non dominantes. Tel est le cas, par exemple, des pays de l'ex Union Soviétique qui se mettent à défendre leurs langues face au colonialisme culturel et linguistique de la Russie. Dans ce nouveau contexte, des projets d'aménagements linguistiques sont mis en place par les gouvernements et largement assumés par les sociétés. Ceux-ci sont destinés à affirmer le respect de l'identité culturelle, en renforçant en même temps les relations internationales. Car, comme Cabré le dit, *« un processus de normalisation linguistique doit respecter les idiosyncrasies culturelles et formelles de chaque langue, tout en permettant que la société s'intègre à de plus grands groupes, de façon à éviter un enfermement stérile. »* [4].

La concentration quasi absolue de la création technico-scientifique dans les économies dominantes produit un transfert de connaissances et de produits nouveaux, qui favorisent largement les éléments d'emprunt. Pour faire face à cette situation, la mise en place d'une politique linguistique s'avère nécessaire. Et l'un des terrains de première importance pour la normalisation de la langue est celui des langues spécialisées avec, au centre, celui de la terminologie. Les États et les gouvernements sont tenus alors d'intervenir en matière linguistique par la création d'organismes officiels pour promouvoir une politique de normalisation de la langue. Il s'ensuit qu'une politique linguistique raisonnablement élaborée peut agir sur les conditions de l'emploi d'une langue, ce qu'on appelle la planification de statut, mais aussi sur la langue même, ce que suppose la planification de corpus [5].

La terminologie devient donc une composante importante de tout programme d'aménagement linguistique, comme le démontrent nettement les expériences québécoise et française qui fondent sur la terminologie leur résistance à l'envahissement de l'anglais.

La capacité terminologique de l'anglais lui suffit à légitimer son emploi au détriment du français ou d'une autre langue européenne, en occultant par cela le fait que toute langue est capable d'actualiser ses terminologies. La dominance de l'anglais n'a rien à voir avec des qualités intrinsèques, mais s'explique par la domination économique et politique des États-Unis faisant suite à celle de la Grande-Bretagne, et par leur main mise sur la production d'écrits scientifiques et techniques. Les termes de langue anglaise ont ainsi toujours l'avantage de l'antériorité ; ils préexistent à ceux des autres langues, qui sont façonnés à leur image. De ce point de vue, nous dirons que la terminologie est partie prenante de la concurrence entre les langues.

La terminologie doit également tendre à rapprocher la technologie des personnes, contribuant ainsi à améliorer leur qualité de vie et les relations interpersonnelles et intergroupes, dont l'étendue et la complexité ne cessent de s'accroître. [6]. Ainsi, nous avons montré comment, à la suite d'un changement culturel entraîné par les technologies et l'information, la terminologie devient à l'heure actuelle partie prenante de la politique des pays, intéressés par l'affirmation de leurs identités culturelle et linguistique (situation typique pour les pays de l'Est), ainsi que pour préserver la langue nationale d'un envahissement de termes de provenance étrangère (situation des langues européennes face à l'anglais). Nous voyons donc la terminologie au confluent de plusieurs préoccupations conditionnées notamment par le changement de culture que nous venons d'évoquer. Elle voudrait :

- soutenir l'usage de la langue maternelle et œuvrer à son développement ;
- s'engager dans un débat politique ;
- participer à l'actualisation des langues ;
- vulgariser les technologies modernes.

Dans ce contexte on doit rappeler que Gambier attribue à la terminologie actuelle trois fonctions de base :

> - sociohistorique : ce sont les aspects politiques, institutionnels, économiques et financiers, traités par des planificateurs, des spécialistes langagiers ;
>
> - langagière qui intéresse les linguistes, les enseignants. Ce sont les moyens de créer des néologismes, la mise en place de méthodes pour coller à la fonction précédente l'interrogation sur les éléments constitutifs des termes ;
>
> - cognitive : c'est la nature organisatrice, classificatrice des terminologies par rapport à la réalité à comprendre (sciences), à maîtriser (techniques), à régler (droit)… [7].

La terminologie est un élément de première nécessité dans la modernité d'une langue. On sait qu'une pratique consciente de la terminologie permet à la langue nationale de conserver et de conforter son statut de langue technique et scientifique. Mais la pratique de la terminologie concerne autant les aménageurs linguistiques que les usagers. Ainsi, pour les aménageurs linguistiques, la terminologie serait un secteur de la langue dans lequel on doit intervenir pour réaffirmer son existence, son utilité et sa survivance et pour lui garantir, au moyen de sa modernisation, la continuité en tant que moyen d'expression. En revanche, pour les usagers, la terminologie est un *« ensemble de services de communication, utiles et pratiques, dont la valeur est fonction de critères d'économie, de précision et d'adéquation »* [8]. Il s'ensuit que la langue doit, afin de combler les uns et les autres, disposer d'une terminologie à jour et cohérente qui assure la communication professionnelle dans tous les domaines, y compris les domaines de pointe qui dépendent d'autres pays. L'un des objectifs fondamentaux de l'activité terminologique serait alors de favoriser la création néologique et d'éviter d'avoir recours aux emprunts. Mais il est vrai que les modalités du travail terminologique varient d'un pays à un autre en fonction d'un grand nombre de facteurs : situation politique, socio-économique, linguistique.

> À un milieu donné correspond une manière particulière de faire de la terminologie […] en raison de l'arrière-plan politico-linguistique, des institutions à vocation aménagementale, des programmes de formation universitaire structurée différemment, des cultures à colorations variées, des territoires différents, etc. [9]

Quel est le contexte social de l'émergence de la terminologie en République de Moldova ? Elle a d'abord surgi, spontanément, pourrait-on dire, chez les traducteurs dans un environnement où le russe était la langue de l'administration et la langue officielle des communications institutionnalisées et publiques. En 1991, suite à l'éclatement de l'Union Soviétique, la Moldova, une des quinze républiques, acquiert son indépendance politique. Le roumain, langue nationale du pays, est revendiqué au lendemain de l'indépendance comme moyen de reconquête de l'identité nationale, occultée et dévalorisée par la domination de la Russie. Le souci de réappropriation de la langue est une sorte de défi à relever même dans des conditions assez difficiles. En effet, deux types de problèmes sont à dépasser afin que le projet réussisse :

1. La crise interne du roumain parlé en Moldavie consécutive à l'essor des sciences et des techniques.

L'histoire nous a montré que des politiques colonialistes ainsi que des déséquilibres sociaux et économiques ont fait que certaines langues ont évolué naturellement et parallèlement à leur développement technologique et commercial. D'autres, en revanche, sont demeurées dans l'ombre des langues dominantes. Or, une langue qui ne peut satisfaire tous les besoins de la communication est naturellement condamnée à disparaître.

La marginalisation volontaire du roumain parlé en Moldavie au gré des autorités, a entraîné une capacité partielle de celui-ci d'exprimer les sciences et la technologie.

On a interdit d'adapter cette langue aux exigences de la vie moderne et on a tout fait pour empêcher sa modernisation lexicale, fait qui serait une profanation.

2. Déséquilibre causé par de grandes carences dans l'enseignement : manque de moyens, de matériels didactiques, de cadres formés pour enseigner des disciplines en roumain.

Compte tenu de ce qui précède, il est évident que la situation pourrait être redressée en faisant évoluer la langue, en l'enrichissant et en l'adaptant à la vie moderne, pour en faire un véritable moyen de travail et de réflexion. Mais pour enrichir une langue et créer des termes, un autre impératif se dégage : ne pas renoncer aux langues étrangères ; il faut être au moins bilingue. Pour acclimater les notions étrangères en roumain, il faut les assimiler en langue d'origine.

On oppose donc la langue de l'identité à la langue de l'altérité : en maîtrisant notre langue dont la primauté est indiscutable, nous nous ouvrons sur les autres ou bien nous faisons appel à d'autres langues nous favorisant la communication avec l'extérieur, c'est-à-dire avec les sciences et les technologies modernes.

Quels seraient, dans ce contexte, les enjeux de la politique linguistique moldave ?

L'objectif de promouvoir l'usage de notre propre langue, joint à la nécessité de notre pays d'échanger des connaissances et de la technologie avec les pays plus développés, explique que la politique linguistique que nous avons adoptée à l'aube de notre indépendance ait une double référence : l'une orientée vers la normalisation de l'utilisation dans le pays d'une seule langue, à savoir le roumain, et l'autre orientée vers la normalisation des emprunts qui y pénètrent dans le sens de la fixation de leurs formes afin de garantir la qualité des communications professionnelles.

Cette politique linguistique essaie désespérément de se définir lorsqu'il y a toujours des tentatives à proclamer le russe en tant que seconde langue officielle dans le pays moldave en vertu d'une fausse croyance que le bilinguisme proclamé pourrait maintenir la paix sociale. Or, le bilinguisme en Moldavie, tout le monde le sait, est fatal pour le destin du roumain, car il signifierait pour de vrai un unilinguisme, et notamment celui du russe. Ceci non pas parce que la langue roumaine serait incapable d'exprimer les différentes réalités que la modernité recouvre, mais tout simplement parce qu'elle n'est pas la langue des riches.

Très pertinente nous paraît ici la réflexion de Hagège concernant les facteurs de dégénérescence d'une langue :

> En effet, les langues que l'on voit disparaître ne sont en aucune façon des organismes mal adaptés aux besoins de ceux qui s'en servent, ou dont le lexique ou la grammaire se soient appauvris au point qu'elles cessent quasiment d'être utilisables. Les vraies causes sont ailleurs. Dans les zones accessibles où se parlent encore des langues de minorités qui ne parviennent plus à préserver leur identité, le foisonnement des contacts a pour effet l'irrésistible diffusion de langues qui portent avec elles l'argent, les techniques, l'idéologie : l'anglais américain à l'échelle du monde et, à l'échelle du plus vaste des Etats, le russe en Union Soviétique. Impuissantes à se défendre, les

> langues ethniques minoritaires, qui ne sont pas celles dans lesquelles se parlent ces trois « valeurs », disparaissent les unes après les autres. » [10]

Le résultat dépend évidemment des capacités de défense. Mais on se demande dans ce contexte si un peuple politiquement dominé, économiquement asservi, en rupture avec les sources de sa culture, en désarroi quant au sens même de son destin, peut être sensible à la qualité de sa langue ? La nécessité d'une intervention étatique dans le domaine linguistique apparaît manifeste. Or, le fait que l'État moldave n'ait pas encore renoncé à l'idée de bilinguisme, remet sérieusement en cause le statut du roumain, langue officielle du pays. On conclut donc que cet aspect de la politique linguistique, à savoir le statut de la langue, n'est pas encore défini.

Où en est-on quant à la normalisation des terminologies ?

L'expérience des autres pays nous a appris que le statut d'une langue en danger peut s'améliorer par l'intervention systématique et stratégique des organismes mandatés à cette fin, une législation adéquate et des mesures destinées à promouvoir le changement. Or, l'État moldave ne s'en charge point. Faute de moyens et de volonté politique.

L'existence du Centre National de Terminologie témoigne de la bonne volonté des organisations non-gouvernementales de mettre la main à la pâte. Leur contribution réside en la réalisation de produits terminographiques, à savoir l'édition de plusieurs dictionnaires spécialisés. Mais, c'est un fait généralement reconnu qu'on ne lit pas les dictionnaires et qu'en conséquence il ne suffit pas de distribuer des lexiques pour amorcer aussitôt une modification des habitudes langagières des individus.

L'aménagement terminologique doit s'inscrire dans le cadre d'une planification linguistique générale. Sa tactique diffère d'un pays à l'autre :

> Les pays dont les langues ne sont pas dominantes et qui sont dépendants sur le plan technologique, exercent une activité terminologique qui repose sur la néologie. Au contraire, les pays producteurs de science et de technologie dans leur propre langue exercent une activité terminologique de compilation et d'harmonisation. [11]

Comment pourrait-on organiser l'activité terminologique en Moldova étant donnée la non-intervention étatique ? Il ne faut pas oublier non plus que la terminologie n'est pas enseignée dans le pays ; les écoles de traduction n'existent pas. La terminologie n'intervient que ponctuellement lors de l'enseignement des langues étrangères spécialisées où il est indispensable de faire la part belle aux vocabulaires spécialisés.

Il y a d'abord ce qu'on pourrait appeler le rattrapage lexical, à savoir l'appropriation par les Moldaves de terminologies roumaines déjà existantes mais inconnues ici étant donné que la communication générale et spécialisée se faisaient naguère principalement en russe.

Le second aspect, c'est la modernisation lexicale proprement dite qui se définit par rapport à la traduction.

Dans des circonstances plutôt hostiles à une planification linguistique au niveau de l'État, on se demande si l'unique solution pour sortir de cette impasse ne serait pas de réserver une place plus honorable à la terminologie dans l'enseignement. En effet, enseigner aux futurs techniciens ou scientifiques la terminologie de leurs disciplines (même non-normalisée) dans le cadre de leurs études universitaires ou professionnelles est une des meilleures garanties de changement des habitudes linguistiques. Former les futurs spécialistes à la terminologie et à la néologie, leur apprendre à réagir devant un vide terminologique avec les ressources de leur propre langue contribue davantage au renforcement de la vitalité de la langue maternelle avec une stratégie plus adéquate que celle qui consiste à remplacer les emprunts déjà en usage.

Nous venons donc de décrire sommairement la situation terminologique en Moldavie pour affirmer notre intérêt pour l'aménagement linguistique en général et pour l'aménagement terminologique en particulier. Il s'agit bien de langue comme identité culturelle et non pas la langue « en elle-même et pour elle-même ». La terminologie en Moldavie est une matière où se produit au quotidien un conflit politique, qui préoccupe légitimement plus que la grammaire des unités terminologiques ou tout autre aspect de la terminologie. Évidemment, dans ces circonstances on devrait se rapporter à l'expérience des autres pays chevronnés dans le domaine. En effet, pourquoi ne pas envisager l'engagement de la France qui est plutôt une action étatique ou celui du Québec où il y a plus de négociation dénominative ? Seulement il faut éviter, comme nous l'apprend Gambier,

> le dirigisme forcené qui ne pourrait qu'imposer ou bannir, au risque de faire des terminologies ni acceptées ni utilisées, ou le laisser-faire débridé, au risque d'accélérer la prolifération incohérente des termes, en croyant que cette multiplication s'auto-règlera d'elle-même. [12]

L'ampleur et la complexité de la problématique de l'aménagement linguistique nous obligent à garder à l'esprit l'idée que chaque langue imposerait ses grilles aux objets du monde, en sorte que tout passage dans une autre ne serait, au mieux, qu'une équivalence : ce qui est central dans la langue-source peut être marginal dans la langue-cible ; des procédés parfaitement naturels dans la source ne seraient que partiellement exploitables dans la langue-cible, etc.

L'étude des problèmes de l'aménagement terminologique ainsi conçue nous permettrait la mise en œuvre d'une politique aménagementale face à la terminologie roumaine. Dans une optique plus large, nous dirons que l'avenir du roumain est lié à notre capacité d'innover dans les terminologies, en lui garantissant de ce fait le statut de langue scientifico-technique.

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Sport Technology –
the perspective of three normative theories and their Implications

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines various kinds of sport technology from the perspective of three normative theories of competitive sport. Sport technnology represents a certain type of means to realize human interests and goals in sport. Such technology ranges from body techniques, via traditional sport equipment used by athletes within competition, to performance-enhancing machines, substances, and methods used outside of the competitive setting. The paper discusses three ideal-typical theories, such as in technological terms, the non-theory is relativistic; it accepts any kind of sport technology as long as it serves as a means to reach external goals. The thin theory builds on a particular sport ideal: CITIUS, ALTIUS, FORTIUS and a third theory called the thick theory said that sport should be an arena for moral values and for human self-development and flourishing.

KEYWORDS: *tehnology, sport, theory, competition*

Technology serves many functions in sport. Technology may enhance performances, such as the new Fastskin swimsuit that is said to reduce water friction, or the new alpine carving skis that seem to help beginners master more easily the basic techniques of the sport. Other kinds of technology, such as helmets and body protection in boxing and ice hockey, are supposed top revent injuries. It is no wander, then, that sports communities regularly engage in controversies over tehnological development, implementation and use.

The concept of technology is itself somewhat ambiguous and and has been analyzed from various philosophical perspectives. Typically, technology refers to tools and equipment ranging from the simple hammer and nail to advanced computers, aircraft, and spacecraft. Technology is understood as *human-made means* to reach *human interests and goals*. This understanding seems to be the one that underlies most discussions in sport, so we can think at the conclusion that sport technologies are human made means to reach human interests and goals, but what are these goals?

As with “technology”, “sport” can be understood in a wide and a narrow sense. In the wide sense, the term refers to activities ranging from jogging and non-competitive aerobics via body building to traditional competitive sport. In the narrower and perhaps more traditional sense, "sport" refers to competitive activities in which the participants bio-motor abilities (such as endurance, speed and strength) and movement skills, determines the outcome. More specifically, what we called the structural goal of sport competitions, or the social logic of these practices, can be described as the measuring, comparison and ranking of competitors according to athletic performance as defined by the relevant rules.

Views of sport technology depend upon the interpretation of the goal it is meant to serve – that is, the goal of sport. The structural goal of competitive sport is to evaluate and rank persons according to their athletic performance. There are, however, several interpretations or theories of what athletic performance is all about, and these theories have implications for views on sport technology.

The Non-theory of Athletic Performance

The non-theory label is almost self-explanatory – there is no real interest in any kind of theorizing about sport in general or athletic performance in particular. What counts is the status of sport as a means towards external goals. Typically, external goals are personal, political and ideological prestige, and/or profit. The resoning about sport for the non-theorist is purely instrumental. External goals justify any or all means. What is of interest is to what extent the outcome of a competition serves to realize external goals to the maximum extent.

The consequences for views of sport tehnology are obvious. There is no room here for distinctions between what can be considered acceptable or unacceptable technology. Whether we are talking of improved equipment, improved training machines, or even doping and genetic technology, the dominant attitude in this position is that technologies must be ranked and pursued according to their efficiency in scoring external goals. Basically, the non-theory is a non-moral theory- it attempts no moral evaluations of the means adopted to secure winning and the external goals that go with it.

The Thin Theory of Athletic Performance

The main idea is that sport is driven by metaphors and symbols of "transcendence" and "progress". The paradigmatic case of progress is record setting. The thin theory is an expression of an elaborated logic of quantitative growth. It has philosophical roots in a tradition of technological optimism in which technology is considered as having the potential of liberating the human spirit from nature. One current representative of the tradition, Marvin Minsky, talks provocatively of the human brain as a meat-machine and suggests future generations to enhance its performance by inserting microcips and other advanced technologies. Today, views related to the thin theory can be found both among practitioners and scholars.

What are the consequences of the thin theory for views on sport technology? To be able to measure progress objectively and set records, the theory requires reliable and valid measurements, comparisons and rankings of competitors according to performance. Competitions are considered analogous to scientific experiments. Valid results in sailing, skiing and the javelin depend upon the fact that everyone is given access to identical (or at least very similar) boats, skis and javelins. What should be tested under this theory of athletic performance relate exclusively to capacities of the human organism itself, and not to technological variables nor to the resources of support system.

The basic thin theory norm for technology promotes standardization of equipment used to perform in competition. There should be few, or ideally no regulations of training and performance-enhancement outside of the competitive setting. In principle, all kinds of technological innovation that can enhance performance are acceptable. As long as competitors have equal access, innovations in performance- enhancing technologies are considered to be progressive. In fact, to the thin theorist, the same is true of out-of-competition technology: extreme diets, doping, and even genetic technology. Performance improvement is the goal that justifies all means.

The Thick Theory of Athletic Performance

The thick theory of athletic performance, by contrast stems from different initial premises. Here, sport is considered a social practice with its own characteristic norms, values and internal goods that again are linked to more general human virtues. Moreover, the thick theory represents an inherently normative project: the norms and values of sport ought to be respected, protected and cultivated. First, as indicated by the thin theory, in order to measure, compare and rank competitors according to performance in a meningful way, there is a need for equality of opportunities to perform. Every competitor ought to be given access to the same performance-enhancing means. What distinguishes the thick theory from the thin theory, however, is that performance is defined not only negatively in terms of elimination of non-relevant inequalities in competition, but positively in terms of a systematic listing of the basic elements of performance. Development of athletic performance is considered a question of progress that can be measured in qualitative terms: centimeters, kilograms or seconds.

From the thick theory perspective, sport ought to be an arena for human development and flourishing and one among many elements of the good life. How can a theory of athletic performance reflect this ideal? In principle, and although they are empirically indistinguishable, we can say that an athletic performance is built on two cornerstones. As all other human phenotypes sport performances are the complex products of interaction between genes and between genes and the environment. Genetic predispositions are the products of the genetic lottery, and here we are all different. Genetic predispositions to develop abilities and skills of relevance to sport are often referred to as sport talent. The idea of a pure talent make sense at the moment of conception only. From this moment and onwards, there is interaction with environmental influences. An athletic performance, then, is the product of genetic predispositions to develop abilities and skills relevant performance, and environmental influences from the very first interaction between a fertilized egg and the organism of the mother, via the first nurture and family upbringing and the general material, social-psychological, social and cultural influences, and to sport specific influences in terms of training and access to relevant material, financial, and human resources.

The non-theory and the thin theory eschew these distinctions. Whatever serves to realize external goals, or whatever serves the enhancement of performance, is by definition acceptable. The thick theory considers such distinctions to be of crucial importance because they facilitate an examination of those factors that promote a qualitative development according to moral ideas, and those that ought to be eliminated or compensated for. Sport talent is determined by chance in the natural lottery. Chance is not unjust in itself. However, the consequences we draw from it might be. There is a general norm of relevance here, which is expressed in various ways in various ethical theories. Basically, it holds that we should not treat people different in significant matters based on inequalities upon which they cannot influence in any significant way. The intuitive idea is that these are inequalities for which we cannot really be claimed responsible. To a certain extent, this general norm is followed in sport. We classify competitors according to biological development and age, according to sex, and in sports in which it is of significant impact on performance such as in boxing, and wrestling, according to body mass. In addition, (and just as in the natural lottery) chance and luck play significant roles in the environmental influence on athletic performance in general and in access to technology in particular. Here, elimination and compensation of non-relevant inequalities become more difficult. The history of the amateur rules within Olympic sport is a story of how such efforts can become means of socio-economic and political repression. The simplest strategy is probably to try to strive for equal access to resources such as equipment and facilities out of competition, and for equal opportunity to perform through strict standadization of equipment within competitions. Sport performances, then become, matters of our abilities to cultivate our talent through training and our efforts in competitions. This interpretation of athletic performance enables the realization of talent prescribed by the Aristotelian principle.

Conclusions

As the terminology indicates, the non-theory is no theory of sport. It is, rather a theory of the external goals towards which sport can be an efficient means, such as prestige and profit. The non-theory is a purification of the sport understanding of totalitarism regimes and of cynical commercial interests. The non-theory accepts any kind of sport technology as long as it serves the purpose of reaching the desired external goals.

The thin theory accepts all means of performance enhancement as long as there is equality of opportunity in terms of equal access to all competitors. The underlying premise in this theory is that sport is an arena for the testing out of human limits in objective terms. The view can be linked to various kinds of technological optimism that can probably be found in some high-performance sport settings in which any technological innovation is considered a good innovation.

The third, thick theory perspective implies futher regulations on the use of technology in sport. Technology that requires athlete efforts and skills, to which there is equal access, and that does not represent unnecessary risks for harm, is acceptable and in fact of fundamental constitutive function and value in sport. Expert-administrated technology that enhances performance without athlete effort, such as, for instance, so-called high-altitude chambers, is problematic and should be challenged. Expert-administrated technology that in addition unnecessary risks of harm such as doping is unacceptable ought to be banned.

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