

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

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**ANALELE  
UNIVERSITĂȚII DIN CRAIOVA**

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## **ANNALES DE L'UNIVERSITÉ DE CRAIOVA**

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# Finding oneself through education

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Eleonora Olivia BĂLĂNESCU

## Abstract

*We think of memoirs as stories of individual journeys towards knowledge and enlightenment, explorations of the self, of community, of history. By linking the self to the genre of memoir, the paper will focus on issues of identity, narrativity of life and authorial truthfulness in Tara Westover's "Educated" and Jeanette Winterson's "Why Be Happy When You Could Be Normal?". This comparative approach aims at revealing the liberating power of education and the role it plays in forging one's sense of self.*

**Keywords:** *education, fiction, home, identity, family.*

## 1. Introduction

A memoir is commonly understood as a story one tells about oneself, in the first person singular. The story becomes one's personal history, a statement that reminds of Paul Ricoeur's theory that man has a history, that he/she is his/her history: "The historical component of a narrative about oneself draws this narrative toward the side of a chronicle submitted to the same documentary verifications as any other historical narration" (1987:249), thus emphasising the issue of authenticity, or the truth expectations of the genre.

Telling the story of the self also assumes the presence of an all-knowing, unified, stable, and continuous subject, as Paul John Eakin argued in his book *Living Autobiographically*. Autobiographies emphasise "our need for a stable sense of continuous identity stretching over time" (Eakin, 2008:77). This "wholeness" can be achieved through the very process of writing one's life, as writing gives authors the possibility "to make sense of things, construct themselves, discover what they are thinking and feeling, find themselves and their lives" (Prodromou, 2015:60); in other words, it is the vehicle for self-discovery and preservation. The act of writing is also a way, or an attempt of "fixing" a shifting, changing self, of "healing" split identities, of "picking up" the pieces of fragmented identities.

The autobiographical act of writing the self with the aim of creating a unified selfhood challenges the postmodernist approach to subjectivity as splintered and fractured between "irreconcilable and contradictory language



games" (Waugh, 1989:7). Memoirs' assiduous quest for the self echoes the feminist hostility towards the new orthodoxy of fragmentation, and women writers' desire to "assert agency and subjectivity after several decades of insisting loudly on the fragmentation of identity and the death of the author" (Miller, 2002:12).

Jeanette Winterson's *Why Be Happy When You Could Be Normal?* and Tara Westover's *Educated* are two memoirs that attempt to construct a sort of foundational truth, an overarching meaning for the authors' lives. Both writers tell us their stories in an attempt to "make sense of their lives [...] in a way that gives meaning to their past and direction to their future" (Abbey, 2000:37-8). Therefore, we need to know "how we have become" and "where we are going" in order to know who we are (Taylor, 1989:47).

Winterson, a famous writer with a string of successful novels to her name, and Westover, a historian in her early 30s, juxtapose traumatic recollections of their past to create a coherent whole they can live with. The stories that unfold before the reader's eyes are the recollections of two women who were abused by families with religious fundamentalist beliefs, and constantly denied the right to education, to medical assistance, to privacy, or the right to speak. Escape comes as necessary and inevitable for both Tara and Jeanette, who feel they must break free from family tangles in order to find who they really are.

In what follows, we shall analyse the most important events in these memoirs, investigate the writers' attempts to construct the narratives of their lives, and scrutinise the difficulty of self-knowledge along with the 'new' identities that the protagonists acquire through education.

## 2. Homes as Psychic States

Memoirs typically imply journeys – the structuring metaphor in the narrative of development – towards knowledge and enlightenment, journeys which start with one's early memories of home. According to Ricoeur, memory is closely linked to place: "The places we inhabit are memorable by excellence. The declarative memory likes to evoke and narrate them, by virtue of the strong connection between them and memory." (2001:60, my translation) Along this line of thought, Winterson writes in her memoir:

Where you are born – what you are born into, the place, the history of the place, how that history mates with your own – stamps who you are, whatever the pundits of globalisation have to say. (2012:16)

Jeanette's identity is thus "stamped" by her upbringing in a two-up, two-down house in Manchester, the world's first industrial city. She was adopted by a Pentecostal working class family, sustained only by the father



who laboured as a road mender and made enough money to buy food for six days and meat twice a week. Industrialisation made escape necessary, and the girl felt that she had to get out of “a system that generates masses” (Winterson, 2012:17) at the factory gates.

Tara’s earliest memories are linked to Buck’s Peak, a mountain in southeastern Idaho, America. She was the youngest of seven in a Mormon family provided for by Gene, the father, who scrapped metal in his junk yard and built barns and hay sheds, while, Faye, the mother, contributed to the household income by working as an unlicensed midwife and selling mixed herbs as miraculous remedies.

According to Mircea Eliade, to whom Jeanette Winterson refers in her memoir, home, both ontological and geographical, represents order, “a place where the order of things come together” (2012:58). Home is not only shelter, it is “our centre of gravity”, “a compass point” (2012:59), the very “heart of the real” (2012:58). Similarly, Gaston Bachelard emphasised that home/house “constitutes a body of images that give mankind proofs or illusions of stability”; it is imagined “as a concentrated being” that “appeals to our consciousness of centrality” (1994:17).

Home was problematic for both Tara and Jeanette. In the beginning of *Eduacted*, Tara is a seven-year old child who, according to the state of Idaho and the federal government, did not exist, because she did not have a birth certificate. When mother decided to register all her children, no one in the family could remember the day when Tara had been born, a fact that seemed to delegitimize the entire notion of her having an identity. At a deeper level, this lack of identity haunted Tara, and urged her to take control of her mind and find a sense of self.

The girl did not have medical records either, because she was born at home and her father fiercely rejected hospitals and drugs as an “abomination to God” (Westover, 2018:85). His refusal greatly exacerbates the effects of two car accidents which severely affected his wife, and one of his sons, Shawn. Apart from these, the book abounds in the description of job-site horrors: legs gashed, fingers lost, bodies burnt and horribly mutilated. Consequently, Tara’s home was not a place of safety, but one of danger and emotional terror:

We had been bruised and gashed and concussed, had our legs set on fire and our heads cut open. We had lived in a state of alert, a kind of constant terror, our brain flooding with cortisol because we knew that any of those things might happen at any moment. Because dad always put faith before safety. Because he believed himself right [...] And it was us who paid.



(Westover, 2018:244)

The same state of terror runs through Winterson's early memories of home: she was beaten; she often felt cold and hungry; she was punished and locked out at night on the doorstep by a mother whose religious excesses and pervasive depression had a strong influence on the household. Winterson's debut novel, *Oranges Are Not the Only Fruit*, fictionalised the same material, but the memoir reveals that her childhood was far bleaker. "I suppose the saddest thing for me," she writes, "thinking about the cover version that is *Oranges*, is that I wrote a story I could live with. The other one was too painful. I could not survive it." (2012:6)

From the very first pages of her memoir, Jeanette confesses that her parents did not love her, hence her obsession with love that prevails in all her writings. Mother is a child's first love affair, but Mrs Winterson could not love her adopted daughter, and that was the background of Jeanette's problematic maternal bond. She grew up feeling displaced as she did not know how to belong. Adoption puts a question mark at the beginning of a child's life, it deprives the child of the first part of his/her story and drops him/her into someone's story. Winterson explains the anguish of the lack of origin: "It's like reading a book with the first few pages missing [...] The feeling that something is missing never, ever leaves you..." (2012:5)

Constantly punished and silenced, Jeanette learned early not to cry, to fight back, to break the door down when she was locked out, to do to others what had been done to her. As a result, her mother believed that the girl was demon possessed and it was the Devil that led them (the adoptive parents) to "the wrong crib" (Winterson, 2012:1). Mrs Winterosn was a religious woman who read from the Bible every night and built her daily life around a church schedule, but God in her house was not a source of happiness and forgiveness. God was Old Testament, and she was waiting for the Apocalypse, considering life a pre-death experience, a burden that had to be carried, a "Vale of Tears" (Winterson, 2012:9); hence, her perpetual unhappiness that made everyone around her unhappy.

Like Mrs Winterson, Gene, an eccentric, extremist Mormon, believed in the imminent approach of the End of Days, for which he prepared by hoarding food and ammunition so that when the End came, his family could continue on, unaffected. As he grew older, he became more radical and started an imaginary war with the Federal Government. Gene's paranoia and fundamentalism had major consequences on his family. What made them different from any other family was the fact that the children did not go to school, because father said "public school was a ploy by the Government to lead children away from God" (Westover, 2018:9). For a while, his wife took



pride in homeschooling her children, in reality there was no academic instruction at all. "Learning in our family was entirely self-directed", Tara recalls, "you could learn anything you could teach yourself, after your work was done" (Westover, 2018:56). They learned to read from the Bible and the Book of Mormon, the only books available in the house.

In Winterson's house, there were also only six books, one of them being the Bible and two, commentaries on the Bible. The scarcity of books and its consequences for both girls point to the role of narrative in identity formation in children. Tara understood that gap in her formation when she went to college and discovered that, for instance, she had never heard of "Holocaust", or that her language was oddly formal, because she had read only the Bible. By contrast, Jeanette rebelled against her mother's interdiction to keep books in the house, particularly fiction – "sedition and controversy are fired by printed matter" (Winterson, 2012:33) – and began reading books, in alphabetical order, at the public library, discovering a parallel world, in which she took refuge from the harsh reality of her home.

Books for me, are a home. Books don't make a home – they are one, in the sense that just as you do with a door, you open a book, and you go inside. Inside there is a different kind of time and a different kind of space... I sit down with a book and I am warm. I know that from the chilly nights on the doorstep.

(Winterson, 2012: 61)

When she worked and could make some money, she bought books that she carefully hid in her room, until the day her mother found them and set them on fire. Jeanette then understood that the books had gone, but what they had given her could not be destroyed, so together they had to get away.

### 3. Education: The Way Out

Aged 16, Tara and Jeanette knew that, in order to survive and construct a sense of self, they needed to leave home. They edged their way towards education that proved to be their salvation. Thus, Tara, terrorised by her father's increasing tyranny, and the sadistic physical attacks of Shawn, one of her elder brothers, started studying by herself and gained admission at Brigham Young University. Soon she was off to a fellowship at Cambridge University, then there followed another fellowship at Harvard University and she eventually returned to Cambridge to pursue her PhD in History. Despite the fact that she had never heard of Napoleon or Martin Luther King, and believed Europe was a country, her professors noticed her voracious hunger to learn: "How marvellous", her supervisor at Cambridge College



exclaimed, when he learnt that Tara had never attended school. "It's as if I've stepped into Shaw's Pygmalion." (Westover, 2018:275)

Jeanette's break with her family was triggered by her mother's discovery that she was in love with another girl. "A disaster", as Winterson recalls, which could come only from the devil. "When I am with her I am happy", the girl tried to explain, but her mother did not understand. "Why be happy when you could be normal?" (Winterson, 2012:114) Two years later, after having graduated from high school, Jeanette managed to get a place to study English at the University of Oxford.

Winterson points out that leaving home does not mean only a change of space, it implies an emotional separation with severe consequences on the self. A house is a "psychic state" (Bachelard, 1994:72) which accompanies the refugees wherever they go.

When we move house, we take with us the invisible concept of home – but it is a very powerful concept. Mental health and emotional continuity do not require us to stay in the same house or the same place, but they do require a sturdy structure on the inside – and the structure is built in part by what has happened on the outside. The inside and the outside of our lives are each the shell where we learn to live.

(Winterson, 2012:59)

The clash between the inside and the outside impacts Tara and Jeanette alike, leaving its trace on the way the two women relate to the others and to their inner selves. Thus, Tara struggled to reconcile her desire to study with her father's accusation that she had cast aside Lord's blessings "to whore after man's knowledge" (Westover, 2018:155). To be a whore was not to do something wrong, but to exist in the wrong way. Her brother Shawn frequently called her "whore", and although she silently mocked him for this, she slowly came to identify herself with it, to the extent that she believed there was something wrong with her. "I'd been wondering", Tara remembers, "how I could be a woman and yet be drawn to unwomanly things" (Westover, 2018:264).

Tara's love relationships failed because she belonged to the Buck's Peak and could not share with anyone her life over there. The tangled familial claims of love, loyalty, shame, and guilt are so deeply rooted that she felt she could never really separate from her home values: "That place has a hold on me, which I may never break" (Westover, 2018:262). This awareness increased her interior crisis of not belonging anywhere, of being suspended between two worlds. On the one hand, she was thrilled to taste the infinity opened to her by the lectures on geography, history, politics, music or art and could not imagine going back home to work in the scrap yard; on the



other hand, when she thought of her *self*, she saw the girl physically abused by a brother in the bathroom or the parking lot. The “whore” belonged to Cambridge, but the “roofer” did not. In one of her journal entries she writes:

I can go to school [...] And I can buy new clothes. But I am still Tara Westover. I have done jobs no Cambridge student would do. Dress as any way you like, we are not the same. Clothes could not fix what was wrong with me. Something had rotted on the inside.

(Westover, 2018:280)

As in the case of Pygmalion, nice dresses could not change anything, until she believed in herself.

Back home, her parents had informed all their relatives that Tara was dangerous and possessed, which meant she had lost an entire kinship. Moreover, they rejected the girl’s accusations of having been aggressed by Shawn as lies, since she was hysterical and could not be trusted. Her family started shifting the past, creating a history for her, which she could not remember. The frustration spilled over into feelings of loss, of doubt: Tara doubted her memories, her perceptions, to the extent that she began to rely on relatives to confirm the facts of her life.

At the end of the memoir, Westover, who had already spent 10 years away from home, understood that the separation from her father came not from time or distance, but from a deep change in her self. If, for a long time, her sixteen-year-old self was inside and surfaced whenever she crossed “the threshold of her father’s house”, she finally acknowledged the presence of a new self, forged by her education: “You could call this selfhood many things. Transformation. Metamorphosis. Falsity. Betrayal. I call it an education.” (Westover, 2018:377)

*Why Be Happy When You Could Be Normal?* skips a period of twenty-five years, and we encounter Jeanette, halfway through her life. She became a writer because she needed to tell *her* story in order “to avoid the narrow mesh of Mrs Winterson’s story” (Winterson, 2012:4). Her literary career is presented as a necessary escape from the home constraints, a kind of revenge against her mother who had forbidden books in the house. Coming from an unhappy family ruled by “conspiracies of silence” (Winterson, 2012:9), Jeanette needed words, although she was aware that she would not be forgiven for breaking the silence. The stories of love and loss that she had written sprung from the troubled relationship with her mother. Besides Winterson the writer, we encounter Winterson the woman, who had just split up from a girlfriend, had a nervous breakdown, attempted suicide, and stopped feeling when it became too painful to feel. It was a dark period



which brought her on the verge of committing suicide. She admits that she has violent rages, that she does not know how to love because she was not loved as a child, that she hears voices with which, in time, she has got accustomed. These are, certainly, the painful consequences of her upbringing in the home that she is carrying inside wherever she may go. Having spent much time on the doorstep, when locked out by her mother, Jeanette has got “a feeling for liminal space” (Winterson, 2012:60), she needs to be half in, half out, that is, she needs the freedom entailed by an open door. If Tara, in the end, sees the light of an emerging whole self, Jeanette offers the narrative of a lasting discrepancy that cleaves the subject:

I had been twice born already, hadn't I – my lost mother and my new mother, Mrs Winterson – that double identity, itself a kind of schizophrenia – my sense of myself as being a girl who's a boy who's a boy who's a girl. A doubleness at the heart of things.

(Winterson, 2012:168)

However, this is not a sad ending. The last line of the memoir states that Jeanette has “no idea what happens next” (Winterson, 2012:230), in other words, she leaves the door open for future opportunities. Moreover, she had just started a relationship with Susie Orbach, which offered stable ground, a fixed point to which she could return. She had also made peace with her adoptive family, in the sense that she saw her parents no longer as demons, but as catastrophically damaged. At the same time, she had tracked down her birth mother, a promise of one more source of peace, although a complicated and double-edged one.

#### 4. Narrativity of Life

Autobiographies have traditionally been conceived as referential of a life, as representations of a life as it really is. This assumption has been increasingly questioned, and a memoir is currently perceived as “a work of artifice or fabrication that involves reconstructing the self through writing the self” (Usher, 1997). Life itself becomes a narrative production, an idea that is repeatedly underlined in *Why Be Happy When You Could Be Normal?*: “Part fact part fiction is what life is. And it is always a cover story. I wrote my way out.” (Winterson, 2012:6)

Referring to the genre of autobiography, Winterson makes it clear that she wanted to get away from the idea that women could write only about “experience”, while men experimented with form. As an ambitious writer, she decided to blend the experience and the experiment in her writing, thus continuing the tradition set by Virginia Woolf’s *Orlando* and Gertrude Stein’s



*The Autobiography of Alice B. Toklas*, in which the line between fact and fiction was irremediably blurred. Winterson confesses that:

For me, fascinated with identity, and how you define yourself, those books were crucial. Reading yourself as a fiction as well as a fact is the only way to keep the narrative open – the only way to stop the story running away under its own momentum, often towards an ending no one wants.

(2012:119)

Just like her mother who had once read *Jane Eyre* to her and changed the ending to make it suitable for her daughter (Jane marries St John Rives and they go off together to work as missionaries), Jeanette is a story-teller and a revisionist of the intertexts she uses, the only difference being that she announces what she is doing, “while her mother claims to be in possession of the truth” (Cosslett, 1998:24).

The autobiographical text, like any text, requires readers who are assumed to interpret the text from the perspective of the discourses and metanarratives of their culture. The reader of *Why Be Happy When You Could Be Normal?* knows from the beginning that the memoir is not the “true” version of Winterson’s life, rather a version, and not necessarily the final one. “When we tell a story we exercise control, but in such a way as to leave a gap, an opening [...] When we write we offer the silence as much as the story.” (Winterson, 2012:8) It is therefore left to the reader to fill the gaps, to give words to the silence, to continue the story.

If the narrated life is a construct, then autobiographies raise the question of authorial truthfulness. Whereas Winterson is clear about her intention to combine truth with fiction, Westover, a historian by education, wants to narrate events as they really happened, to provide the reader with the exact information. Thus, she is careful to double-check her own memories, to revise them, to include in the narrative other people’s accounts of the events presented, either because she was not an eye-witness or she could not remember the details of what had happened. Her striving for accuracy is proved by the footnotes which comprise different accounts of the same events, such as Shawn’s fall from the pallet and Luke’s burn. There is also *A Note on the Text* which explains the footnotes and the reasons for including them.

Westover’s “obsession” with truth stems from her idea that “a historian was not human”, he/she was like her father, “more prophet than man, whose visions of the past, like those of the future, could not be questioned, or even augmented” (2018:366). For twenty-nine years, her life was narrated for her by others, and it seems that she wrote her biography because she wanted to



find her voice and make her words heard. In the end, she wanted to be the one who writes the history of her life. “*Who writes history?* I thought. *I do.*” (Westover, 2018:366)

In spite of her efforts to scratch her tired memory and tell us the “truth”, Tara confesses that, while writing her memoir, she understood that “we are all more complicated than the roles we are assigned in stories” (Westover, 2018:384), and that it is virtually impossible to capture the meaning of the people she loved in a few words. The memoir was the best she could do: “to tell that *other* story next to the one” (Westover, 2018:384) she remembered.

## 5. Conclusion

At the end of their journey of personal development, Tara and Jeanette were each supposed to find a sense of a whole, stable self, according to the “requirements” of the genre of memoir. To a certain extent, Tara is close to this desire, as education has created a parallel self with whom she begins to identify. By contrast, Jeanette does not have this aspiration; she knows from the start that she is a split individuality, scattered like the scraps of her burnt books.

The writers’ success or failure in this process of self-invention is perhaps less important. What truly matters is that both Winterson and Westover have found in books and education the liberty to take control of their own mind, the power to break free from home fears, beliefs, superstitions and all other forms of (self-)coercion, and the act of writing appears as the necessary validation of their freedom.

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# From Classical to Online School - Experiences, challenges, and acceptance

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Costina Denisa BĂRBUCEANU\*

## Abstract

*Technological literacy is now another type of literacy that challenges students that are already digital natives. The use of IT technology requires around-the-clock training for teachers and it is an appreciable effort to redesign an educational transient arrangement in order to support the current needs. The paradigm shift the world has experienced in the past two pandemic years has led to an educational change never seen before, forcing teachers and students alike to re-adapt to social, political, moral and economical changes. Online teaching requires more training time for a teacher than classical teaching because it is incumbent to put into preparation an aggregation of IT skills that can be acquired in the continuing educational process. Digital education boosts classical education by developing a logical system that is understood by digital natives, who have multiple emotional intelligences, students that have grown up in the era of technology, and whose needs have not been adjusted to the present times, thus virtual lessons representing a real possibility of accessing texts, presentations, audio and visual means, simulations and e-content, in few seconds, in order to make learning as interactive and as gratifying as possible. The prospect to approach immense, playful and constructive content, not necessarily from a physical classroom or seminar room, any time, just by owning a smartphone or a tablet represents an immediate gratification and a chance this generation expects.*

**Key words:** traditional education, online education, blended learning, web based learning, virtual environment.

## Introduction

The need for distance learning - the form of institutionalized education at the beginning of the twentieth century has somehow given us a glimpse of what will happen in the future when a potential dangerous disease or natural catastrophe occurs and the physical presence in classrooms is no longer possible. Distance or remote learning was initially supported by the

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communication facilities offered by mail, telephone, and television and later the computer-assisted training becomes a teaching method that capitalizes on the principles of training in the context of the use of information and communication technologies, characteristic of contemporary society. Computer-based learning, emerged in the 1970s, is basically improved education with the help of a computer system as a teaching tool integrated into an educational context, whether it is for the educational purposes or lifelong learning. Educational materials can be presented in the form of text, graphics, audio, video. With the development of the *world wide web*, the web-based learning has managed to turn the www space into high potential medium for self educational training and training, in general.

Through the versatile educational materials used online, such as: software tools, teaching materials, textbooks, electronic books, electronic libraries, or links to other educational sources, the web-based teaching has expanded online learning towards groups of students coordinated by an instructor, including a number of communication systems such as: e-mails, discussion forums, and even video conferencing, for remote participants, in real time. Thus, the next step in computer assisted learning, the blended learning method is the form of educational training in which classical methods of training are combined with those using technology and internet. Application sharing had made it possible for large amounts of texts to be shared within seconds across the room, the world, with the help of the internet, thus an electronic course is a traditional course translated into an accessible format (text, multimedia, audio, video) using a computer. The corona-virus pandemic has hastened the virtual classroom to the online learning space, making it possible for learners situated in different counties or countries, or students with disabilities, to attend a live lecture, and most of the time, learners' interventions (questions, debates) in the educational process supported by technology. The blueprint of the training involves the organization and ordering of the material to be taught, learned and evaluated, at the level of the functional-structural correlation between teacher and student. The pattern of computer aided training can be defined as the organized development of training process using learning and training ideas to ensure the quality of the training process. This is defined by an entire procedure of analyzing the need for skills, knowledge and learning objectives and scheming a transfer and transportation system to ensure that these needs are met through a combination of tools and operations that serve the development of the learning process.

The virtual learning environment that we have experienced in the last two years of pandemic conditions, represents an environment with functions such as interaction between instructor and students, including



connectedness and information exchange, and content dispersion, i.e. online publications, management of e content, electronic documents and other information. (Bărbuceanu, 2020). Online education, provided used to its fullest potential, can sometimes be more effective than classical training, it can be exciting, entertaining and tailored to suit anyone's schedule and needs. The impact of the IT change we are currently experiencing is reflected in education globally, because nowadays, careers depend on technology and almost every person owns a smartphone that accesses information the person desires. On the far side, the applications we use daily for purchasing, socializing, show us the importance of IT in general and in teaching, in particular, which is indisputable and this was seen in the last two pandemic years when the only possible instruction was the online one.

The use of the www or Internet has become the main answer for further education since the proximity of students and teachers in seminar rooms was no longer possible due to the Covid 19 pandemics. Being physically present in a classroom is no longer the only learning option today because the access to quality education can now be possible any time and anywhere, the only condition being the existence of a smartphone, or a computer connected to the internet. The times we live in necessitate the redesign of how education can and will be conducted. Students should be allowed to learn and practice according to their needs and necessities, their e -content or course material to be available permanently to be unlocked whenever they want to go back and refresh their memory. Technological literacy is now another type of literacy that challenges students that are already digital natives. The use of IT technology requires around-the-clock training for teachers and is a appreciable effort to redesign an educational temporal arrangement. Online teaching requires more training time for a teacher than classical teaching because it is incumbent to put into preparation an aggregation of IT skills that can be acquired in the continuing education courses. (Scorțan, 2021). A solidified infrastructure must be implemented: e-learning trained teachers, national e-learning platform, virtual school library, access to free educational software package, course of study change, effective institutional cooperation with a constructive approach.

### **Classic versus online or... blended learning**

Classical education has represented, for centuries, the only option for students or self trainers, but, in the event of a disease disaster, the new concept of digital education comes as a valuable resource that has revolutionized the world of education and instruction. The introduction of the digital education system in the university programme is on the way, as we speak, of-course without excluding the traditional courses, but blending



the synergistic methods learnt in the pandemic period. In the classical teaching, the accent is mainly on the content of the education, the teacher representing the only vector for information transmission. (Chiriteescu, Păunescu, 2021). Teacher instructs the subject matter and demands his students to amply repeat the orally dictated or explained content, this representing a form of learning mostly based on acquisition, which does not respect the different learning styles students might possess. In this system of rules, great authority and emphasis is given to the abstractive acquisition of the subject matter and the appraisal method acting focuses on either the answers coincided to the abstractive content which is no longer available, once the teacher has finished his lecture.

Digital education boosts classical education by developing a logical system that is understood by digital natives, who have multiple emotional intelligences, students that have grown up in the era of technology, and whose needs have not been adjusted to the present times, thus virtual lessons representing a real possibility of accessing texts, presentations, audio and visual means, simulations and e-content in few seconds in order to make learning as interactive and as enjoyable as possible. The possibility to approach immense, playful and constructive content not necessarily from a physical classroom or seminar room, any time, just by owning a smartphone or a tablet is an immediate gratification and a chance this generation expects. The teaching-learning process is thus carried out in an progressive way that allows for a appraisal carried out in a manner which is tailored to their needs.

Traditional teaching- learning method can be blended in the new technology-based learning tools, because digital learning is a future that configures a learning which promises to be interactive, easier to remember and absorbed than copious textbooks, offering a broader linear perspective and more captivating activities than conventional methods of education. Future educational process will be a blend of traditional methods with tools and digital e- courses and presentations technology for remote students to access any time, outside the seminar room. Thus, the seminars and lectures will be more expeditious, focusing on the development of the subject matter and student needs through discourse and attractive activities based on connectedness and cooperation between students. (Paraschivu, Cotuna, 2021). Students will also have the possibility to improve or intensify their acquisition even before they can physically come to school- in a flipped classroom style, if a digital learning tool is used. Accustoming students to think in a flipped way, outside the classical, traditional corner and physical stiff supporting structure of learning, through digital tools and methods, prezi presentations, audio and visual input, methods can be approached



from the point of view of different learning styles, is now achievable, all these stimulating their creativity and giving them a sense of self-assurance in their own cognition. Digital tools and present technology contribute to the development of effective student learning skills because it encompasses all the learning styles in one, giving diversity to the process of instruction, thus students can identify what they need to learn, research and use on-line resources and apply useful information. This can only increase their efficiency and ratio, the use of creativeness and logic, learning to make determination more coherently. (Lăpădat, Lăpădat, 2020). Digital education propels students to become more accountable in the teaching-learning process because they are learning in an progressive, engaged and involved way. E-learning and blended technologies have produced changes in the way students have to learn and to manage an impressive amount of information, to analyse it, to make and to meet current technological challenges. All the tools that belong to information and communication technology are well known as ICT and they germinate in students the cognition to use digital tools to produce, present and understand complex information on their own, the ability to access, research and use internet-based work. (Bușu, 2020). Students using and learning through ICT improve critical thinking, creativeness hypercritical and contemplative cognition towards the forthcoming information. In digital learning students connect better with the study materials, such as pre-recorded videos, prezi presentations in which videos, listening are embedded, being easier to remember and absorbed than textbooks, and they are stocked and available on digital educational platforms, that help teachers create and manage work / communication groups. Thus, teachers save a lot of time and manage to meet the needs of each student, fashioning education more fertile through incessant and energising connectedness. Digital learning has a supportive impact on students' rational, affectionate, and even social behaviours which are translated in accelerative interest in learning and challenging teamwork, all these leading to improved learning results. The availability of course attendance / on-line class attendance can optimize learning results with the dropout rate being much lower in on-line learning than in traditional courses. In all probability, this is due to the alteration in stressors and pressure levels otherwise present in traditional schooling systems.(Stoian, 2019). The future of ICT integrating technology in teaching is thus of outermost importance, combined with a new law, legislation and methodology for faculty subjects, based on the use of and the public exposure of instructive implements.

## Things to consider



"More precisely, ICT can improve education and learning through its energizing, synergistic, and attractive content and also supply real possibilities for personalized educational activity." (Bărbuceanu, 2022). Teachers need to adapt themselves to the new trends, reinvent themselves and their methodology in order to respond to the digital natives needs, needs that have been postponed for years now, and rethink the content of their courses. Traditional educational methods need to be blended with digital methods to make the lectures more expeditious, focusing on the student needs and the request of the new paradigms. "Today, ICT-Information and Communication Technology tools are increasingly present in classes worldwide, and the symbiosis between computer technology and education can no longer be denied or overlooked. ICT is gaining advantage over the educational area especially in foreign language teaching and learning, as it implies the bringing of technology of video and audio embedded in class presentations, with pronounced outcome on the quality and content of teaching-learning cognitive process." (Bărbuceanu, 2022).

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# Developing Technical English Speaking Skills Using Visual Aids

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Irina Janina BONCEA\*

## 1. Introduction

This paper enlarges upon the development of speaking skills in Technical English classes with a focus on English for Computers and Information Technology by providing examples of how visual aids can stimulate students to be more productive during speaking activities by the mere exposure to pictures and diagrams, graphs and charts. The research premise of the activities samples comprised in the current paper is that by the mere inclusion of graphical content into the speaking task along with the written instructions, students will display more communicative availability. In recent decades, the learners' oral production has become the pivotal interest of research (Celce-Murcia, 2013; Louma, 2004, as it represents the ultimate evidence of L2 learning. The development of speaking skills is viewed as "an essentially interactive process, in which the teacher can find out whether what has been taught has been learned, and if not, to do something about it" (William, 2007, p. 1054).

Traditionally, Romanian engineering schools have adapted their curricula to incorporate Technical English classes for a variable number of semesters (1 to 4) during which emphasis is set on developing vocabulary learning, grammar accuracy and reading/writing skills. Even though speaking has recently been redefined in terms of importance during technical English classes, there is still a long road ahead before it acquires a prominent role. Syllabi of communication in English technical should empower students with the ability to master a set of integrated skills: understanding technical English when written and/or spoken, the ability to write and speak in any part of the world in a business related domain of their trade. Since engineers need to be multitasking, they require enhanced efficiency as managers who not only manage themselves but also their teams or organizations. English as a means of technical communication very subtly infuses the students with the much-needed managerial skills and

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professional manners, business etiquette and operational skills in culturally defined environments.

Richards (2006) advocated in favour of the “natural language use” referring to situations “when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence” (p. 14). Richards’ perspective focuses primarily on the interactional aspect of language that is used to feed social interaction (Yule, 1989, p. 169), to promote emotional intelligence (Bora, 2012), to fulfill certain goals or to convey particular ideas, intentions, desires, preferences, or opinions. Speaking helps strengthen interpersonal bonds especially when used appropriately in social and professional interactions. According to Bygate (1987), efficient communication is viewed as “the vehicle par excellence of social solidarity, of social ranking, of professional advancement and business” (Bygate, 1987, p. vii).

The information contained in graphics will render data-loaded situations more digestible—breaking statistics and figures or timelines into manageable chunks. Visual information is also more persuasive, pervasive and attractive. When used in classrooms visual aids encourage students learning process making it easier and more interesting. Visual aids are the optimal device for enhancing teaching effectiveness and dissemination of knowledge. As defined by Singh (2005): “Any device which by sight and sound increase the individual’s practice, outside that attained through read labeled as an audio visual aids”. Visual aids are those instructional devices which are used in the classroom to encourage learning and make it easier and more motivating. The material like models, charts, film strip, projectors, radio, television, maps called instructional aids. (Rather, 2004). Visual aids are effective tool that “invest the past with an air of actuality.” Visual aids distribute the learners with true knowledge, which detention their devotion and help in the understanding of the ancient marvels. They demand to the mind through the visual auditory senses. When we use visual aids as teaching aid, it is one of the aspects which root participation of students in the lesson because when students look at visual model or aid, it is measured as a kind of contribution.

## **2. Speaking with visual aids**

The following section will focus on a variety of visual aids teachers can employ to facilitate communicative availability during technical classes. The choice of which visual aids to use must be governed by a set a guidelines that ensure the optimization of resources to communicative achievements.



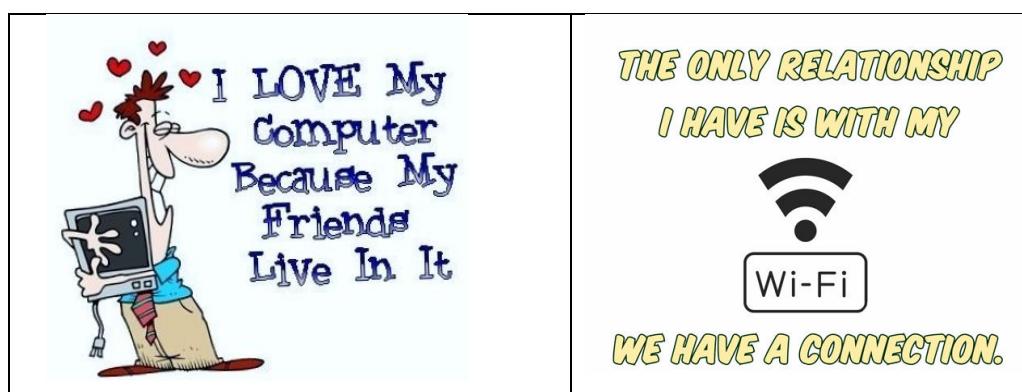
1. Simplicity: the message must be easy to grasp so as not to overload students, build confidence and facilitate speaking;
2. Size: Visual aids must be large enough for everyone to comfortably see the content;
3. Attractiveness: Visual aids need to be very professional in both content and appearance as well as stimulating in the sense that students would want to talk about them;
4. Appropriateness: teachers should steer clear of shocking or offending content. Also, the graphical content should be relevant to the subject matter of the lesson, functioning as an ice breaker for what is to follow;
5. Practiced: Teachers should practice with visual aids before the speech. Speaking activities take a lot of time, coordination, and (sometimes) technical know-how, so it is essential to see where the discussion might lead so that students do not drift away from the desired course.

The following section will dwell upon a set of carefully chosen samples of visual aids used for speaking in English for computers classes, levels B2-C1. They range from using pictures to using graphs, charts and quotes by famous people. The chosen samples contain the speaking task(s) associated with the activity so as to offer a view and perhaps inspiration as to what can be done with visuals to stimulate speaking.

## 2.1 Speaking using pictures

Example 1: The social role of computers/ expressing disadvantages and solutions

Task 1: Analyze the following images and explain the role of computers in people's social life in relation to the message of the pictures. How can people avoid computer addiction in their social life?



Task 2: Extension: think about three advantages and three disadvantages of computers in people's lives.



### Example 2: Comparing and contrasting old and new technology



Task 1: Warm-up: Compare and contrast the old and the new devices shown in the pictures below. Refer to design, materials, capabilities, speed, storage capacity, user-friendliness, ergonomics, portability etc.

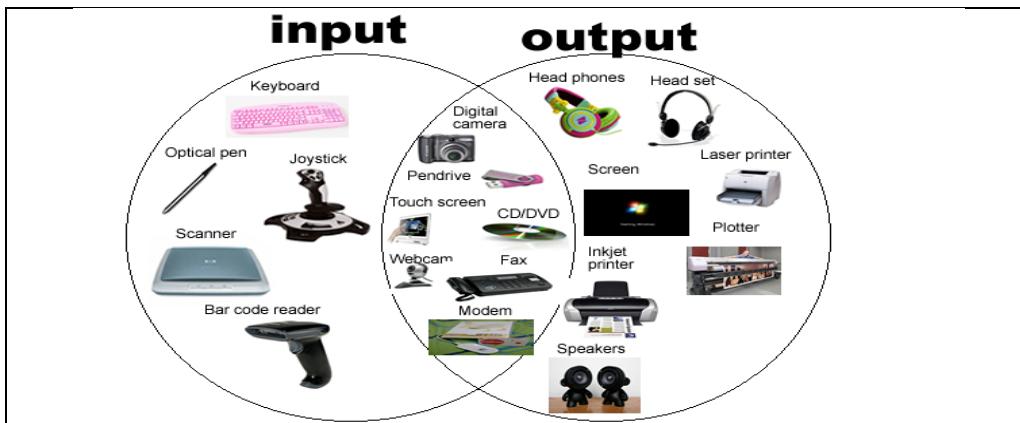
Task 2: Include linkers to sequence speech:

Use these introductory linkers to help you instantiate your views:	
COMPARING	CONTRASTING
Just like, as well as, likewise, the same as....	Although, however, despite, in contrast...
As compared to....	...differs from....in that it...
Similar(ly) to..., similarly,....	As opposed to..., on the contrary...
On the one hand,....	On the other hand...
Either...or..., neither....nor ...	Unless...
Not only....(inversion), but ...also	While/whereas...
Both ...., since they....	Instead...



### Example 3: Input and output devices contrasted

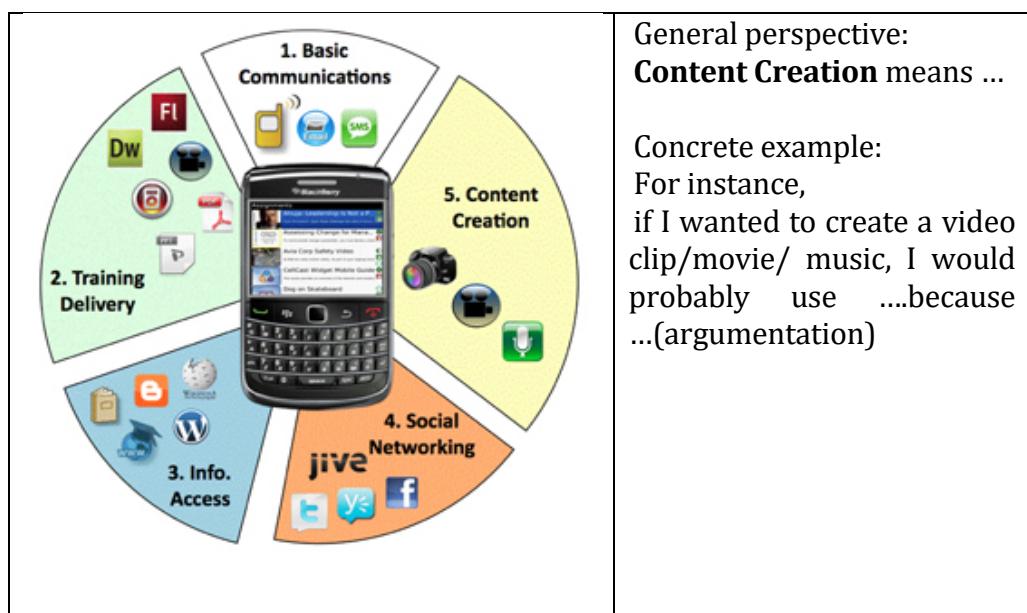
Task 1: Analyze the picture below and explain what it refers to:



Task 2: Explain why some items are only input or output device, while others qualify as both. Express your opinion, use inference and deduction to compare and contrast.

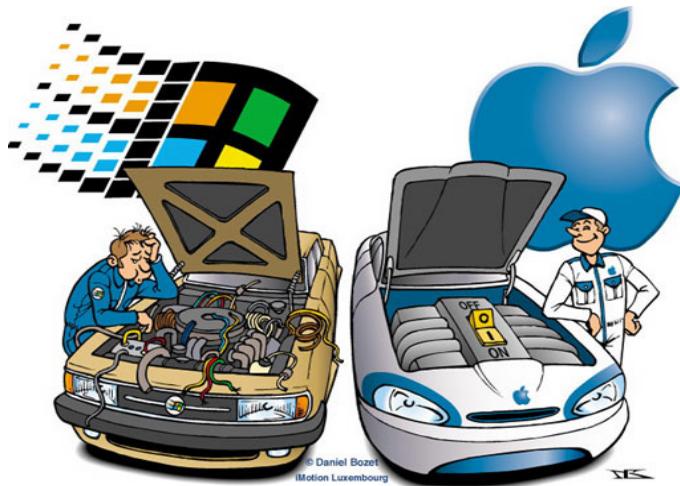
Example 4: Narrowing down perspective: from the general to the particular

Task 1: Look at the picture below and decide which output devices are most commonly used and to what end in the situations depicted. Refine the situations by referring to more specific activities.



### Example 5 Operating systems: Critical Thinking

Task 1: Warm-up: look at the picture below. Describe how the two operating systems are viewed and state whether you agree with the suggested view.

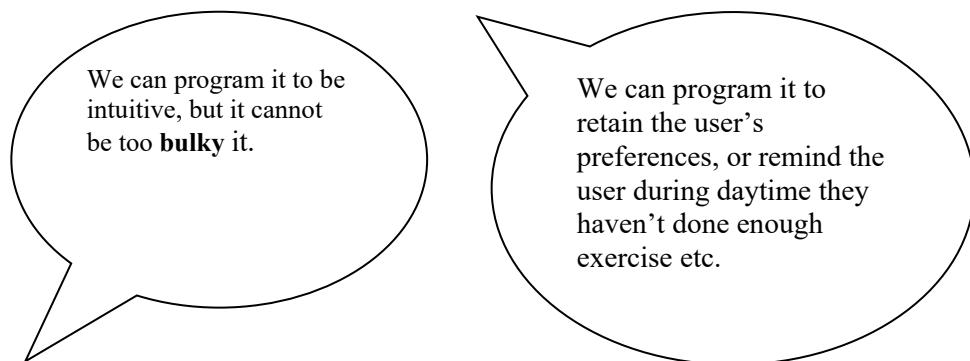


Task 2: Compare and contrast Windows and Mac OS from your personal experience.

## 2.2 Speaking using diagrams

Example 1: Organizing information in speech bubbles -pre-speaking activity

Task: You are currently developing an innovative application for an artificial (robotic) limb for amputees. Discuss the ways in which one design characteristic might conflict or work together with the others and what design compromises you have to make.

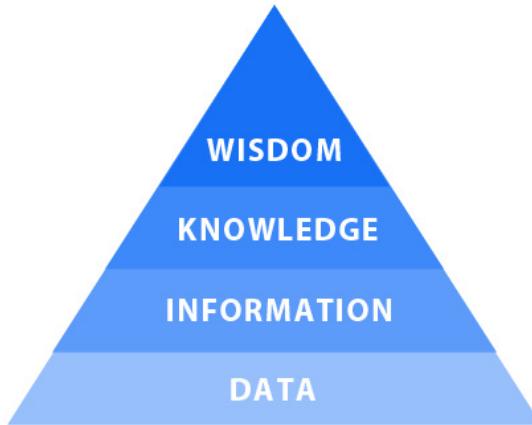


Alternative topics: **an e-library for blind people, a foreign language learning application, an application for artists to practice without paper etc.**



### Example 2: Discuss hierarchical diagrams

Task: Let us consider the difference between data and information.  
Study the picture below:



Discuss the role played by each element in the pyramid and the relationship between them.

### Example 3: Discussing pros and cons-pre speaking activity

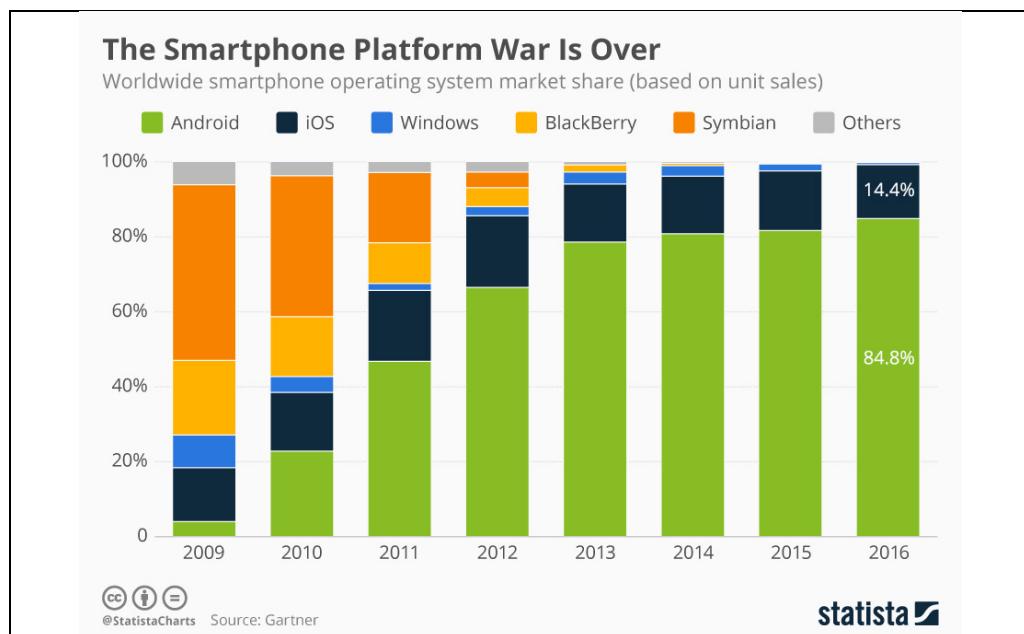
Task: Complete the following diagrams with opposing views on computer security. Discuss and debate with your colleagues.

POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
<p>It's an industry</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• variety of jobs</li> <li>• .....</li> </ul> <p>Inovation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• .....</li> <li>• .....</li> </ul> <p>Protection</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• .....</li> <li>• .....</li> </ul>	<p>Malware evolves</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• .....</li> <li>• difficult to keep up</li> </ul> <p>Cost</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• to businesses is huge</li> <li>• .....</li> </ul> <p>Privacy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• .....</li> <li>• .....</li> </ul>

### 2.3 Speaking using bar charts and pie charts

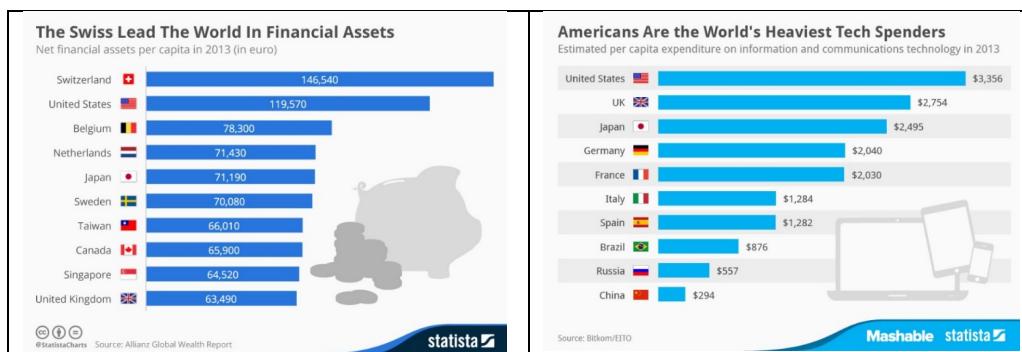
#### Example 1:

Discuss the information provided by the bar chart below. Compare, contrast, speculate on possible causes for the changes.



Example 2: Using large numbers/ comparing and contrasting/speculating

Task 1: Look at the graphs below and read the numbers.

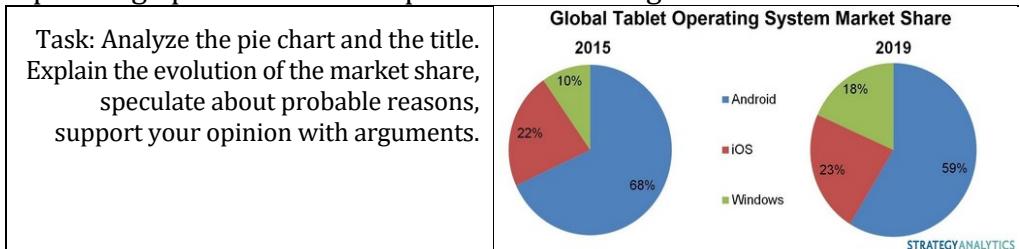


Task 2: Compare/contrast countries in the second chart from the perspective of how much they spend on technology. Speculate about what makes it possible for some countries to spend so much on technology. Is there any connection between GDP and Technology expenditure? Are you surprised by any of the positions in the ranking? Why do you think some countries spend more on technology than others?

Task 3: Is there a correlation between the ranking of Financial Assets (chart 1) and Technology Expenditure (chart 2)?

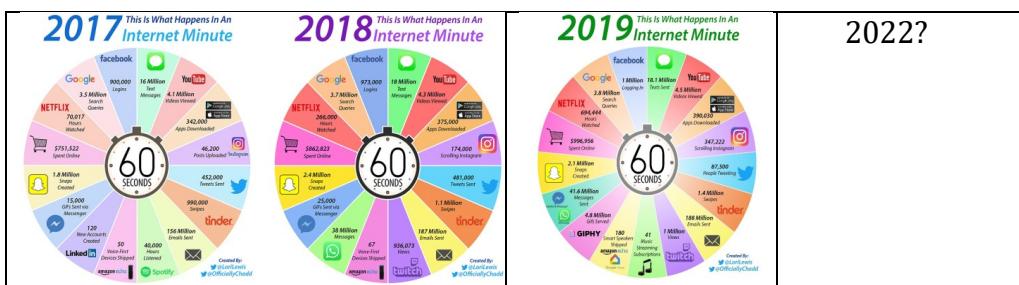


Example 3: Understanding market share for technology operators/expressing opinions based on previous knowledge.



#### Example 4: Analyzing trends/ making predictions

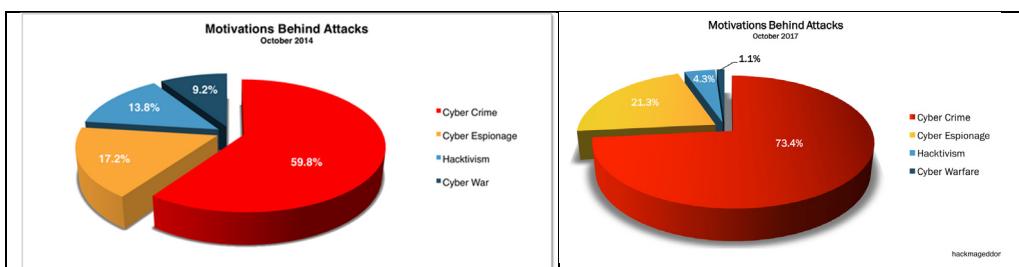
Task 1: Warm-up: study the pictures, compare and contrast the information. What is the most surprising discovery? How do you account for the chronological variations?



Task 2: What do you predict to be the numbers for the suggested year?

Example 5: Discussing technology vulnerability, speculating and predicting

Task 1: Discuss following pie charts describing Cyber Security Attacks. Speculate on the motivation and evolution of security attacks between 2014 and 2017.



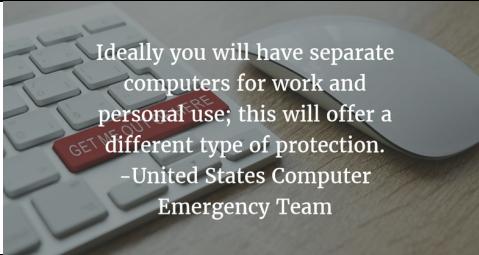
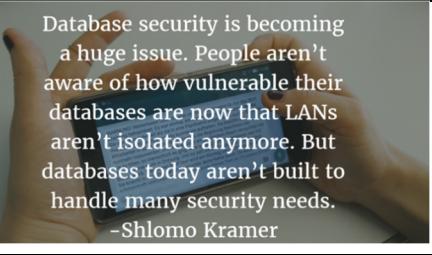
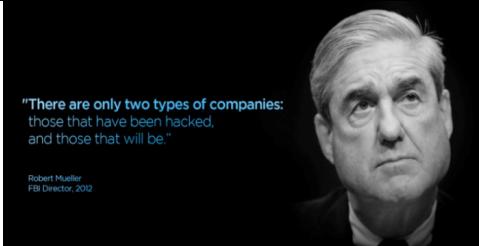
Task 2: Make predictions: how do you expect the situation to change in the future?



## 2.4 Speaking using Quotes

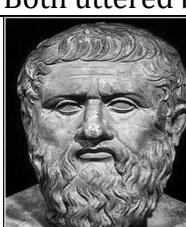
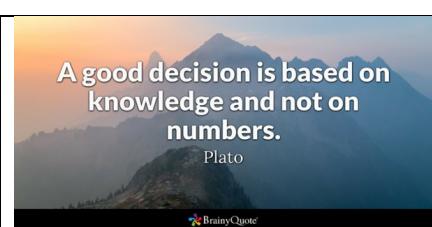
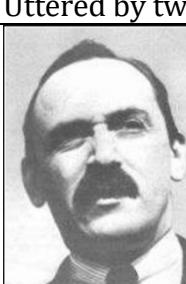
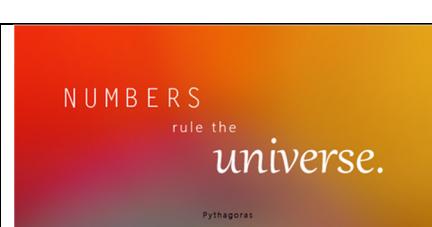
Example 1: Arguing for and against

Task 1: Warm-up: Study the following discussion threads regarding **computer security**. Discuss the ideas, say whether you agree or disagree:

 <p>Ideally you will have separate computers for work and personal use; this will offer a different type of protection. —United States Computer Emergency Team</p>	 <p>Database security is becoming a huge issue. People aren't aware of how vulnerable their databases are now that LANs aren't isolated anymore. But databases today aren't built to handle many security needs. —Shlomo Kramer</p>
 <p>"There are only two types of companies: those that have been hacked, and those that will be." Robert Mueller FBI Director, 2012</p>	 <p>DIGITAL LIFE IN 2025 “ For every lock, there is someone out there trying to pick it or break in. — DAVID BERNSTEIN, PRESIDENT AT THE BERNSTEIN AGENCY ”</p>

Example 2: Discussing apparently contradictory views/ expressing opinions

Task 1: Warm-up: Discuss the following quotes about numbers. Follow the guidelines for exploring the significance of the message.

Both uttered by the same philosopher		
 <p>AZ QUOTES</p>	<p>Numbers are the highest degree of knowledge. It is knowledge itself. — Plato —</p>	 <p>A good decision is based on knowledge and not on numbers. Plato BrainyQuote</p>
Uttered by two different mathematicians		
 <p>AZ QUOTES</p>	<p>Numbers constitute the only universal language. — Nathaniel West —</p>	 <p>NUMBERS rule the universe. Pythagoras</p>



### Task 2: Answer the questions:

Which approach to numbers do you adhere to: the philosophical or the mathematical approach? Or both?

What do you find interesting about numbers?

What can advanced knowledge of mathematics bring to the future of mankind?

### 3. Conclusions

Speaking and listening thus become essential skills in fostering efficient communication which ensures mutual understanding, professional trust and confidence, team cooperation and handling responsibility for technical issues.

As oral performance “arises spontaneously from the naturally occurring classroom environment and leads the teacher to a judgment about an individual student’s level of development” (Stiggins & Bridgeford, 1985, p. 273), one is required to crystallize messages while infusing them with personal views and critical thinking on technical matters that are domain-specific. Speaking skills enable students to get an improved grasp of the subject matter while playing with an ever-expanding range of vocabulary, ability to summarize the subject matter with precision, ability to infer and make deductions, predictions and speculation.

The development of technical speaking skills will enable one to express ideas with a fair degree of fluency and accuracy while reaching out to the world of like-minded professionals in a global jargon that is specific to their engineering trade. It also tests ones analytical skills, decision making power the basis of building interpersonal relationships. Technical communication skills thus ease the way of future engineers to harness a world of possibilities within them to express themselves professionally in the global market for engineering jobs.

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# Avant-gardism as Germinal Sphere of Modernism

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Adrian Florin BUŞU\*

## Abstract

*Originally applied to innovative approaches to art making, the term avant-garde became applicable to all creation that pushes the boundaries of ideas and creativity and is used to describe originality of vision or radical approaches. In literature, the Avant-garde is a movement whose characteristic attitude is defined by a tense sensitivity to any threat of convention and formula, by the global rejection of any idea of authority and pattern. Although Avant-garde and Modernism seem to overlap, the problem of distinguishing between them has not become a major controversy, because the Avant-garde cannot be thought of in the absence of a distinct consciousness of modernity. The Avant-garde is more radical than Modernism, less flexible and less tolerant of nuances, which makes it more dogmatic.*

*In Romanian literature, Tristan Tzara, Ilarie Voronca, Ion Vinea, Saşa Pană, Stephan Roll, Virgil Teodorescu, Gellu Naum, Paul Păun, Gherasim Luca and Jacques Costin are among the writers who joined the avant-garde and grouped around publications such as Contemporanul, Integral, unu, Punct, 75HP, Alge or Urmuz.*

**Keywords:** Avant-garde, Modernism, pattern, rejection, controversy

Artistic Avant-garde can be explained in the context of the complex social contradictions following the crisis of the First World War and covers a period of over two decades, but its spirit is reactivated whenever the need for regeneration is outlined, as it was the case of the *War Generation*, including here writers such as Geo Dumitrescu, Constantin Tonegaru and Ion Caraion, or the case of the generation of the '80's, in the post-avant-garde period.

Avant-garde is an attempt at restructuring, an artistic movement whose characteristic attitude is defined by a tense sensitivity to any threat of convention and formula, by the global rejection of any idea of authority and pattern. Representatives of the entire European Avant-garde have theorized the anti-classical, anti-academic, anti-conformist spirit, disobedience,

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rejection and denial of models, cultural-literary traditions and the aspiration for an absolute renewal of language. Beyond the rolling of noisy, demolishing slogans and manifestations of renewed zeal, borrowed, yet radicalized elements from modern tradition can be easily recognized in Avant-garde artistic experiences.

The problem of framing the Romanian Avant-garde remains a difficult one, because it is not about a homogeneous, uniform current, but about an amalgam of orientations and tendencies. Literary history sees in Avant-garde the Romanian Modernism in its acute, extremist phase, which unfolds spectacularly through Dadaism, Surrealism, Constructivism, Integralism, Futurism, Hermeticism, Simultaneousism or Pure Poetry. The authoritative, academic critique of the last decades distinguishes between Modernity or Modernism and the Avant-garde. The whole poetry generally called Avant-garde (and not to be confused with the historical avant-garde) originates, in one way or another, in the works of Rimbaud, Lautreamont and Whitman. (Manolescu:207). However, this state of mind, specifically the Avant-garde in the wider context of modernity, can be best defined under the sign of the mentioned obsession of the absolute dynamism of the creative spirit, of a total availability, also pushed to the threshold of utopia. If, on the other hand, a distinction is to be made between the Avant-garde and Modernism, then it may appear precisely at this point in the vital investment made by the Avant-garde in creation, with its turbulent, impure, contradictory, stolen movement in the ideal way of the formula and the convention. (Pop:11). There are significant differences between the two movements. In all respects, the Avant-garde is more radical than Modernism, less flexible and less tolerant of nuances, which makes it, of course, more dogmatic - both in terms of self-affirmation and, conversely, in terms of self-destruction. (Călinescu:102)

The distinction is nuanced, because one cannot speak of Avant-garde in the absence of Modernism. Even if in some specialized studies the two currents overlap, the problem of distinguishing between them has not become a major controversy, because the Avant-garde cannot be thought of in the absence of a distinct consciousness of modernity. It is easier to say that the artistic Avant-garde is a derivative, because it belongs to the germinal sphere of Modernism. The characterization of the Avant-garde, of great audience precisely because of its clarity, came from the great playwright Eugene Ionesco, even though he is not a genuine critic. Eugene Ionesco defined the Avant-garde in terms of position and rupture. While most writers, artists, and thinkers believe that they belong to their time, the revolutionary playwright feels that he is going against his time. The Avant-garde is like an enemy in a city that he is preparing to destroy, against



which it revolts; for, like any system of government, an established form of expression is at the same time a form of oppression. The Avant-garde is the opponent of a ready-made system (Ionesco:80)

The Avant-garde movement is an adventure of the spirit, an attempt to get rid of clichés, a denial of the cultural heritage of the past, a refusal to freeze in its patterns in parallel with a drive for innovation, for the absolute renewal of poetic language. From all the manifestos and declarations in the programmatic doctrinal order, we can observe the tendency of an absolute dynamism of the creative spirit, of the continuous availability of creation and of the perpetual metamorphosis.

An important aspect observed by literary critics in all the startling manifestos of each avant-garde orientation is the preference for the creative experience without purpose. The quasi-absence of interest in the outcome of this process, in a word, in the opera; it is not so much the final term of the structuring of creation that matters, but the movement towards it, the ever-living tension of the spirit, the vital energy invested, the perpetuation of the availability for creation. The opera and especially the masterpiece - its superlative realization - would mark a dead time. (Pop:9).

From the aesthetical perspective, the classicization, the exemplarity, the formula and the stereotype were the great fears of the representatives of the Avant-garde, because in their opinion, they meant ossification, freezing in schemes. This attitude of radical rejection of the cultural-literary tradition, in which the order and the intelligibility can be found, is equivalent to a generalization of Artaud's exclamation: *We no longer want masterpieces!*

The manifestos and works of the Romanian Avant-garde are significant testimonies of the radical refusal of stagnation, of the will to perpetuate an effervescence of sensitivity, of an indeterminate inner tension, devoid of stakes or object. *The Aviogram*, Ilarie Voronca's manifesto from 75HP magazine, published in October 1942, is a conclusive proof of the negative radicalism of the Avant-garde and its programmatic anti-Semitism. By rejecting purgative formulas, viable forms, the poet tries to get out of the grip of prejudices, grammatical norms and syntax and the material diversity of things by mixing them and by canceling logic: *Artistul nu imită, artistul creează./ Linia, cuvântul, culoarea pe care n-o găsești în dicționare/ [...] / Inventează Inventează/ Arta surpriză.* These lines are eloquent to illustrate the state of insubordination, of radical nonconformism that will be found in all Avant-garde. They reveal a sharp sensitivity, refractory to any constraint, to any limitations or determinations.

The innovative aspiration, the longing for a perpetual present time, for a creative dynamism, the interest for the genesis of the work, for the processuality, and, at the same time, the putting on the background of the



artistic finality are resumed insistently, as Ilarie Voronca's *Lectură pe o banchiză* (*unu* magazine, no. 26, June 1930), in which failure, perpetual onset, imperfection of any gesture or condemnation to failure of any enterprise are proclaimed. Examining these lines, we can speak, without a doubt, of an unsightly or an aesthetic of the absurd born of despair, of helplessness, of the need to release through confusion or empty movement. Employment, in this case, is meaningless because it has no definite object.

The disinterest of the Avant-garde towards what permanence in relation to the work represents, with the artistic creations, appears unequivocally in the article *The Creative Exasperation* in *one* magazine, no. 33, February 1931, written by Geo Bogza, who declared that the writers' activity is a tragedy far from any desire to make literature. Achieving in writing is not considered as an ideal purpose for writers. The writing is not the quest to reach a world the writers have longed for, but the relentless need to escape from another world that exasperates them. It is not the type of exasperation against the world, against a country or a certain category, but a total, organic exasperation. It is a cosmic exasperation. Avant-garde, therefore, has an accentuated negative attitude towards everything that means social and aesthetic convention, in the name of a freedom of creation, being interested only in the primacy of spontaneous experience, not in the work itself.

If we try to understand the organization of the type of literary creation launched in Ilarie Voronca's *Manifesto* in *one* magazine, in April 1928, we find that the aesthetic principle is missing, that it evades rational patterns and that we can only discover ideational inconsistency, verbal discontinuities and unintelligible expression: ... *Combine verb / abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz / = art rhythm speed unpredictable granite / guttenberg revive.*

The whole literary Avant-garde cultivates the revolt against the ossified past in schemes, in empty, academic formulas. The revolution takes place both in terms of the content of creation and expression. Revolt is manifested by the rejection of grammatical, logical and poetic rules, but also by the cultivation of vague states of mind, psychic automatism, of the absurd and the grotesque.

The literature of the absurd, as anti-literature, reveals the regime of a tense sensitivity to the brutality around it, a totally internalized loneliness. Delusional metamorphism - when it exists - an autonomy of language resulting from the violation of logical rules, the literary technique of black humor, the absurd comic obtained by random mixing of words, the surrealist dictum of avant-garde prose become ways of liberating the unconscious. In his creations, Urmuz uses with satirical intent the striking agglomeration of simulacra of communication and linguistic clichés, by



ignoring the norms of grammar and logic. At the beginning of the four-part novel entitled *Pâlnia și Stamate*, the absurdity, banality and total emptiness of thought are suggested by the illogical sequence of words and by the annulment by the mixture of concrete and abstract grammatical and semantic laws, arbitrarily preventing the proper expression of fundamental objects of contemplation related to man, nature, metaphysical anxiety, from the perspective of nothingness.

The aesthetics of the absurd practiced by Urmuz will be echoed in Romanian and Western literature. Arghezi's interest in Urmuz, who portrayed him in *Bilete de papagal* no. 16, February 19th, 1928 was not accidental. Arghezi correctly perceived the aesthetic solidity of the Urmuzian work, its striking artistic value and the effects of absurd verbal comedy. The literary technique of black humor, absurd comedy and the grotesque resulting from the exploitation of the automatisms of language, with a sporadic representation before Urmuz, but with an exemplary illustration in Caragiale's *Căldură mare*, acquires a firm orientation through Urmuz.

Urmuzian traces can be identified in Arghezi's *Tabletele din țara de Kuty*, but also in French literature, in Eugene Ionesco's plays. Affinities with Urmuz's surrealist humor are easy to detect in *Englezește fără profesor*, although Ionesco confessed to Claude Bonnefoi that his work in French was not influenced by Romanian writers.

We believe that it is not an exaggeration to connect Urmuz's name to *The Theatre of the Absurd*, to the conceptualization of which he contributed through Ionescu's mediation. Martin Esslin's book *The Theater of the Absurd*, which launches a critical career in the theatrical notion of the absurd, offers a significant chapter to Eugene Ionesco, the famous writer who, between 1945 and 1949, the period of time when he completed *The Bald Singer*, translated Urmuz's work into French, although the translations did not appear until 1965 in *Les Lettres Nouvelles*.

Tristan Tzara, Ilarie Voronca, Ion Vinea, Saşa Pană, Stephan Roll, Virgil Teodorescu, Gellu Naum, Paul Păun, Gherasim Luca and Jacques Costin are among the writers who joined the avant-garde. They grouped around the publications *Contemporanul*, *Integral*, *unu*, *Punct*, *75HP*, *Alge* or *Urmuz*. Like any cultural-literary movement, the Avant-garde generated interest, although the public may have initially felt confused by this somewhat awkward kind of literature, a literature of the irrational. However, the Avant-garde cultivated the taste for creative freedom, the availability of imagination and aesthetic and social nonconformism, revived the atmosphere of numbness and became a catalyst for cultural and artistic life.



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# De l'évaluation traditionnelle jusqu'à l'évaluation non-conventionnelle

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Ileana Mihaela CHIRITESCU\*

## Résumé

*L'évaluation représente un processus infini, toujours partiel. Le contrôle est un processus fini et total.*

*Si l'évaluation relève un travail d'implication, elle implique la construction des référents et de la production, ou le repérage des critères de l'évaluation, le contrôle implique la construction d'un ensemble de procédures et de techniques indéfiniment répétables, homogènes et indépendantes des acteurs chargés de les mettre en œuvre.*

*Le contrôle est hors du temps tandis que l'évaluation est indissociable du vécu historique et temporel.*

*L'évaluation produit, construit, crée un référent. Le contrôle mesure les écarts et les variations entre un référent et un référent constant.*

*Les deux notions sont nécessaires et devraient être employées dans un rapport de complémentarité, et pas l'une plutôt que l'autre.*

*Les moyens mis en œuvre pour l'apprentissage d'une langue ne se limitent plus aujourd'hui aux méthodes et au matériel traditionnel, mais ils doivent s'adapter aux techniques avancées introduites dans la pédagogie.*

**Mots-clés:** évaluation, compétence, contrôle, pédagogies actives, acte de langage.

## Introduction

Quand on parle de l'évaluation, le mot est ancien et il est utilisé à partir de l'année 1361. L'évaluation (qualitative) se distingue de la mesure (quantitative) par le jugement de valeur. Pour le sociologue, Philippe Perrenoud, „*il y a évaluation dès que se forme dans l'esprit du maître un jugement de valeur sur la compétence d'un étudiant, sur son intelligence, sa personnalité, sa conduite*“.(Rogers, C., 1972:17)

Dès lors, le modèle docimologique comme réflexion des examens, tout en demeurant le principe indispensable, se prouve être une fausse piste. Il ne s'agit plus de comparer une réussite à une norme, mais d'estimer un mécanisme de construction de la personne.

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En 1929, le mathématicien Henri Piéron a créé le terme « docimologie » à partir du mot grec composé de *dokimê*, épreuve, et *logos*, raison, discours, étude, qui signifie *épreuve*. C'était la discipline qui s'occupait de l'étude de la notation, en pédagogie, c'est-à-dire pour des examens et des concours.

D'ailleurs, dès 1805, un essai sur „L'Enseignement des mathématiques” dénonçait explicitement la faute de focalisation des examens : „*Puisque ce n'est pas un effort de mémoire qui constitue le vrai savoir en mathématiques, et qu'il restreint plutôt, les facultés qu'on emploie un examen oral et par cœur pour s'assurer la capacité des jeunes gens qui se livrent à l'étude des sciences*”. (Piéron, H., 1963: 3)

Le point de départ de la recherche sur l'évaluation scolaire a été une étude critique des notes mises au baccalauréat, étude qui a été faite par Laugier et Weinberg (Piéron, H., 1963:23), vers le début des années 1930, et publiée en 1938. Laugier et Weinberg ont publié leur ouvrage sur la docimologie en 1963.

### Évaluation traditionnelle

L'évaluation représente l'une des priorités majeures de la didactique des langues étrangères et, spécialement, du FLE. À présent, elle est perçue comme une façon de diriger l'enseignement.

Quand nous étudions le terme d'évaluation, une variété de notions peuvent être mentionnées: contrôler, mesurer, estimer, observer, diagnostiquer, tester, apprécier. Il s'agit de vérifier les acquis d'un étudiant au début, au cours et à la fin d'un parcours d'apprentissage.

Selon le Dictionnaire *Le Nouveau Petit Robert* : Évaluer c'est „*porter un jugement sur la valeur, le prix de*” ... (Le Nouveau Petit Robert, 2008:128)

„*L'évaluation scolaire est, d'un point de vue historique, un outil permettant de valider les premières décisions d'orientation des étudiants dans le système scolaire de l'époque. C'est avec une circulaire de 1880 que la notation du travail des étudiants a initialement été mise en place pour décider, à la fin de chaque année, de la suite de leur parcours. Précisément, cette circulaire fixait aux enseignants et aux établissements l'obligation de noter tout au long les performances des étudiants afin d'établir des moyennes de notes avant de servir aux des décisions de passages ou pas dans la classe supérieure*”. (<http://www.biop.cip.fr>, 2009:11)

L'évaluation tient de l'opportunité de s'assurer des objectifs qui doivent être atteints par l'étudiant et de la qualité de la pratique didactique de l'enseignant; elle permettant aux enseignants et aux apprenants d'identifier les difficultés qu'ils rencontrent à partir des activités d'évaluation qui se font au début de l'apprentissage, au long de l'apprentissage ou à la fin de ce dernier.



L'évaluation est un procédé qui accompagne tout le processus d'apprentissage et permet de mesurer sa réussite.

L'enseignant doit commencer par connaître à quel niveau veut-il conduire ses apprenants, et il doit utiliser les moyens nécessaires pour les entraîner. Elle est à la fois une représentation sociale et un objet de savoir. L'apprenant n'est pas le seul bénéficiaire dans la situation d'évaluation. Ses résultats s'adressent aussi bien à l'institution et même aux parents.

Il existe plusieurs types d'interactions en classe. Interaction étudiant-enseignant, interaction étudiant-étudiant et interaction étudiant-groupe de travail. Ainsi, les façons de travailler sont également diverses. L'étudiant peut travailler seul ou dans son propre groupe d'étudiants. L'étudiant peut travailler avec le professeur. Ou l'étudiant peut interagir avec un autre groupe de travail dont il ne fait pas partie. (Bărbuceanu, C.D., 2022:244)

La démarche traditionnelle de l'évaluation la définit comme étant une tâche de l'enseignant dont la fonction est de communiquer aux apprenants les résultats constats à la fin d'une séquence d'apprentissage. Ce modèle vise la répétition des connaissances transmises. C'est une évaluation sanction qui fonde uniquement sur la notation et qui ne prend pas en compte les différences individuelles. Mais actuellement dans une approche fondée sur l'interaction en classe, les étudiants jouent un rôle actif, ils sont sollicités sur le mode de la régulation. Cette approche interactive permet de concevoir l'évaluation comme une démarche d'explicitation des attentes de l'enseignant en ce qui concerne l'acquisition d'un savoir.

À propos de ça Christine Tagliante a dit : „*L'évaluation ne doit pas être envisagée comme une sanction mais plutôt comme un outil dont on se servira pour construire l'apprentissage, dans la durée, en sachant vraiment où l'on va*“.  
(Tagliante, C., 2005:82)

Quand on parle d'évaluation avec des enseignants, une des majeures difficultés c'est que la même notion évoque des réalités qui peuvent être très distinctes.

Bien que, dans la réalité les rapports entre évaluation et contrôle puissent être étroits, elles ne viennent pas du même univers.

Charles Hadji, a défini dans un de ses travaux le terme „évaluation” en l'opposant au terme „contrôle”. Dans ce travail il avance l'idée que : „*ces deux notions appartiennent à deux ordres différentes et renvoient à deux «épistémologies» distinctes. Le contrôle a pour objet de vérifier le degré de conformité entre des phénomènes que l'on rencontre dans une situation donnée et un modèle de référence préexistant. (...) L'évaluation est un questionnement sur le sens de ce qui se produit dans la situation observée*“.  
(Hadji, C., 1990:45)



Le terme „évaluation” nous renvoie à la notion de valeur; il n'est pas nécessaire d'estimer la valeur d'une action. Si le contrôle est en général axé sur le développement de l'action, l'évaluation est centrée sur les résultats de l'action évaluée. Elle engage la participation des acteurs qui sont impliqués dans l'action à évaluer.

L'évaluation représente un processus infini, toujours partiel. Le contrôle est un processus fini et total.

Si l'évaluation relève un travail d'implication, elle implique la construction des référents et de la production, ou le repérage des critères de l'évaluation, le contrôle implique la construction d'un ensemble de procédures et de techniques indéfiniment répétables, homogènes et indépendantes des acteurs chargés de les mettre en œuvre.

Le contrôle est hors du temps tandis que l'évaluation est indissociable du vécu historique et temporel.

L'évaluation produit, construit, crée un référent. Le contrôle mesure les écarts et les variations entre un référent et un référent constant.

Les deux notions sont nécessaires et devraient être employées dans un rapport de complémentarité pas l'une plutôt que l'autre.

Les moyens mis en œuvre pour l'apprentissage d'une langue ne se limitent plus aujourd'hui aux méthodes et au matériel traditionnel, mais ils doivent s'adapter aux techniques avancées introduites dans la pédagogie.

### **Évaluation non-conventionnelle**

Depuis longtemps le monde du FLE est en avance par rapport au monde de l'enseignement institutionnel. Son statut plus informel lui a permis de prendre plus de libertés vis-à-vis des traditions éducatives.

Tout au long des années, les chercheurs ont essayé de trouver la méthode «parfaite» pour enseigner les langues étrangères, en s'inspirant de divers courants apparus en sciences humaines. Alors, on a décidé de présenter quelques-unes de ces méthodologies moins connues et moins répandues dans le but de mettre en évidence certains de leurs côtés positifs.

*La méthode communautaire* élaborée par le psychologue américain Charles A. Curran en 1961 et développée ultérieurement par ses collaborateurs, prend en considération six éléments essentiels dans l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère: la sécurité, l'affirmation de soi, l'attention, la réflexion, la rétention et la discrimination. La langue est conçue comme un moyen d'interaction sociale et l'apprentissage qui met l'accent sur les messages échangés entre les apprenants et, donc, sur la compréhension et sur l'expression.



*La méthode par le silence* favorise la concentration et la mémorisation. En se taisant, l'apprenant peut plus facilement faire des associations et retenir des structures. En fait, elle favorise l'accumulation du vocabulaire nouveau et la correction de la prononciation.

*La méthode par le mouvement* privilégie la compréhension globale au début de l'apprentissage en s'appuyant sur des activités physiques accomplies dans le but de répondre aux incitations de l'apprenant. Elle favorise la mémorisation et évite le stress aux apprenants.

Nous avons la possibilité de choisir une de toutes ces méthodes, mais, elle ne sera jamais la méthode parfaite pour tous. On recommande donc une certaine flexibilité, une attention continue aux réponses verbales et non-verbales des apprenants, une analyse et une (ré)évaluation permanente de la méthodologie et une capacité d'adapter et de combiner tout le temps, les meilleurs acquis de toutes les méthodologies adéquates au public cible et aux besoins de celui-ci.

On vous propose maintenant quelques exemples avec divers types d'évaluation.

## A. SÉANCE 1 – Réactualisation des connaissances antérieures

Durée: 5 minutes

Modalité de travail: frontale/toute la classe

L'enseignant adresse aux apprenants des questions concernant la notion de grammaire déjà étudiée.

- «C'est quoi le présent de l'indicatif ?»
- «Quand s'utilise-t-il ?»
- «Quels sont les adverbes introductifs ?»
- «Connaissez-vous les groupes des verbes en français ?»
- «Mais leurs terminaisons ?»

Mise en commun.

Il fait appel aux connaissances pour faire le passage vers la nouvelle leçon.

## SÉANCE 2 – Identification

Durée: 5 minutes

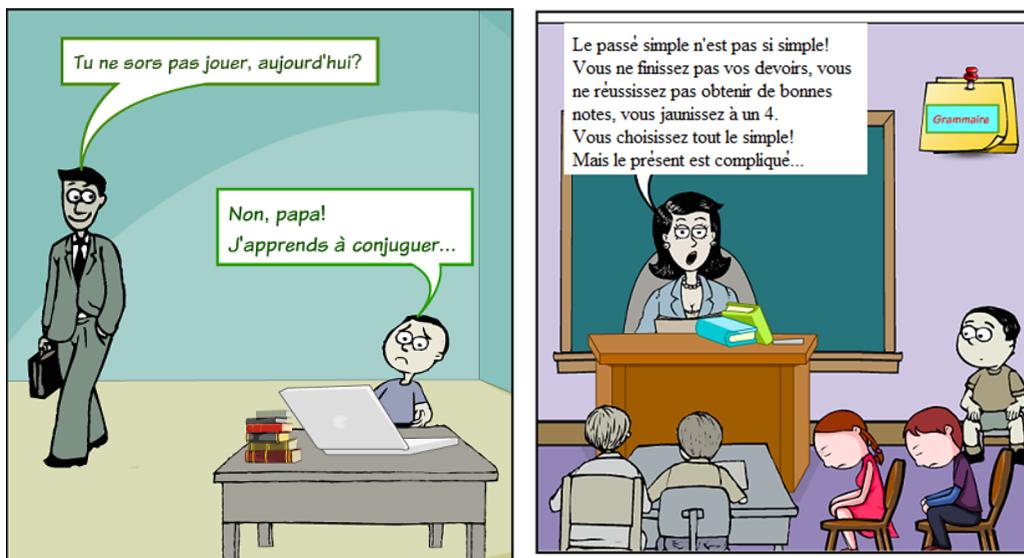
Modalité de travail: frontale/toute la classe

On propose d'identifier dans les images projetées les verbes au présent et leur infinitif.

Modalité de travail: frontale/toute la classe



On propose d'identifier dans les images projetées les verbes au présent et leur infinitif.



Sources des images:

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### SÉANCE 3 – Activité de réemploi

Durée: 5 minutes

Modalité de travail: individuelle

Afin de permettre aux apprenants de réutiliser les structures grammaticales qui servent à former le présent de l'indicatif, l'enseignant peut créer des items objectifs, à double choix, du type VRAI ou FAUX ou des QCM. L'item permet de travailler la compétence de C.E. grâce au support «Fiche de travail».

1. Distribuer aux étudiants la «Fiche de travail»; lecture de l'exercice à trous.
2. Leur demander de compléter les pointillées. (voir Exercice)
3. Mise en commun.



## *Exercice*

**Complétez cette lettre en mettant les verbes suivants au présent.**

avoir (x2), rester, applaudir, aimer, être (x2), réussir, aller, nager, jouer, choisir

Cher Julie,

Je ... depuis deux jours dans un camp jeunesse au bord de la Méditerranée. Moi et mes cousins, nous ... la chance de passer un beau séjour au sud de la France. Ici tout ... bien. On ... à se faire déjà de nouveaux amis. Nous ... tous les jours dans la mer et dans la piscine privée de l'hôtel, nous ... la troupe de théâtre *Les Désinvoltes*, nous ... de beaux endroits pour visiter et parfois, vers le soir, je ... de la guitare sur la plage. Les autres ... jouer au volley-ball. Nous ... ici encore une semaine. Après ça, j' ... l'intention de venir en week-end à Paris. Est-ce que tu ... libre samedi, le 12 août pour sortir ensemble?

J'attends vite ta réponse.

### Amitié

Claire

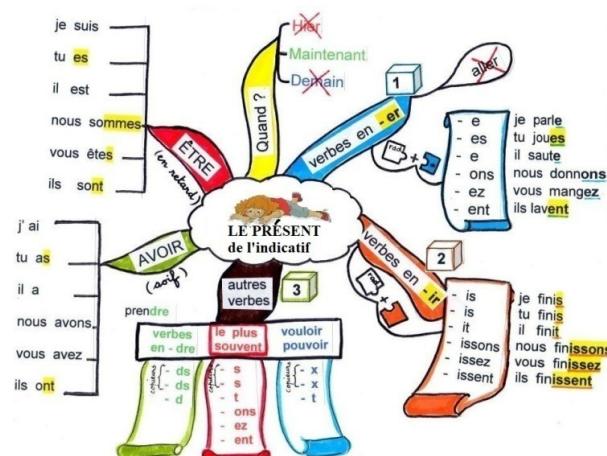
*Correction : Autocorrection des fiches par les étudiants sous la surveillance de l'enseignant.*

## SÉANCE 4 – Activité de réemploi

Durée: 20 minutes

#### Modalité de travail: en binôme

Le professeur demande aux étudiants de construire une carte heuristique basée sur les caractéristiques du temps verbal étudié. Il leur propose un exemple. Ils travaillent par groupes pendant que l'enseignant aide les débutants.



Source de l'image: <https://fantadys.com/cartes-mentales/francais/conjugaison/>

## SÉANCE 5 – Évaluation

Durée: 15 minutes

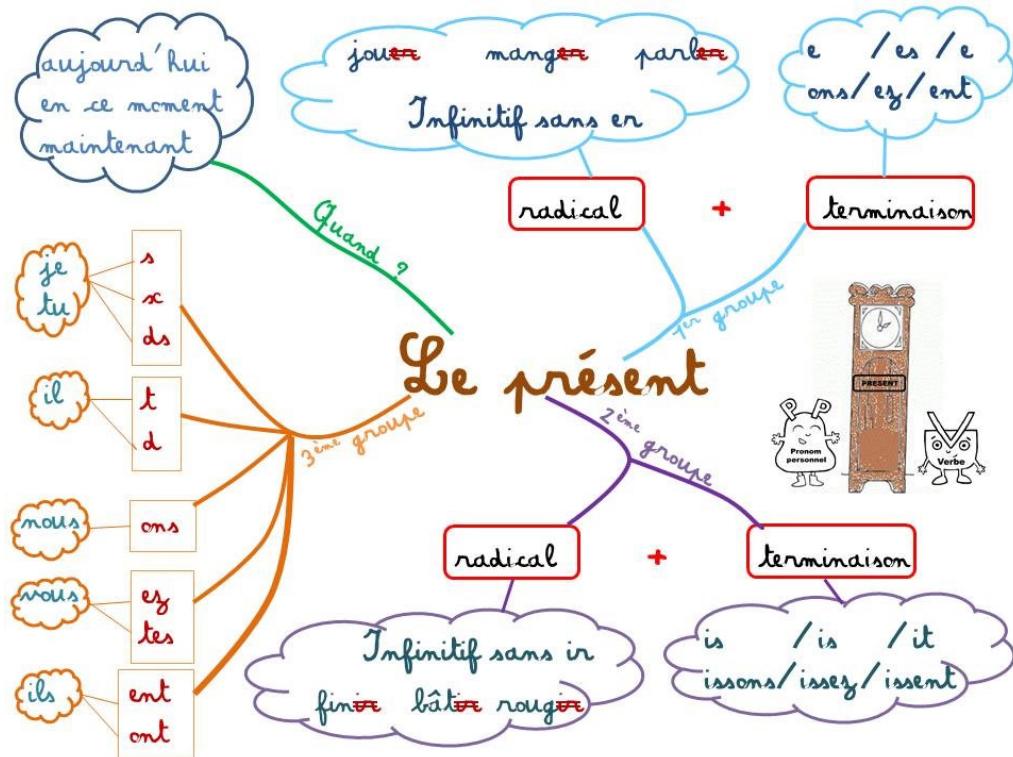
Modalité de travail: en binôme, devant la classe

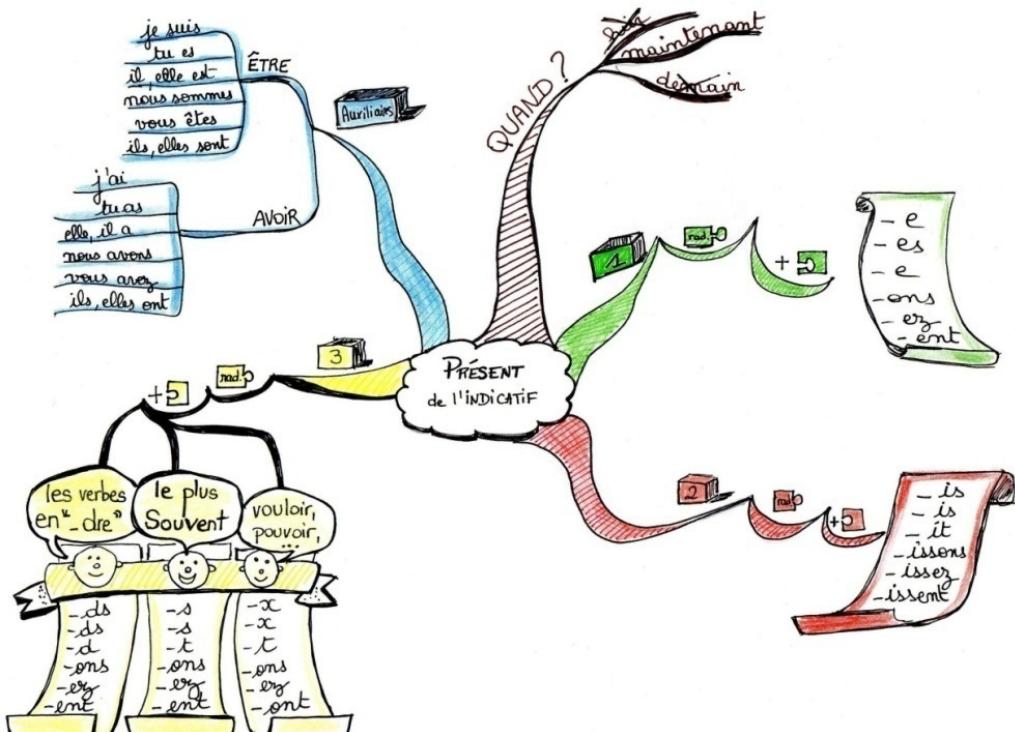
Pour entraîner l'apprenant à «élaborer» une carte mentale et à exercer la comparaison entre différentes créations, l'enseignant peut introduire une activité qui prend la forme d'une compétition.

Avec les échanges préparés lors de l'activité précédente, les apprenants présentent leurs travaux. (voir les images ci-dessous)

*Évaluation/correction:* Réinvestissement et respect des structures grammaticales acquises en classe.

Comme tâche finale, l'enseignant propose la transformation de la carte mentale élaborée en classe en un produit digital, en utilisant un logiciel de création des cartes heuristiques en partant de l'exemple de l'application Freeplane ou l'outil Prezi.





## LE PRÉSENT

Quand l'utiliser?

@ raconter l'instant présent

@ fait toujours vrai

@ habitudes

Aujourd'hui... --> En ce moment ----- Maintenant...



1 <sup>er</sup> GROUPE	2 <sup>nd</sup> GROUPE	3 <sup>rd</sup> GROUPE
-e	-is	-s ou -x
-es	-is	-s ou -x
-e	-it	-t ou -d
-ons	-issons	-ons
-ez	-issez	-ez
-ent	-issent	-ent ou -ont



## COMMENTAIRES

À travers de cette activité, on a constaté que les étudiants sont motivés et attirés par l'image proposée. La majorité des étudiants ont été actifs et impliqués dans les tâches demandées. Ils ont prouvé un gain de motivation pour apprendre et pour obtenir de bons résultats et ils ont exprimé leur désir de prendre la parole. On a corrigé l'expression pour que l'étudiant arrive à s'exprimer correctement. On a essayé de ne pas couper la parole à l'apprenant, mais de reprendre la phrase en question après qu'il ait fini de parler. Un acte de langage spécialisé est indispensable à la compréhension entre l'enseignant et l'étudiant. Il doit y avoir une entente extraordinaire entre l'expéditeur et le destinataire. (Chirițescu, IM, Păunescu, FA, 2021:98)

On peut affirmer à la fin de cette activité que l'image représente un support très efficace dans l'enseignement/apprentissage de l'expression orale et écrite, elle est un moyen facilitateur de compréhension et d'expression, mais il faut apprendre aux étudiants comment la déchiffrer et la lire.

## B. L'apprentissage réinventé à l'aide de la classe inversée

La **classe inversée** est une nouvelle méthode pédagogique intéressante pour le FLE, une solution pour la classe de langue qui suscite la motivation auprès des étudiants et qui permet d'obtenir de meilleurs résultats. Ce que l'on recherche avec cette méthode est de passer d'un modèle axé sur le professeur à un modèle **axé sur l'étudiant**. C'est une pratique qui consiste à dédier plus de temps à la production, aux pédagogies actives et à l'accompagnement individualisé en mettant en autonomie les tâches les plus simples.

Le matériel pédagogique doit être structuré en fonction des spécificités de la faculté dans laquelle l'étudiant est inscrit. La matière structurée sur des objectifs spécifiques compte beaucoup. (Chirițescu, IM., 2016:54)

Cette approche pédagogique se réalise autour des activités d'apprentissage guidées, explicites et structurées, faites en classe et qui favorise l'autonomie, le travail de groupe, la coopération et la différenciation des apprentissages et qui s'appuie sur l'acquisition individuelle des connaissances grâce aux TICE et en dehors de la classe de langue.

Le concept général consiste dans le développement d'un environnement de confiance, une ambiance décontractée et agréable en classe, dans l'individualisation du travail et de l'observation pédagogique de l'étudiant. Ainsi, l'apprenant devient acteur, se responsabilise en temps que l'enseignant joue le rôle d'un coach ou d'un tuteur.

Lors de la classe inversée, ce qui auparavant était réalisé à la maison est désormais fait en classe et inversement. Le principe est de **libérer du**



**temps** en classe afin d'organiser des activités, d'échanger et de travailler par groupes et ainsi de passer à un contenu qui a du sens pour les étudiants plutôt que de rester sur un cours magistral.

Dans la séquence suivante, on se propose de construire un parcours en classe inversée en ayant d'un plan de travail et des outils qui guident les étudiants. On crée des activités pertinentes pour le sujet choisi dans son contexte d'utilisation, on trouve des documents vidéos en ligne associées à des questionnaires qui permettent l'observation des ressources au commencement du cours, et la mise en œuvre d'un feed-back tant pour l'étudiant que pour l'enseignant. Les étudiants les plus autonomes avancent à leur rythme sans forcément avoir besoin d'être guidés.

## Séquence pédagogique

### Niveau CEFR: A2

**Sujet:** Exprimer l'accord/le désaccord, la classe inversée

**Type de leçon:** acquisition de nouvelles connaissances

**Activités langagières:-** C.O. (compréhension orale)

- C.E. (compréhension écrite)
- P.E. (production écrite)
- E.O. (expression orale)

**Prérequis:** la prise en main de l'application

**Durée de la séquence:** 2 heures

**Objectifs:** découvrir et exploiter en contexte communicatif un acte de langage, saisir l'acte de langage en question, être autonome et travailler en équipe, s'approprier des notions de langue, reconnaître dans un dialogue les expressions qui désignent un accord total, un accord faible ou un désaccord, participer volontairement et spontanément à des interactions verbales

**Supports:** *un ordinateur, une plateforme en ligne*, des capsules vidéo, des images, une fiche de travail.

### DÉROULEMENT DE LA SÉQUENCE

Les activités proposées sont:

#### ÉTAPE 1 – Présentation du diaporama «la classe inversée»

##### Modalité de travail: en classe

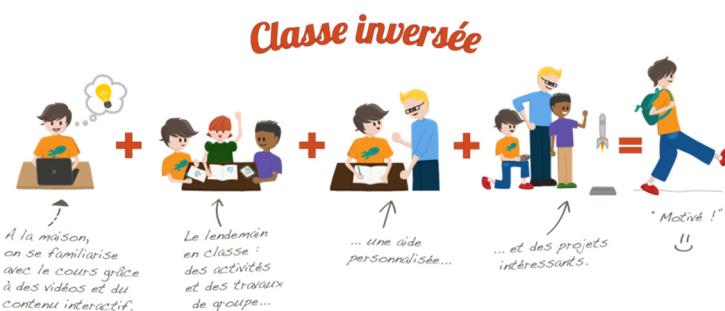
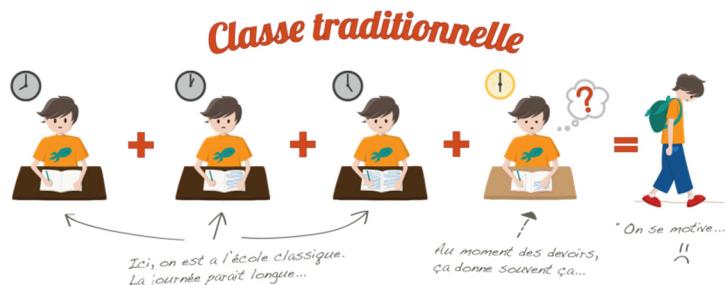
Le professeur envoie sur la plateforme en ligne, aux étudiants un contenu interactif via des supports et des vidéos en général au commencement du cours.

Ce qui compte beaucoup dans le processus d'évaluation, c'est que l'enseignant connaisse le niveau de ses étudiants. Ce n'est qu'ainsi qu'il peut organiser la matière de son cours universitaire afin que les étudiants puissent très bien le comprendre. (Chiriteșcu, IM, 2020:25)

L'enseignant offre aux apprenants des explications sur la démarche et ils doivent être conscients de leur propre intérêt dans cette expérience. Il leur présente de courts documents vidéo, et leur explique ce qu'il attend d'eux: il leur redonne le contrôle de l'apprentissage et en échange, ils doivent jouer le jeu en regardant bien les vidéos au préalable. Ils ont la possibilité de préparer le cours en autonomie à l'aide des séquences vidéo et ils peuvent à tout moment retourner en arrière ou s'arrêter. À la fin, ils répondent à des questions simples. La terminologie n'est pas seulement un signe de progrès, c'est aussi une nécessité pour que nous puissions nous comprendre, pour pouvoir communiquer. (Chiriteșcu, IM, Păunescu, FA, 2022:224)

Le professeur peut proposer un débat de groupe pour décider certaines règles (par exemple prendre des notes quand ils regardent les vidéos) qu'ils devront respecter, ce qui aura pour effet de les impliquer positivement dans la démarche.

La nouvelle notion est lancée par une discussion de „mise en bouche” et par le cliché suivant: *Le français est la plus belle langue du monde*. Les apprenants offrent des réponses pour exprimer l'accord en français standard (par exemple: je suis d'accord (avec toi/vous), vous avez (complètement) raison, je sais, nous sommes entièrement d'accord, effectivement, tout à fait, exactement, parfaitement, bien sûr, bien entendu, sans aucune doute, ça c'est (bien) vrai) et le désaccord (par exemple: je ne suis pas d'accord, tu as tort, pas du tout, absolument pas, n'importe quoi!, tu rrigoles?, jamais de la vie, même pas en rêve etc.).



Source de l'image: <https://www.classeinversee.com/>



## ÉTAPE 2

### Modalité de travail: individuelle/devant l'écran – à la maison

Les étudiants se familiarisent avec le cours à l'aide des ressources envoyées par le professeur, sur la plateforme en ligne.

Une première activité est censée développer la compétence de C.O. et elle sera destinée aux unités de vocabulaire qui servent à exprimer l'accord/le désaccord. En guise d'exemple, le dialogue proposé permet d'identifier les «outils» linguistiques qui servent à exprimer l'accord/le désaccord.

L'écoute du document audio-vidéo est suivie d'un questionnaire attribué au contexte et à la situation de communication. Deuxièmement, les apprenants sont invités à identifier les expressions utilisées pour exprimer l'accord/le désaccord. Ces expressions seront ultérieurement réutilisées dans d'autres contextes, pour la fixation.

**Les étudiants se connectent sur la plateforme** et ils exploitent la séquence vidéo 1 et la fiche (*Exprimer l'accord et le désaccord*). Comme support didactique, l'enseignant utilise un questionnaire en ligne où la séquence vidéo 2 du cours (*Dialogue*) est intégrée avec son document (Transcription). Les étudiants offrent les meilleures réponses.

Le professeur contrôle les réponses du questionnaire et note les questions des étudiants. Il est important pour les étudiants d'avoir un feedback rapide sur les réponses données.

### Exprimer l'accord/le désaccord

#### *Accord total*

1. Oui/sûrement.
2. Absolument/exactement/effectivement.
3. Bien sûr/bien entendu.
4. Tu as/vous avez (bien) raison.
5. C'est vrai/exact/sûr/certain.
6. (C'est) bon/bien.
7. (C'est) très bien !
8. (Je suis) (entiièrement) d'accord. / Je suis pour.
9. J'approuve totalement.
10. Je suis (tout à fait) de ton/votre avis. / Je suis du même avis.
11. Je partage (complètement) ton/votre avis.
12. Sans (aucun) doute.
13. Tout à fait.
14. (C'est) parfait/super !
15. Formidable !
16. Volontiers !



### **Désaccord**

1. Non.
2. Bien sûr que non.
3. Tu n'as pas/vous n'avez pas raison.
4. Ce n'est pas vrai/c'est faux.
5. Ce n'est pas bon/bien.
6. Tu as tort.
7. Je ne suis pas d'accord.
8. Je suis contre. / Je crois que non.
9. Je n'approuve pas du tout. / Je désapprouve.
10. Je ne suis (absolument) pas de ton/votre avis.
11. Je ne partage pas ton/votre avis.
12. En aucun cas.
13. Absolument pas !
14. Pas question !
15. Pas du tout !
16. C'est stupide/bête !
17. Tu te moques de moi/vous vous moquez de moi ?
18. Tu plaisantes/rigoles !
19. Tu te fiches de moi !
20. Tu parles ?
21. Tu te trompes.
22. Ça alors !
23. Je ne pense pas.
24. Pour moi, ça ne va pas.

### **Accord faible**

1. C'est possible/peut-être.
2. Si tu veux.../si vous voulez...
3. Si tu le dis.../si vous le dites...
4. En principe.
5. Admettons.
6. Pour moi, ça va.
7. On peut dire ça.
8. Ça se peut.
9. Pourquoi pas ?
10. Oui...mais...



## Dans la salle d'examen – Transcription

*L'étudiant:* - Bonjour, madame!

*Le professeur:* - Bonjour! Voici trois billets! Vous en devez choisir un, allez au pupitre et préparez-vous! Vous avez quinze minutes de préparation. Quand vous serez prêts, vous m'annoncerez.

*(Après 15 minutes)*

*L'étudiant :* - J'ai fini!

*Le professeur:* - C'est parfait! Vous pouvez commencer.

*L'étudiant :* - Il s'agit d'un article tiré du magazine *Le Monde* qui date du 17 août 2019.

*Le professeur:* - Aa! Je ne suis pas d'accord. *Le Monde* est un journal quotidien et pas un magazine.

*L'étudiant :* - Le titre de cet article est «Internet et ses pièges».

*Le professeur:* - Absolument!

*L'étudiant :* - On ne connaît pas l'auteur.

*Le professeur:* - D'accord!

*L'étudiant :* - Cet article parle des jeunes.

*Le professeur:*- Des jeunes ? Non, non, non, non! Vous avez tort ! Il parle de l'Internet. Continuez, s'il vous plaît.

*L'étudiant :* - L'auteur nous dit que l'Internet est un outil qui n'est pas utile et que ça sert seulement à jouer.

*Le professeur:* - Vous plaisantez! Il nous dit que l'Internet est un outil très utile pour trouver de nombreuses informations.

*L'étudiant :* - Certaines personnes exagèrent et deviennent dépendantes de leur ordinateur et ça c'est vrai.

*Le professeur:* - Bien sûr. Mais vous n'avez pas assez travaillé pour cet examen.

*L'étudiant :* - Madame, ce n'est pas vrai!

*Le professeur:* - Mais, oui, c'est vrai !

### Questionnaire

Cochez la bonne réponse.

1. Où se déroule la scène ?

- dans la cour de récréation
  - dans un laboratoire
  - dans une salle de classe
2. Qui sont les protagonistes du dialogue ?
- un professeur et un étudiant
  - une mère et son enfant
  - un parent et un étudiant



3. L'étudiant, que fait-il ?

- participe à une classe de français
- passe un examen
- se prépare pour un projet

4. De quoi discutent-ils ?

- d'un article tiré d'une revue pour les jeunes
- d'un article tiré d'un magazine
- d'un article tiré d'un journal quotidien

5. Quel est le sujet de l'article ?

- les jeunes
- l'Internet
- les ordinateurs

6. À quelle date est apparu l'article ?

- le 17 août 2019
- le 19 août 2017
- le 17 avril 2019

7. Quel moyen d'information est mentionné dans l'extrait de la conversation ?

- la télé
- la radio
- l'Internet

8. L'auteur, est-il connu ?

- oui
- non

9. La dame, est-elle satisfaite des réponses reçues ?

- oui
- non

10. Comment considérez-vous la performance de l'étudiant?

- satisfaisante
- assez bonne
- mauvaise

Cette activité a été très intéressante. Tous les étudiants ont bien participé et se sont impliqués dans les activités proposées. Ils ont été actifs à chaque moment de la classe. Ils ont été heureux parce qu'ils n'ont plus eu l'obligation de suivre le contenu du cours assis sur leur chaise, en notant la leçon. Ils ont pu faire des échanges entre eux ainsi qu'avec le professeur et ils ont eu la chance de réfléchir sur les notions et les sujets abordés. Cela a permis d'avoir une classe vivante. De plus, si les étudiants n'ont pas compris quelque chose lors de leur familiarisation avec les notions à l'aide des ressources du professeur, ils ont pu en profiter pour lui poser toutes les questions lors de la classe suivante pour être sûrs d'avoir tout assimilé.

Même s'ils ont eu des difficultés à concevoir leurs idées en français, on les a encouragés et aidés à finir leur travail.

Les étudiants sont restés attentifs et concentrés jusqu'à la fin de l'activité. Ils se sont impliqués dans des activités qui les ont mobilisés à travailler avec les autres pour résoudre la tâche.

### **Conclusions**

Les enseignants savent que la motivation joue un rôle primaire dans l'apprentissage. La présence d'un enseignant expérimenté conduit progressivement l'apprenant vers une motivation intrinsèque voir même la recherche de sens des apprentissages.

La motivation doit venir des enseignants mentors. Les mentors jouent un rôle très important dans la motivation des étudiants. Ils sont un modèle, à la fois méthodologiquement et psychologiquement. (Bărbuceanu, C.D., 2019:47)

Pour passer de la motivation extrinsèque à la motivation intrinsèque dans la plus part des cas, la médiation du maître est nécessaire.

Cette motivation est déterminée par:

- ✓ Les conceptions qu'il a de l'école, des études.
- ✓ Les perceptions qu'il a de lui-même (estime de soi, confiance, croyance en soi, sentiment de compétence, efficacité perçue), de l'autre (les étudiants, le professeur), de l'activité proposée (valeur, contrôlabilité/maîtrise).
- ✓ Le plaisir que l'activité lui procure.

Il est évident que l'environnement social de l'apprenant (la famille, les enseignants et l'administration) affecte d'une manière ou d'une autre la motivation des apprenants, parce qu'ils peuvent les encourager à faire des choix autonomes ou par contre, ils peuvent chercher à contrôler leurs comportements.

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# Facts, Opinions, Misinformation, and Disinformation in the Context of African-Americans' Struggles in the 20th Century and the 21st Century

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Ana-Maria DEMETRIAN\*

## Abstract

*This article is meant to contribute to an inventory of the African-American struggles in the context of the 20th century and the 21st century while considering the impact of the media and the public on facts, opinions, misinformation, and disinformation when it comes to understanding reality. America is still not the land of opportunities for everybody, some options are closed to African-Americans. Cultural diversity is accepted but with some exceptions or limits. It can still happen to an African-American to be wholly dehumanized and abused as well as to be ignored or to have his/her views repressed or misinterpreted. Reports or news that their social movements instigate violence and that there is no systematic racism in America are not substantiated by irrefutable arguments. In addition, observations made online and offline, formally and informally, are not supported by evidence but by singular cases or examples taken out of context. Emotions rule over judgements. History repeats itself since the American people have not learned their lessons properly.*

**Keywords:** facts, opinions, misinformation, disinformation, media, people, fake news, filter bubbles, echo chambers, deepfake, spoofing, typosquatting, context, Civil Rights Movements, Black Lives Matter Movement

Being able to differentiate between facts and opinions is paramount since misunderstandings can lead to disasters. In the 20th and 21st centuries, the lives of most African-Americans, with very few exceptions, can testify to this. According to the Cambridge dictionary, a fact is “something that is known to have happened or to exist, especially something for which proof exists, or about which there is information” whereas an opinion represents “the ideas that a person or a group of people have about something or someone, which are based mainly on their

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feelings and beliefs, or a single idea of this type.” Sometimes, people fail to consider these two definitions or grasp the meaning of the two words “fact” and “opinion” when reading or hearing a piece of news. Additionally, people might add to the news, writing or saying something based merely on a belief - “a mental attitude of acceptance or assent toward a proposition without the full intellectual knowledge required to guarantee its truth” (Encyclopaedia Britannica). This is how fake news appears; this type of news results from people or/and journalists being dishonest, being superficial, lacking time to process or double-check the news, or being gullible. And thus, misinformation or even disinformation begins out of a strong desire to transform reality or to match reality to beliefs of reality or a mass perception of reality; therefore, specific actions are ill-intended, ignorant, and/or deceitful.

Misinformation and disinformation have been, unfortunately, governing our lives. In the past, such issues received insufficient attention from those capable of shaking things up, i.e. the authorities or the media who benefited from it. Nowadays, again, little is being done to prevent misinformation from existing or combat disinformation, at least by having it as subjects in schools or by shedding light on them through short warnings in the media, but it is the media that takes advantage of their existence and exacerbates their effects to gain in popularity and gain money. As written above, people have also promoted these practices either knowingly or unknowingly. From a certain point, it does not matter if evil springs from incorrect or misleading information since the damage is already done. Therefore, everything can turn to dust or become a blessing just by treating a subject in an objective or a subjective way. Sensible topics which can influence or completely change people’s lives must not be treated lightly, nor must they be analyzed or judged on an impulse or a feeling. Taking things personally or providing a personal outlook can be detrimental to everybody involved. The sources can be hurt in the same measure as the recipients.

Nicole A. Cooke in *Fake News and Alternative Facts: Information Literacy in a Post-Truth Era* provides a definition of misinformation as it results from her findings and reasoning pointing out that it is “simply information that is incomplete (Fox 1983; Losee 1997; Zhou and Zhang 2007), but [that] it can also be defined as information that is uncertain, vague, or ambiguous.” (19) Further on, she also explains that “misinformation may still be ‘true, accurate, and informative depending on the context’ citing Karlova and Lee (20). Moreover, Cooke also offers the



definition of ‘disinformation’ as it appears in The Oxford English Dictionary: “the dissemination of deliberately false information” saying that “this is especially true when the information in question is likely to be broadly and quickly disseminated, such as information on the Internet” and in the same time cites Fallis and his nuanced definition: “disinformation is carefully planned, can come from individuals or groups, can be circulated by entities other than the creators (i.e., misinformation spread by a news organization), and is typically written or verbal information.” (19) Then Cooke completes the image depicted by stressing that mis/dis can be considered “as part of the information consumer’s cognitive processing of fake news in the post-truth era,” and mentions that “it is especially important to recognize the emotional, or affective, components of mis/dis” (20) because “it is the affective dimension of learning and information behavior that enables us to understand how and why fake news has become so pervasive and hard to displace.” (20) Her idea that “consumers will deliberately pass over objective facts in favor of information that agrees with or confirms their existing beliefs, because they are emotionally invested in their current mental schemas or are emotionally attached to the people or organizations which the new information portrays” (20) stands true to today’s reality and its many facets as well as to the past.

In his book *Bad News: Why We Fall for Fake News*, Robert Brotherton writes more explicitly about the connection between filter bubbles and echo chambers. He explains that “echo chamber” is a term coined in 2001 by the prolific science writer Cass Sunstein “to describe how the internet urges people to connect with like-minded others” (111) and adds that in 2011 Eli Pariser, a tech entrepreneur and author, coined a related term, “filter bubbles” which are “the result of technology imposing sameness upon us” meaning that internet search results “can be tailored to individual users, the same search producing different results depending on who is doing the searching.” (112) So, according to Brotherton, if echo chambers are “ideological enclaves of our own choosing,” then filter bubbles represent a “selective exposure, or the only slightly catchier congeniality bias,” i.e. accessing information compatible with one’s existing beliefs. (120) From here to the appearance of the term ‘post-truth’ - “relating to a situation in which people are more likely to accept an argument based on their emotions and beliefs, rather than one based on facts” (Cambridge Dictionary) - there has been just one step. Brotherton notes that “in 2016, Oxford Dictionaries declared post-truth the word of the year, defining it as ‘circumstances in which people respond more to feelings and beliefs than to facts.’” (167)



Therefore, it is clear that there are events perceived subjectively by choice as some people refuse to view them from all angles before passing on judgements. No one dupes these people; they prefer living in their reality to living in reality, which more often than not proves to be an unhappy life - unhappy because they are always in a blind fight, because their life is governed by anger, because lies never live long nor do they entail a meteoric rise to success without a spectacular fall and then going on a witch hunt will not mend the wrong done. However, some people are ignorant about contemporary politics and tactics. For instance, they are unaware of 'deepfake'- "a video or sound recording that replaces someone's face or voice with that of someone else, in a way that appears real" (Cambridge Dictionary) which along with the manipulation of photos, or the so-called photoshop, augment the problem of fake news eroding people's "ability to know what's real and what's not" (Brotherthon, 136) in a world of 'digital trickery' (Brotherthon, 138); or they are incapable of understanding the 'bad news' trend which refers to the media "proclivity for doom and gloom" (Brotherthon, 35) as it is governed by the dictum 'if it bleeds, it leads' (Brotherthon, 35) and thus feeds on the fears of many, fears that reject any rational thought; people become addicted to news which they are given daily, those 'ambient news' (Brotherthon, 89) which are in daily media feeds wearing out people who cannot stop reading them, though, being many times baffled by their number, by their various manners of introducing news, and the antagonism created; or they are drowning into a sea of information while starving for knowledge as Rutherford Rogers once said. (qtd. in English for Specific Purposes: Informatics, 32); or they are unable to identify the message of a spoof or of a parody correctly; or they do not know how to check the veracity of a site or a printed text, not to mention that they can be easily misled by typosquatting, also called URL hijacking, which takes them to sources of unreliable information purposely since many Internet users fail to notice a typo in a website address. Indeed, many issues can influence and change lives for the worst.

Young people, and not only, have to be educated in what concerns proper comprehension of written and audio materials in the same measure as they have to be shown the manner to express themselves accurately but not without raising their awareness about the implications of misinformation and disinformation, without being presented examples and consequences of such approaches to any area of life. Moreover, personalizing situations by looking at them and into them through the lens



of emotions blocks cognitive processes of information-gathering and selection, and thus the search for information is subjective while research must be objective. In her book on fake news and alternative facts, Cooke argues that “among the examples of affective information behavior to be aware of are confirmation bias, filter bubbles (also known as an echo chamber), information overload, satisficing, and information avoidance” (20). These will prevent people from acquiring knowledge and acting smartly or in a way that might affect their and their beloved’s future. In addition to all these aspects, there is also the danger of promoting something misunderstood because of the inability to think critically, find solutions, differentiate between real and fake sources, or/and select only reliable information. It is worth pointing out that sometimes failure to write or speak accurately about what one hears or reads, even from good materials, can easily disrupt values, roles, and social relationships. For example, as long as one’s input must be opinion-free, it must also be free of words expressing doubt like ‘probably,’ ‘perhaps,’ ‘supposedly,’ ‘presumably;’ or judgement words such as ‘really,’ ‘very,’ ‘great,’ ‘pretty;’ or words coming from experience even if supported by factual/verifiable information as the modals for personal advice ‘should,’ ‘ought to’ and it must consist of arguments and evidence presented to the questions one would expect people to ask to avoid framing opinions as facts although it might be difficult to see how established statements differ from personal perceptions. The facts must always be based on the idea of universality, not on exceptions or on variety and circumstances; on investigations, reports, proven credible sources, scientific analyses; and actual situations. Certain verbs signal the presence of facts: ‘to confirm,’ ‘to discover,’ ‘to demonstrate,’ ‘to show’ not as some verbs which signal the presence of opinion, even though an explanation supports it: ‘to claim,’ ‘to expect,’ ‘to suppose,’ ‘to suspect.’ Considering an opinion cannot always be a bad omen, just a sign that the idea put forward is one way of looking at things and invites further research and thinking before adhering to it.

It is necessary for everybody to realize that things must be taken with a grain of salt due to all of the above, and this is the reason why people must be taught about all the terms herein and must be given a chance to practise their understanding through reading and listening comprehension as well as through speaking and writing on various themes. Professors can recommend graphic organizers to make it easier for people to spot the issues or traps discussed above. Correct selection of materials and complete comprehension of information happen when the brain is helped to find patterns which can lead to revelations or epiphanies. Such patterns



or methods are a kind of scaffolding enabling people to drill for truths, draw parallels or make comparisons cognitively, to apply critical thinking skills to find reasons and maybe solutions for the problems encountered. One example is a simple table with two columns - facts and opinions extracted according to the principles enumerated above. Consequently, at the end of this exercise, they will have extracted the statements from the text or from the audio/video according to whether they are objective or subjective arguments. Other examples are: the well-known KWL grid - 'known,' 'wanted,' 'learned' to which T 'told' can be added; the 'why' and 'what' chart or the more complex chart comprising of the five 'wh-words': 'who,' 'what,' 'when,' 'where,' 'why,' and 'how'; and the personal organizer made using the elements already formally acquired such as the element of credibility, the verified proofs or/and examples, the language sieve or filter as shown above. Furthermore, during formal schooling, people must learn how to inform based on the sandwich/hamburger technique - introduction of the topic, support of it with arguments or examples, conclusions - and deliver speeches or written information using the appropriate language, the one to match the requirements be them subjective and thus opinion-based or objective and thus fact-based.

In addition, people must be explained the role played by context in understanding messages, and in differentiating between misinformation and disinformation, between facts and opinions. Context is nothing else but the circumstances of an event, statement, or idea, and it is to be considered as such. Facts and opinions become clearer when placed in context in order to conclude something properly. A good example in this respect is the Civil Rights Act of 1964 followed by The Economic Opportunity Act of 1965 and President Johnson's War on Poverty, The Voting Rights Act of 1965, the founding of the National Organization for Women (NOW) in 1966, the Civil Rights Act of 1968, and all of the next actions. The first act secured African-Americans equal access to public transport as well as to various public places, opened doors to education, made housing rights available to blacks, and enabled blacks and other minorities to lift job barriers, meaning that this act became a shield against violence and discrimination on the grounds of race, colour, national origins, and even religion. The second act tackled economic injustices brought about by racism. The third act assured the right to vote. The fourth act was meant to convince the American Congress that blacks needed more and were ready to fight for the rights of the vulnerable - the old or disabled Americans and pregnant women - who needed to be protected and live fully. Despite the legality of these acts, the African-Americans' struggles were far from being over because the success



of these acts in the 1960s was mainly on paper and in the laws passed, but not so much in people's attitudes and behaviour. Discrimination, oppression and exclusion have continued since then. The meaning of equality has been long debated, and the civil rights laws have been constantly reinterpreted.

The African-Americans' life in the United States of America has always been a test case of the country's claims to freedom, democracy, equality, the inclusiveness of all; about gender attitudes and issues such as family, equality, sexuality; about class issues; and about common concerns related to individual needs, aspirations, and desires.

The Civil Rights Movement of the 20th century indeed triggered positive reactions, but there were still issues to be fixed. It can be deemed successful from many points of view, and yet some of the issues risen remain without solutions even today, especially because – as history has repeatedly demonstrated – laws are not enough to change things; it takes people for everything to be effective and human beings find it hard to see the good in changes even when they stare the evidence in the face. Besides, America has disappointed and has contradicted itself before. At the time, black women felt compelled to react to the Civil Rights Movement and its results. If white women felt that the Movement focused more on blacks and achieved something for them leaving aside women's problems, black women came to contradict them in speaking of racial bias, of black women's suppression in some black organizations fighting for blacks' rights, of "the misogynist tendencies of Black Nationalism." (Burns, 297)

There was a need for feminism to raise awareness of the existence of sexism exercised by both white men and black men. Black women had to continue and enlarge blacks' struggle and women's struggle because the former focuses mainly on black male oppression ignoring black female feelings and problems or diminishing their importance, while the latter focuses on white female issues. People fail to realize or forget that the issues are not always the same, just as a white woman's life is not similar with a black woman's.

The Civil Rights Movement spread far beyond the violent death of Martin Luther King Jr. on April 4, 1968. Many reactions were based on experience and very much governed by emotions which can be understandable up to a point, and yet not everything can be forgiven. Access to genuine information was real, but so were stereotypes on both



sides and refusal to notice facts. It was not without reason that historians found it hard to pinpoint its exact end. Actually, it may be considered that the period between 1954 and 1968 represented the first phase of the Movement, during which people managed to overcome the major legal barriers, while during its second phase - after 1968 until far into 1990s – blacks and women of the two races looked for ways (1) to solve extralegal barriers related to the people's behavior and actions, even some pending legal barriers like the ERA, and (2) to live their life to the fullest.

The death of Rev. King Jr. filled the African Americans' hearts with hatred and mistrust and although some were of the opinion to keep to the nonviolent resistance and protest as Rev. King Jr. would have liked, many saw this unjust act as the last possible offence and could think of no reasons for intellectual or spoken reactions to racism anymore. Therefore, many riots erupted throughout America, especially in Washington D.C. Their outcome was death and economic losses. Historians and analysts of the Civil Rights Movement highlighted the great negative impact this black leader's death had on both the black and the white people.

First, there was the blacks' disappointment and distrust blended with their loss of hope in a better future; then there was the whites' fear and increasing rejection of blacks based on the violent riots, forgetting that they had their own history of violence – lynching, Ku Klux Klan's acts – not that any would have had any justification. Brutality has always proved to be the worst solution in any conflict and racism a double-edged sword injuring the white as well as the black. Many cities were deserted by the white people leaving them in a dilapidated and nearly irreparable state, and within them the quality of the blacks' life decays. In other cities, white officials took action to keep the blacks at a distance.

It was no surprise that in the mid-1970s, Chicago's mayor closed down several movie theatres because many blacks were going there and they were considered dangerous. Chicago segregated movie theaters and schools, and many black areas were underdeveloped and deemed dangerous. Then, it was no shock that, in 1974, the Boston's school system flunked. Judge Arthur Garrity set up a plan of mandatory school integration in reaction to the recurring racist policies in the educational system there, but he was confronted with the community's refusal to allow children to mingle, leading to paranoia and stereotyping on both sides, and underlying the great psychological distance still existing between the whites and the blacks in the urban America. It took years for many cities to come to terms



with the notion of racial diversity, especially in schools, which showed the dimensions of the chasm between the races. These problems in America's inner cities and the enduring divisions between the two races were an incentive for the growing dissatisfaction about the lack of progress in improving inner-city life for African Americans. And in many areas of America, the situation is quite similar.

Despite these social concerns, the years between the 1970s and 1990s were also marked by a preoccupation with the individual, and with private concerns such as personal growth and assertion. The 1980s saw the rise of a new African American middle class in America due to personal commitment, hard work, and education but also the everyday struggles of the African American inner-city underclass where the consequences of over a century of inequity were more than visible. In her description of the historical and social context of the 1980s, Missy Dehn Kubitschek stressed the fact that the African American community faced serious problems like "worsening poverty, weakened family and neighborhood structures for raising children, and stereotypes to justify political neglect" (Kubitschek, 132). She drew parallels between the 1980s and the 1870s-1880s by bringing into discussion the 1980s political backlash evident in the presidential campaigns invoking black men as criminals and black women as lazy and irresponsible mothers and the disinterest in developing new approaches to poverty and racism, at the same time reminding the reader of the 1880s and the rise of different groups like Ku Klux Klan and their belief in circulating vicious stereotypes as a justification for their violent oppression of blacks. Under the circumstances, in both periods, African Americans had to rely on themselves and their resources and find within their soul the strength to deal with alienation and frustration.

Nowadays, overt racism and oppression are no longer an issue, possibly because the hard-won civil rights of the 1950s and 1960s are an established reality, but the legacy of America's racist ideologies and prejudices is very much part of our daily life. It can even be said that today is worse because there is covert racism. The possibility of exercising legal rights has not influenced too much, leave alone changed people's way of thinking and acting. The land of all possibilities is rather limited in options, offering not endless opportunities but frustrations and oppression. There are still areas and/or ways to keep men and women in a predetermined place defined by skin color. Large segments of the white American population are still frightened of real contact with African Americans, continuing to cultivate their fears and exclusionary politics because of a



history of legacy and lack of knowledge, unreal causes, or unwillingness to accept integration and allow African Americans to develop.' To make matters worse even some policemen tend to believe more in stereotypes than in finding evidence in their cases.

For instance, from 1981 to 1997, the United States Department of Agriculture discriminated "against thousands of African American farmers denying loans provided to white farmers in similar conditions"<sup>1</sup> and, although black farmers won the lawsuit on discrimination, the money obtained came too late for some of them. In the twenty-first century, even if many African Americans do well individually, plenty struggle with poverty, lack of education, and domestic violence.

In an interview with Farai Chideya, activist and writer Kevin Powell speaks of the new generation's fight for racial justice. According to him, blacks are not yet entirely free. He admits that a great deal of progress has been made, but he also expresses his firm belief in the necessity of a black empowerment movement to help improve blacks' economic situation by creating opportunities for those in need and by making sure that all receive just treatment. He gives as an example the people living in Brooklyn, where things are not happening, and he makes it clear that black people's simple integration is no longer sufficient, that it must be coupled with economic integration, that is, African Americans need more than being offered access; they need to be offered the possibility of success, of ownership, of development.<sup>2</sup>

For instance, not even the election of a black president in 2008 stopped racism and prejudices. Although many viewed Barack Obama's election a step forward in race relations, the exit polls revealed a different reality in which racial divisions existed, and a majority of sixty percent voted for McCain; not to mention the riots caused by the results of this election so much written and talked about at the time.

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<sup>1</sup>[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Racism\\_in\\_the\\_United\\_States#African\\_Americans\\_in\\_recent\\_decades&gt;](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Racism_in_the_United_States#African_Americans_in_recent_decades&gt;)

<sup>2</sup> "What's Next for Civil Rights Movement?" from news and notes – interview with Julian Bond, chairman of NAACP and Kevin Powell, an activist and writer. (<http://www.npr.org/player/v2/mediaPlayer.html?action=1&t=1&islist=false&id=14991874&m=14991860-> a radio show rendered online at <http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=14991874&ps=rs>)



Black men are not the only ones who have to cope with an almost impossible to change society and deal with the social and political complications arising from it. Women and black women have “to convince Americans that granting women political, economic, and social equality with men will help the family and will help America solve some of the major problems and crises it faces” and that their independence and liberation are by no means a threat to family values or to men whatsoever.<sup>3</sup> They want for all persons “equal rights and privileges without discrimination on account of sex, race, sexual orientation, marital status, ethnicity, national origin, color or indigence.”<sup>4</sup> Although The National Organization of Women worked “for two decades to halt the epidemic of gender-based violence and sexual assault, the numbers are still shocking.”<sup>5</sup> Statistics from 2005 show the existence of a high rate of domestic and sexual violence, in which African American women occupy a principal place, and the terrifying and traumatic impact it has on children affecting their development.

It seems that America is confronted with numerous old and new problems and even nowadays this country very often disappoints. Therefore, authorities and the media ought to be in alert because of this unending repetition of history. When history repeats itself in one form, it will destroy both the black and the white people because no human being can put up with such oppression and total denial. They prove it through their stories, where the effects of unchanged historical and social components can be better viewed by adding to them the human component. Frederick Douglass’ words voiced in a speech in 1852 at a Fourth of July celebration party seem to be still valid: “Whether we turn to the declarations of the past or to the professions of the present, the conduct of the nation seems equally hideous and revolting. America is false to the past, false to the present, and solemnly binds herself to be false to the future.”<sup>6</sup>

America will see no progress or bright future if it always remains false. Additionally, the present problems and the oppressive reality prove the

<sup>3</sup> <http://www.colorado.edu/AmStudies/lewis/2010/feminism.htm#now&gt;>

<sup>4</sup> Some of the key concerns of The Constitutional Equality Amendment (CEA?) adopted by the members of NOW at the annual conference from July 1995 according to <http://www.now.org/issues/economic/cea/concept.html#THE>

<sup>5</sup> Violence Against Women in the United States: Statistics – published online at <http://www.now.org/issues/violence/stats.html>

<sup>6</sup> Included in Foner’s book The Life and Writings of Frederick Douglass.



actuality and importance of the subjects of racism and the selection of stories to be covered and the need to analyzing and then write and speak about such issues as slavery, racism, and sexism. An approach to past and present reality that implies filtering and contextualizing information to prevent misinterpretations can help the reader understand the past and learn from the lessons of resistance and protest against all forms of oppression in order to acquire general knowledge and find inspiration for his/her present struggles without repeating mistakes, something valid both for the whites as well as for the blacks.

History repeats itself and will continue to do so until lessons are learned. So far, generally speaking, people have tended to acquire the wrong skills and even enhance them for the same immoral and destructive purposes: power, money, fears, and beliefs taken to extremes based on stereotypical thinking often encouraged by the media, on ignorance or/and subjective approaches driven by personal experience. The media has improved its tactics of coverage for material gains and popularity. Newspapers and televisions are acting along with social media these days, and with the power of technology; they rarely present the facts because the facts do not sell well, so they have taken the old methods of disinformation and misinformation to the next level. Media and social media focuses not necessarily on the truth but insists on what resonates with the great majority of people or of power politics and what has a substantial potential impact triggered most often by negativity and conflict. There are also times when there is a biased coverage of those trying to resist oppression or protest against it peacefully by treating them as criminals rather than victims which makes it impossible for them to get their message across to the world while being acted upon or repressed. Past media manipulation is now called fake news, deepfakes, spoofing, and typosquatters. Moreover, the phenomenon of too much news and bad news has received huge slots of time, if not total channels, feeding on fears and/or being paid by the affluent. Other times, the media is just swamped by news introduced as opinions in order to show that it gives everybody the right to speech, but like in the past, these opinions are not very well explained, and nobody teaches or urges people to investigate further what they hear or read in order to manage to make a difference between subjective and objective ideas and thoughts.

In the Civil Rights Era, the media coverage of the movements, of their resistance and protests, was superficial and random in addition to being focused on exceptions, especially on violent happenings, according to a



renowned professor of political science: “a kind of drama to be followed and described, (not a) severe social maladjustment (that the media was supposed to analyze fully)” (Larson, 2005). It was Larson again who referred to “public truth” meaning opinions, beliefs, and news that was not necessarily accurate but accepted as truth and, when needed, even modified by omission as it was believed that the views had to match the politics of the times, of the great majority, of those in power. Such an approach was not without negative implications leading to more violent protests, more physical and psychological abuse, and more wrong perceptions for both sides - the white and the black Americans. In 2003 Schram, Soss and Fording highlighted in their writings that such practices “result in the perpetuation of certain stereotypes, if not the creation of new ones.”

The contemporary situation of African-Americans echoes their past and uncovers unsolved issues. A relevant example here would be The Black Lives Matter Movement, whose leaders started by denouncing anti-black racism, white supremacy, and police brutality and continued by trying to reshape how people think about gender, sexuality, social justice, economic injustice, and crime. The movement is grounded in a long history of African American activism, resistance and protest in the face of injustices. According to Encyclopedia Britannica, this movement is an “international social movement, formed in the United States in 2013, dedicated to fighting racism and anti-Black violence, especially in the form of police brutality. The name *Black Lives Matter* signals condemnation of the unjust killings of Black people by police (Black people are far more likely to be killed by police in the United States than white people) and the demand that society values the lives and humanity of Black people as much as it values the lives and humanity of white people.”

Black Lives Matter is another social movement demanding racial justice and fair treatment, although it has been criticized many times under the influence of inaccurate media coverage and misunderstandings as well as on account of influential people like Trump, who adamantly refuse to consider the validity of their message claiming that there is no more racism in the USA. The Republicans are among those opposing the movement, while the Democrats understand it, including Joe Biden. According to Encyclopedia Britannica, “critics of BLM made various claims, from maintaining that systemic racism does not exist in the United States to alleging that BLM encouraged violence against police. In response to BLM, opposition groups formed, including Blue Lives Matter, which supports law



enforcement, and White Lives Matter, formed by white nationalists." There have indeed been some ambiguous proposals on the part of these activists: there has been one asking for reducing police funds in order to invest in support of the community, while there has been another one insisting on training better the police force in order for them to become able to respond to any challenge according to the same legal and moral laws of justice and equality for all. Moreover, BLM activists have never argued that only black lives matter, but that black lives matter as well, so it is the language and the rhetoric that needs to be understood and not used to sway public opinion against the activists' message. Besides, decontextualizing situations like some have done can lead to disaster and more resentment. Nobody is supposed to be looking for scapegoats and support the exclusion of some over the others; they are supposed to think about solutions while analyzing facts and real occurrences in their entirety.

Using part of the truth or some authentic images to deliver fake news equals disinformation, as misinformation does not seem to comprise the whole idea here. For instance, many strong opponents of the movements invite everybody to check the images on the official site of these activists, saying that the image of the fist is a symbol of violence, of their belief that violence can solve their problems, but in reality, the symbol of the fist is totally different and resides in history. An article from Capital FM from 2020 reveals that the symbol "is a gesture for liberation for those in the black community in the ongoing fight against racism" and the same article explains that "the BLM movement adopted the powerful symbol following the death of Michael Brown in Missouri in 2014 - the unarmed black teenager was shot dead by police - and that the skyward fist represents the 'hand's up, don't shoot pose, which is commonly seen in protests and social media posts." This article also stresses that "the skyward fist has a powerful history behind it, stemming as a symbol of defiance and being often associated with left-wing politics as well as oppressed groups, according to ABC News" and that it is a historic gesture used to represent the struggle for civil rights and as a sign of resistance promoted by the 1960s organization The Black Panther Party in addition to the meaning of the symbol as a cry for black liberation adopted by allies of the black community. Clearly, there are still aspects that need to be clarified, but it is evident that there is an urge to prevent the disaffected looking for scapegoats for the American misfortunes and troubles, to stop the use of the language and acts of exclusion 'us /vs/ them.'



Past and Present resistance refers to challenge by subversion or inversion of situations, opposition by refusing to comply and choosing a different path from the established ones. Sometimes the choice is based on the need and desire for that other thing which often brings relief and support and always the feeling of satisfaction. Some other times the choice is made out of spite or vengeance, which can be double-edged and lead to destructive consequences, to endurance which can be manifested through silence and/or acceptance of the other's authority without internalizing his/her beliefs though or through the struggle to overcome hardships and the capacity to withstand something/to cope with the adverse effects of something.

These definitions of resistance refer to black Americans who have to face the crude racial, sexist and class-related reality of the 20th century and the 21st century America. As a result, it is evident that white Americans, too, can be described as resistant in their unwillingness to accept change, which can alter or disturb their world no matter if this change is threatening. They see any change threatening to undermine their power, which is wrongly considered to be theirs by birthright and used to dominate and subjugate.

White Americans see change as a limitation not only of power but of everything; they cannot make a connection between change and progress, and from here, their continuing racial attitudes. Some white Americans are so used to certain codes and conventions that they fail to understand how damaging and dangerous these are for everybody and/or how these can stop evolution.

As for past and present protest, it refers to a direct attack and confrontation, revolt, outright rebellion, vehement and/or violent action, a provocative attitude. So many protests are meant to shock, to spur action and reaction, to trigger alarm signals and to awaken people's consciousness given the evident urgency of the situation, which is so horrifying and traumatizing that it entails uncontrollable suffering and sheer rage.

Things must change. The media and the country must aim at a change of attitude and actual improvement from a sociological point of view as well as from a human point of view, through the power of example and education which are necessary for those living, breathing, and thinking in an atmosphere polluted by oppressive beliefs and attitudes, in a world of



poisonous conceptions defended widely and sincerely which can lead only to frightening life and experience. The presentation of such issues must be so clearly and honestly made, the arguments against these ills so solid, and the solutions so well exemplified that the messages leave no other alternative than a positive response without room for interpretation.

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# On the path to digital english education

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## Abstract

*This paper brings forth a parallel between in-person and online education, while also touching upon different and distinct principles underpinning the process of teaching and learning English.*

*Deeply entrenched in the societal mindset, the belief that education entails the use of a standard classroom has been dramatically challenged over the past two and a half years. Hence, the emergence of a paradigm shift connected to the very pillars of education; in a nutshell, the traditional teaching and learning environment, represented by classroom-based education/ face-to-face/ in-person, or on-site classes versus web-based classes, or synchronous distance/ online/ remote education, also referred to as e-learning.*

**Keywords:** *on-site classes, paradigm shift, digital education, European Union digital policies*

## 1. Introduction

In a fast-paced modern world, the concept of '*communication*' has been permeating our language as one of the buzz words. Coupled with '*information*' and '*technology*', these driving forces map out much of our working life.

Driven by the Covid-19 pandemic, the shift from in-person to remote education took place at an unprecedented pace.

Needless to reinforce that transitioning from on-site education to synchronous online learning wasn't particularly smooth. Nonetheless all the questions it gave rise to, alongside the debates whether synchronous remote education could have ever been a feasible replacement for face-to-face instruction, or if it could have ever met at least some of students' needs, nowadays, in short, we are better informed to accurately delineate its advantages from its disadvantages thanks to the growing body of information available on the topic at hand.

With regard to the advantages of online education, there are convergent ideas and opinions, prompting us to believe that, indeed, the scaffolding

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which supports this undertaking includes creativity, diversity, student-centred methods, time-management skills, engaging and interactive topics, as well as an inclusive approach.

## 2. VUCA Challenges

Navigating a world marked by *VUCA* initials, namely Volatility, Uncertainty, Complexity, Ambiguity, should also entail a strong sense of preparedness to embrace this 'liquid environment as a challenge rather than a threat. [...] Therefore, resilience and the capacity to outdo oneself<sup>1</sup> are two characteristics likely to smooth students' way through university.

In line with this framework, we maintain that students need to acquire the necessary skills to grapple with an unpredictable and ever changing environment, as well as with a 'complex, confusing and difficult to read world.' 'Providing the students with a global overview' and ensuring they gain knowledge relative to 'quickly adapt to changes, to be flexible, to handle uncertainty, to foresee problems, to be capable of making agile decisions, to establish priorities, and to be resilient' are pivotal to their career paths.

By the same token, '[...] they will be able to adapt to multicultural working environments, being able to develop professionally in other countries and cultures without difficulty. Therefore they have to rely on competences and skills.'<sup>2</sup>

## 3. Education Digitalisation: Understanding the European Union Policies

The European Union policy initiative, a two-fold Digital Education Action Plan (2021-2027), envisages to equally 'foster the development of a high-performing digital education ecosystem' and 'to enhance digital skills and competences for the digital transformation', this policy initiative being, therefore, what will build momentum on the journey to the digital age.

Consequently, the European Union pledges to bring education into the digital age by putting in places policies like the Digital Education Action Plan (2021-2027): '*What is the Digital Education Action Plan?*' The Digital Education Action Plan (2021-2027)<sup>3</sup> is a renewed European Union (EU)

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<sup>1</sup> <https://www.ceuuniversities.com/en/vuca-world-how-universities-should-address-it/>; 'VUCA World: How Universities Should Address It', retrieved June 12, 2022

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>3</sup> <https://education.ec.europa.eu/focus-topics/digital-education/about/digital-education-action-plan>; 'Digital Education Action Plan (2021-2027)', retrieved June 3, 2022: '*Why is action needed? Digital transformation has transformed society and the economy with an ever deepening impact on everyday life. However, until the COVID-19 pandemic, its impact on education and training was much more limited. The pandemic has demonstrated that having an education and training system which is fit for the digital age is essential. While*



policy initiative to support the sustainable and effective adaptation of the education and training systems of EU Member States to the digital age. The Digital Education Action Plan offers a long-term strategic vision for high-quality, inclusive and accessible European digital education; addresses the challenges and opportunities of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has led to the unprecedented use of technology for education and training purposes; seeks stronger cooperation at the EU level on digital education and underscores the importance of working together across sectors to bring education into the digital age; presents opportunities, including improved quality and quantity of teaching concerning digital technologies, support for the digitalisation of teaching methods and pedagogies and the provision of infrastructure required for inclusive and resilient remote learning.<sup>4</sup>

This being highlighted, with the first priority area of the European Union two-fold Digital Education Action Plan (2021-2027), both highly required infrastructure and human resources digital competences are gaining prominence.

In response to the digital education demands, now more than ever, on the increase, the European Union is bound to untangle its complexities: 'To achieve these objectives, the Action Plan sets out two priority areas.' The first one is relative to '*fostering the development of a high-performing digital education ecosystem*' and 'includes: infrastructure, connectivity and digital equipment; effective digital capacity planning and development, including up-to-date organisational capabilities; digitally competent and confident teachers and education and training staff as well as high-quality learning content, user-friendly tools and secure platforms which respect e-privacy rules and ethical standards.'<sup>5</sup>

In addition, the second priority area of the European Union two-fold Digital Education Action Plan (2021-2027) articulates how relevant digital literacy should become, while also questioning the prevailing imbalance between male and female digital specialists which originates in a gender-based discriminatory treatment.

The items contained in the second priority area range from 'basic digital skills' to 'advanced digital skills': '*Enhancing digital skills and competences for*

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*COVID-19 demonstrated the need for higher levels of digital capacity in education and training, it also led to the amplification of a number of existing challenges and inequalities between those who have access to digital technologies and those who do not, including individuals from disadvantaged backgrounds. The pandemic has also revealed a number of challenges for education and training systems related to the digital capacities of education and training institutions, teacher training and overall levels of digital skills and competences.'*

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*



*the digital transformation.* This requires: basic digital skills and competences from an early age; digital literacy, including tackling disinformation; computing education; good knowledge and understanding of data-intensive technologies, such as artificial intelligence (AI); advanced digital skills, which produce more digital specialists, and ensuring that girls and young women are equally represented in digital studies and careers.<sup>6</sup>

#### **4. How Beneficial Is Remote Education?**

Addressing the topic of remote education, we will probably recall Benjamin Franklin's words, '*An investment in knowledge always pays the best interest*'<sup>7</sup>, and wonder, at the same time, how much they echo our arduous struggle to assess the paradigm shift in education: online rather than on-site classes?

In such an interconnected world as ours, with a mine of information lying at our fingertips, we have every confidence that the digital education is paving the way for the future.

As Joshua Stern argues in his *Introduction to Online Teaching and Learning*<sup>8</sup>, 'The minimum requirement for students to participate in an online course is access to a computer, the Internet, and the motivation to succeed in a non-traditional classroom. Online courses provide an excellent method of course delivery, unbound by time or location, allowing for accessibility to instruction at anytime from anywhere. Learners find the online environment a convenient way to fit education into their busy lives. The ability to access a course from any computer with Internet access, 24 hours a day, seven days a week is a tremendous incentive for many of today's students. Some of the main advantages of online learning include: a)convenience- 24/7 access from any online computer; accommodates busy schedules; no commuting, no searching for parking; b)enhanced learning-research shows increased depth of understanding and retention of course content; more meaningful discussions; emphasis on writing skills,

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<sup>6</sup>*Ibid.*

<sup>7</sup> <https://everydaypower.com/quotes-about-education/>, retrieved May 31, 2022

<sup>8</sup><https://www.wlac.edu/online/documents/otl.pdf>; 'Introduction to Online Teaching and Learning' by Joshua Stern, pp.2-3, retrieved June 5, 2022: "*Online learning is catalyzing a pedagogical shift in how we teach and learn. [...] The instructor's role is changing from the 'sage on the stage' to 'the guide on the side'. [...] Derived from the work of Swiss philosopher, Jean Piaget, constructivism emphasizes: a) the learner as a unique individual; b) the relevance of the learner's background and culture; c) increased responsibility for learning belongs to the student; d) motivation for learning comes from successful completion of challenging tasks; e) instructors as facilitators helping learners develop their own understanding of content; f) learning is an active, social process; g) the dynamic interaction between task, instructor and learner."*"



technology skills, and life skills like time management, independence, and self-discipline; c)levelling of the playing field - students can take more time to think and reflect before communicating; shy students tend to thrive online; d) interaction - increased student-to-teacher and student-to-student interaction and discussion; a more student-centred learning environment; less passive listening and more active learning; e)innovative teaching - student-centred approaches; increased variety and creativity of learning activities; address different learning styles.<sup>9</sup>

As of now, we argue that there is a wealth of papers documenting the extent to which both instructors and students have been receptive to the paradigm shift in education. To this end, 'Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) and digital devices have been used in various fields of education and have enabled a paradigm of technology-enhanced language learning (TELL) in the field of language learning. [...] Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has become a major field of language education. More recently, Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), which is based on using mobile devices such as notebooks, podcasts, MP3s, and smartphones, has been constantly promoted in the field of language education research. [...] Teachers should try to understand learners' characteristics and adapt their teaching approach to their learning strategies. [...] The digital device enables differentiation according to the learners' language proficiency or characteristics, as well as providing immediate feedback and active interactions. Additionally, it enables learner-centred education that allows the learners to plan, manage, and evaluate the process of their learning independently.'<sup>10</sup>

## 5. Reflecting on the Drawbacks of Online Classes

Nonetheless its invaluable contribution towards empowering teachers and students alike to readily mount an effective response and, therefore, to run day-to-day classes in the face of an overwhelming situation, a *Black Swan* event of the magnitude of the Covid-19 pandemic, there are still compelling arguments proving that its use should be limited, mainly oriented to what is known as *blended learning* rather than entirely replacing classroom-based education.

With a view to digital education, Priyanka Gautam finds it appropriate to insert the following among the disadvantages of online learning: 'a) inability to focus on screens: for many students, one of the biggest challenges of

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<sup>9</sup> *Id.*, pp.3-4

<sup>10</sup> <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1242644.pdf>; 'A Study into Students' Use of Digital English Learning Strategies in Tertiary Education' by Gyoomi Kim & Jiyoung Bae, pp. 21-2, retrieved June 7, 2022



online learning is the struggle with focusing on the screen for long periods of time; with online learning, there is also a greater chance for students to be easily distracted by social media; b) technology issues: another key challenge of online classes is Internet connectivity; this is detrimental to the education process; c) sense of isolation: students can learn a lot from being in the company of their peers; d) teacher training: online learning requires teachers to have a basic understanding of using digital forms of learning; e) manage screen time: many parents are concerned about the health hazards of having their children spend so many hours staring at a screen; this increase in screen time is one of the biggest concerns and disadvantages of online learning.<sup>11</sup>

## 6. Queries at the Heart of Classroom-based Learning

Classroom-based education may be shaped by puzzling out the appropriate coordinates like: 'a) adapting lessons in response to student cues; b) empowering students; c) communicating clear expectations for behaviour; d) cultivating creativity and spontaneity; e) challenging students to do their best; f) establishing a culture of accountability in the classroom; g) organizing learning activities and resources; h) setting clear goals and monitoring progress; i) building trust; j) making learning relevant to students; k) facilitating teamwork and cooperation; l) maximizing instruction and learning time.' (Quinn *et al.*, 2014: 175)

Along the same lines, 'When framing their orientation to teaching and learning, teachers may reflect upon how prominent these 12 practices are, thus also ranking them according to the relevance to their work.' (*Ibid.*)

In reference to acquiring a foreign language, we underscore that it's worth mentioning how learners can expedite the process thanks to their efforts to also internalize the respective language: 'Interview research reported in Gillette (1994) and de Courcy (1993) provides some additional insights into the learning function of private speech. Gillette found that effective university learners of French as a foreign language often reported that they privately (for example, when walking their dog) [...] practiced and experimented with words, sounds, and structures in the L2. Ineffective learners, on the other hand, reported almost no such mental activity and instead preferred to rely almost exclusively on dictionaries, grammar books, and class notes. In other words, they made little effort to internalize the language.' (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006: 182)

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<sup>11</sup> <https://elearningindustry.com/advantages-and-disadvantages-online-learning>; 'Advantages and Disadvantages of Online Learning' by Priyanka Gautam, retrieved May 25, 2022



Furthermore, as far as the two major approaches to English are concerned, Sara Thorne is of the view that two attitudes are mainly calibrating the collective mindset: "There are two distinct approaches to language: *prescriptivism* and *descriptivism*. The prescriptivists believe that English is governed by a set of rules that dictate a 'proper' and 'correct' use of language. They believe that if the 'rules' are not obeyed, the speaker or writer is 'wrong'. The form of English they see as 'correct' has a high social prestige – it is associated with formal written and spoken language and is used in dictionaries, grammar books and language handbooks. Because prescriptivists regard one particular form of English as the 'best', they dislike linguistic change. They see it as a process of decay which erodes standards and leads to a debased form of English. The descriptivists, on the other hand, observe language as it is spoken or written in different situations. They aim to describe the ways in which language varies according to the user, the use and the context. While prescriptivists dislike language change, descriptivists accept it as inevitable. They recognise that a living language cannot be fixed, but will adapt to meet the demands of its users." (Thorne, 2008: 98)

Additionally, in order to broaden students' linguistic horizons, we need to raise their awareness of '*Audience, purpose and context*'. All speakers and writers make decisions about the kinds of language they use - often subconsciously. They think about whom they will be addressing (audience) and the kind of relationship they need to create. They assess the formality or informality of the occasion (context) and the reason for the speech or writing (purpose). Lexical choices are then a reflection of their assessment of the linguistic situation.' (*Id.*, p.99)

## 7. Conclusion

There is room for improvement, a claim also supported by the European Union that has envisaged robust changes in terms of education digitalisation.

Regardless of how many challenges this endeavour will entail, if we truly want our joint efforts to come to fruition, we will have to consider devising new digital English methodologies and examining students' digital English learning strategies (DELS) to ensure not only the transfer of information, but also the design of collaborative classes in the pursuit of capturing students' interest and increasing their attention span. Furthermore, *collaborative classes* are indicative of successful educators now, as it used to be the case during Benjamin Franklin's life, too: '*Tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I learn.*'<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>12</sup> <https://quotesgram.com/quotes-on-getting-an-education/>, retrieved May 31, 2022



To conclude, an unstoppable result-oriented mindset, which fuels performance, will align our words and actions.

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# Strategies in Infusing Online Technology into a Technical English Lesson

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Loredana Daniela ISPAS\*

## Abstract

*The paper charts our experience insights in teaching English online, the challenges we have faced and sometimes, but not all the time, conquered. The article shares a variety of experiences lived during the pandemic period when we were forced to teach strictly online. We also debate some of the changes that have occurred and we offer some tips and tricks in creating lessons online. Flexibility is the most important benefit of infusing online English lessons.*

**Keywords:** *online learning, virtual audience, mobile technologies, online teaching, student profile*

## Online Learning/ Teaching

Over the past ten years education and teaching have modified a lot because of the changing nature of student profile, economic pressures, and health and safety issues. Before the recent Covid-19 crisis we have had the traditional schooling system where students enter the classroom, interact, work together on projects, socialize. Here the teacher has multiple roles: transmits information, supervises, motivates or even mentors students. The opposite system to the traditional one is online education. Because of the necessity of social distancing, the traditional classroom has been replaced with the "GOOGLE" Classroom. There are some advantages in teaching technical English online. It is convenient as it can be done from home and thus it is more comfortable. It saves a considerable amount of time, money and energy by moving into the home space. Some learning has occurred in live online sessions, some through individual study. However, it certainly lacks the impact of face-to-face teaching.

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Distance teaching has always supported communication and learning for people who can't reach the traditional face-to face lessons. "Some of the main benefits of online learning (a form of distance learning) are flexibility (people can learn at any time of day or night without being tied to a class schedule), consistency (everyone gets the same quality of training , regardless of where they're located), and quick dissemination of critical knowledge."<sup>1</sup>

One essential advantage of using online (Internet) technologies is the capacity to easily update the materials that change frequently. After this provocative period many questions have come to our mind: Are we ready to accept that the blended teaching/learning or hybrid teaching/learning will be the answer to education in the coming years?! Are we prepared for this shift? Are teachers ready for this new model of education?! Will students adapt to virtual classrooms?! How technology will change education? How fast blended teaching/learning will become the mainstream?! In the context of the pandemic period the answers to these questions conclude that a combination of the technology-based teaching/learning and the classroom-based teaching/learning often works best.

Another challenging and volatile element is the assessment of the online learner/student. To evaluate the students' knowledge and skills requires different tactics in these two different environments (online or face-to-face environment).

When we have started teaching English online we had may worries: if we (teachers) possess the right skills for using technology infrastructure, if we have IT support, as well as if students are ready (the necessary equipment and Internet skills). In the same time we have been concerned about their motivation in learning in a new way.

To sum up, there are many studies indicating that "there are no significant differences in achievement and the satisfaction of students in distance education classes when compared to the more traditional modes of delivery."<sup>2</sup>

### **Online Student Profile/Online Teacher Profile**

Students are different: some enjoy learning and take pride in academic accomplishments, others need help to recognize their talents and skills for their future, but all should have qualities such as: desire in achieving their objectives, perseverance or dedication to produce great output,

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<sup>1</sup> Patti Shank, Amy Sitze (2004) *Making Sense of Online Learning: A Guide for Beginners and the Truly Skeptical*, Pfeiffer, p. XVIII Introduction

<sup>2</sup> Rogers, Patricia L., Berg, Gary A., Boettcher, Judith V., Howard, Caroline, Justice, Lorraine, Schenk, Karen D. (2009) *Encyclopedia of Distance Learning*, Second Edition, Idea Group Inc., p. 1



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responsibility for their acts and consequences of their actions, attentiveness on what the teacher is trying to transmit during lectures, balance, and a positive attitude.

There are also different teachers but some traits are common: empathy is essential for the student emotional welfare; adaptability means to adjust their teaching methods and expectations; good communicators are able to meet the needs of their students.

These attributes are general and synthesize both face-to-face teaching and online teaching. Today's online teachers know they should possess many other qualities: creativity, specialized training in using new technologies, good knowledge of curriculum, and hard work in preparing materials to keep students engaged. While today's online students should also have: online students need basic technical skills to succeed. These include the capacity to create new documents, use a word processing program, navigate the Internet, and download software. Online students should be determined and self-motivated to succeed. Online learning requires internal motivation, responsibility, and a certain level of maturity. Effective time-management skills have to be learnt and they assure good habits for students to be well-organized. Teachers in online lectures employ a variety of techniques aimed at engaged students.

In order to set off for face-to-face interaction, online lectures use group projects. The group projects help students to establish and accept different roles in the learning process. Therefore, the ability to adapt is an important element students can learn from online education. The online education offers the unique advantage of transmitting the latest information within a domain.

One inconvenience for online learning is the lack of motivation because students do not have the opportunity to interact with fellow students to learn the same course material. In other words, motivation is the engine of the study that keeps students involved in monotonous and boring subjects. Working from home deals with the leakage of focus and concentration. One of the biggest disturbing factor when working from home is the temptation of websites and social media.

Another important factor both for teachers and students when they are working or studying from home is the way they treat the online courses. If they treat them like a holiday (very relaxed, in a comfy mood) it is possible to miss the routine. It is very important for us (students and teachers) to get into a rhythm of waking up at the same time every day, starting your online work at the same time, and finishing at the same time. To do that, you treat the online courses like a face-to-face course. Creating a work-life balance means to help people to stay on schedule and establishing limits.



## Strategies for an Effective Online Technical English Course

For many years computer-based activities have been viewed as a simple and occasional tool used in teaching technical English, but nowadays the digital devices become essential instruments for infusing technology into English classes for global interaction and global literacy. "In this approach, mastery of language , mastery of new technologies, and the ability to combine language and technology to read and write the world become inseparable goals of the international English language classroom. Students deploy a variety of autonomous learning tools, such as concordancers and automated scoring engines, and an even greater variety of communication tools, from Skype and podcasts to blogging and microblogging, to hone their language and literacy skills as they use English to interact with others, publish their work, and leave their mark on society."<sup>3</sup> Therefore, the technology approach is an umbrella that incorporates the communicative approach, direct method, the audiolingual or the audiovisual method. According to Richards, the development of communicative competence includes the following aspects of language knowledge: "knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions; knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (for example, knowing when to use formal and informal speech) or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication; knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (for example, narratives, reports, interviews, conversations); knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge (for example, through using different kinds of communication strategies)."<sup>4</sup>

Teaching technical English online with the help of technology determines the use of a series of strategies and approaches. We are going to sketch some of them considered significant from our point of view. One basic strategy is represented by the choice of the right teaching materials (textbooks) adapted to the online teaching. First of all, according to the time-management in virtual classes, teachers who have to teach specialized/professional English use textbooks which bring many advantages, as they provide key ideas for activity design. Materials used in virtual classrooms are a great time-saver for teachers. These specialised

<sup>3</sup> Alsagoff, Lubna, Lee McKay, Sandra, Guangwei Hu, Willy A. Renandya (2012) *Principles and Practices for Teaching English as an International Language*, Routledge Taylor& Francis Group, New York and London, p. 67

<sup>4</sup> Richards, Jack C., (2006) *Communicative Language Teaching Today*, Cambridge, p.3



textbooks include listening-texts of high quality spoken by native speakers. Furthermore, technology supports a series of programmes and apps for language learning which are very helpful in terms of individualised and autonomous forms of learning.

"The texts are usually accompanied by activities and tasks that support the learners in their comprehension processes, structure and assess their learning process or serve as an initiator for oral (speaking and mediating) and written language production. Through the work with fictional and non-fictional authentic texts, learners will enlarge their vocabulary and grammatical knowledge and develop their intercultural competences further. Moreover, the work with texts and the continuation of a language portfolio, a documentation tool of student's work, which can be used for self-observation and the evaluation of their learning processes, contribute to students' methodological competences." <sup>5</sup>

Another vital strategy in virtual technical English classes deals with the selection of training materials for communicative and cultural competences necessary for their professions. For example, students training for Automotive Engineering sector will practise how to discuss with their providers on the phone or face-to-face, how to read technical English handbooks, or how to communicate with other engineers from different countries via Internet. Additionally, technical students will be trained with intercultural competences (e.g. which topics, gestures, or comments should be used when talking to a business partner from another country).

Teacher professionalism and good teaching practice in online are two key elements in academic education. Good teaching practice is achieved by dealing with notion of classroom leadership and efficient time management. The teachers should be oriented towards competence and efficacy, they should possess varied methods, they will promote active and independent learning. Online teacher professionalism means to include some aspects: task-based and creative forms of learning, rich language input by using a series of texts, and cooperative and collaborative forms of learning. Therefore, some procedures are necessary for a good teaching development: providing right language models (examples of words and grammatical structures), providing input at the proper level of difficulty, planning suitable goals for online lessons, evaluating and adapting technical materials, monitoring and guiding students' language use, maintaining active student involvement, or evaluating students' learning. Richards (2010) asks some

<sup>5</sup> Surkamp, Carola, Viebrock, Britta (2018) *Teaching English as a Foreign Language - An Introduction*, J. B. Metzler Verlag, p.28



questions very useful for individual reflection which can be adapted to the current situation (online teaching period):

1. What kind of online teacher am I?
2. What am I trying to achieve for myself and for my online learners?
3. How and why do I teach the way I do?
4. What are my strengths and limitations as an online technical English teacher?
5. How have I developed as a teacher since I started teaching online?
6. What are the gaps in my knowledge?
7. What is my philosophy of teaching and how does it influence my online teaching?
8. What role do I play in my college and is my role fulfilling?
9. What is my relationship with my colleagues and how productive is it, especially during the online phase?

According to Koehler and Mishra "the basis of effective teaching with technology, requiring an understanding of the representation of concepts using technologies; pedagogical techniques that use technologies in constructive ways to teach content; knowledge of what makes concepts difficult or easy to learn and how technology can help redress some of the problems that students face; knowledge of students' prior knowledge and theories of epistemology; and knowledge of how technologies can be used to build on existing knowledge to develop new epistemologies on strengthen old ones."<sup>6</sup>

In conclusion, the paper debates differences and similarities in terms of online teaching/learning and traditional education. The essential advantages in infusing online technology into an English lesson are flexibility, quick update of materials, creativity, and adaptability. Simultaneously, one important disadvantage of this type of education is the lack of students' motivation because the students do not interact with their colleagues. The paper also speaks about the qualities and the attributes of the teachers and the students using online technologies. Because online learning is more interactive, easier to assimilate, we can say for certain that it will represent the future in education.

Online learning and teaching are challenging, and we believe that a combination between traditional teaching and online teaching will lead to an outstanding outcome in any type of education.

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<sup>6</sup> Koehler, Matthew J., Mishra, Punya (2009) What is Technological Pedagogical Content? In: *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 9/1, 60-70, p. 66



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# Metafora „inimii frânte” sau sindromul Tako-tsubo

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Laviniu LĂPĂDAT,  
Maria Magdalena LĂPĂDAT

## Résumé

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

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

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

## 1. Metaforele inimii

Dacă primul sens al cuvântului inimă este unul medical, de „organul intern musculos central al aparatului circulator, situat în partea stângă a toracelui, care are rolul de a asigura, prin contractiile sale ritmice, circulația săngelui în organism, la om și la animalele superioare; cord”( DEX 2009), acesta trece în limbajul comun într-o serie de locuțiuni și expresii, una mai grăitoare decât alta. Limba română actuală este o fidelă oglindă a societății, în continuă căutare de sine în ceea ce privește identitatea lexicală. Problema inimii este pasionantă, tulburătoare și neelucidată de cunoașterea umană. Inima este „sinteza și centrul ființei umane, a funcțiilor și facultăților spirituale omenești”( O dragoste mincinoasă. Păcatul desfrânării). Taina omului este, în ultimă analiză, taina inimii sale și a bogatului ei univers, căci inima, fiind de natură spirituală, se află la hotarul dintre Dumnezeu și noi, fiind simțirea, voința, mintea omului, toate la un loc.(de Beauregard, 1995: 179)



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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

## 2. Sindromul Tako-tsubo

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

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

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



sau cardiomiopatie de stres. Pe radiografii, inima mărită a bolnavilor seamănă cu acest vas.

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

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

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

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



ventriculului stâng. Complicațiile acute survin la 20 % dintre pacienți. Decesul ca urmare a unui Takotsubo este rar 1-3,2 %, dar în caz de supraviețuire se constată o recuperare ad integrum a funcției miocardice în 94-100 % din cazuri (Gianni, Dentali, Grandi, Sumner, Hiralal, Lonn, 2006; 27(13): 1523-9; Donohue, Movahed, 2005; 10(4): 311-6).

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

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

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

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



se contractă normal (Kolkebeck, Cotant, Krasuski, 2007; 25(1): 92-5; Park, Prasad, Rihal, 2009; 84(6): 514-521; Riera, Llompart-Pou, Carrillo, 2010; 68: E13-E15; Scheffel, Stolzmann, Karlo, 2008; 31(1): 226-7).

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

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

### **Concluzie**

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

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

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# The art of communication: teaching verbal and nonverbal skills in commercial negotiations

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Adriana LĂZĂRESCU

## Abstract

*This paper focuses on various ways students can learn how to use nonverbal communication techniques in a negotiation together with professional selling skills in order to obtain increased sales results. Starting from the idea that nonverbal communication is a vital part of the sales negotiation process, we intend to show that although most students have already learnt how to say the right things, they often lose the sale because of self-defeating nonverbal expressions. The most important nonverbal expressions found in a selling situation will be analysed, together with their genuine meaning in terms of a real selling strategy. Nonverbal expressions used in the communication process in selling will be divided into three major groups that might help students, future sales people, have the accurate response to customers' attitudes.*

**Keywords:** nonverbal communication, negotiation, selling, signal, message.

In the current business reality, it is utterly important to teach students that the elements of nonverbal communication are essential in a negotiation. They can show whether the prospective customer is impatient, sceptical, or enthusiastic and interested during the presentation. Our students need to learn that the most interesting feature of nonverbal communication in a negotiation is that the prospective customer provides all this information without being fully aware of doing so. If he constantly has eye contact, sits comfortably in order to listen and bents forward in order to talk, then we may register a positive response to the negotiation presentation. However, if he is impatient, he has the tendency to continuously play with objects and if he seems unsettled, then he surely has no interest in what is being presented to him.

There are three separate stages of awareness and skill necessary before salespeople become experts in verbal and nonverbal communication:

Stage 1: Buyer awareness – In order for salespeople to understand their prospective buyers, they have to be aware of the five major nonverbal



communication channels – body angle, face, arms, hands, and legs – and be able to interpret the buyers' nonverbal signals.

**Stage 2: Self awareness** – Salespeople's own nonverbal expressions can make or break a sale. Once they understand their own nonverbal behaviour, and how to best use it when they interact with clients, salespeople are ready for the next step.

**Stage 3: Buyer and Self Management** – An ongoing role-playing and observation of the buyer and the salespeople may welcome the possibility of acquiring the ability to:

- detect negative nonverbal signals early in the sale
- provide a faster and more accurate response to the buyer's nonverbal signals
- develop a proficient manner in managing nonverbal expressions
- increase the ability to combine verbal and nonverbal skills

### **The Traffic Light Model in Selling**

It is important to teach students that the process of selling is the art to combine nonverbal communication with professional selling skills. According to Gerhard Gschwandtner (2007: 63), there are 3 core nonverbal signals to be taken into consideration when approaching a customer: red signals, yellow signals and green signals. By making an analogy with the widely known messages of the traffic light – the green light tells people to go, the yellow light tells people to proceed with caution and the red light tells people to stop – it is implied that there are body language messages that genuinely say the same thing. An accurate interpretation of the buyer's messages into green, yellow, or red signals can lead salespeople to the essential knowledge of the manner in which to proceed with their presentation. Thanks to an appropriate response to the clients' signals, salespeople can dramatically increase their number of closings and their profits.

It is widely accepted that when salespeople see green, they communicate green: their mind is open; they communicate the correct selling message during the negotiation with the correct personal participation, and with no obstacles in a negotiation whatsoever. A yellow signal typical sign is given by a prospective customer if he looks tense or superior and leans back from the sales representative, with his arms crossed. This nonverbal signal indicates a closed approach or a slight indifference to the selling message. The great challenge for the sales representative would be to make the customer open up. Red signals show even more increased indifference or increased aggressiveness. There are situations when the buyer is rather resistant to



any kind of approach and the sales representative receives the nonverbal message of a defensive or non-involved customer. Sometimes it just takes common sense, which is not so common anymore, to look at somebody and be just curious and patient to hear a business proposal. Such signals indicate that salespeople should stop and redirect their approach.

A very important skill is needed on behalf of salespeople, namely that of being able to tell whether a client is sending green, yellow or red signals. Monitoring a client's nonverbal signals is clearly done when using the five-channel scan. For a better understanding of the complex relationship between the three different signals and the five-channel scan, we present three charts, which show how the nonverbal expressions for each of the five channels add up to an overall image of the client's body language:

### Green Signals

Nonverbal Communication Channels	Nonverbal expressions
BODY ANGLE	<i>Upright and directed towards the salesman</i>
FACE	<i>Friendly, smiling, enthusiastic</i>
ARMS	<i>Relaxed, open</i>
HANDS	<i>Relaxed, open</i>
LEGS	<i>Uncrossed or crossed towards the salesman Flat on the floor One foot slightly in front of the other</i>

Adapted from "The Art of Nonverbal Selling", Gerhard Gschwandtner, 2007, p. 64

### Yellow Signals

Nonverbal Communication Channels	Nonverbal expressions
BODY ANGLE	<i>Leaning away from the salesman</i>
FACE	<i>Tense, displeased, sceptical, superior, doubtful, etc No eye contact</i>
ARMS	<i>Closed, tense Tightly crossed</i>
HANDS	<i>Clasped, tense, fidgeting with objects or other parts of the body Tucked away and covering mouth</i>
LEGS	<i>Crossed away from the salesman</i>

Adapted from "The Art of Nonverbal Selling", Gerhard Gschwandtner, 2007, p. 65



## Red Signals

Nonverbal Communication Channels	Nonverbal expressions
BODY ANGLE	<i>Leaning far back and away from the salesman</i>
FACE	<i>Angry, determined, flushed, tense, tight, head shaking "no"</i>
ARMS	<i>Tightly crossed or thrust out</i>
HANDS	<i>Fists, pointed finger, the "stop" sign</i>
LEGS	<i>Tightly crossed away from the salesman</i>

Adapted from "The Art of Nonverbal Selling", Gerhard Gschwandtner, 2007, p. 67

The traffic light model is thus a highly important tool to be mastered in order to achieve the desired success in of a negotiation in selling. Once salespeople become aware of the five-channel scan and its connection to the traffic light models, they can observe their clients' body language and have an appropriate response to it. At the same time, they can adjust their own nonverbal messages so that the positive ones might become automatic and improve consistently the closing of the sale. Together with the professional selling approach, the nonverbal communication signals – and feelings and attitudes expressed in the process – help salespeople have an enormous edge in every sales situation.

## Eyes and Voice Participation in a Negotiation

Students need to be explained that an important focus of the nonverbal communication in a negotiation is directed upon the power of the sales representative's eyes and voice, not only content. The negotiation message is controlled through the eye-to-eye contact and through the ability to verbally stress what is considered to be of major importance for the customer to find out. Sales representatives should have the ability to listen with their eyes and to see the customers' response through their tonality. In this respect, it is crucial that teachers should make sure they draw attention upon tone of voice and intonation when they use listening and video materials in class.

Eye contact provides social information to the person you are listening to and talking to. Too much eye contact might indicate that the salesperson could be seen as aggressive, too little eye contact and he can be seen as having no interest in the prospective client. It is an often-overlooked skill to have and an under-utilised skill when communicating with people.



A good eye contact also gives salespeople valuable feedback about how the audience is receiving their message. Approval, confusion, excitement, hostility, frustration, and many other emotions are all expressed through the audience's body language. Eye contact can help salespeople read and react to the silent messages their audience is sending them about their understanding, their likes, and their dislikes so the salesperson can determine what to reinforce, review, or hurry through.

When a salesperson is communicating with a client, but he will not look at him directly in his eyes, the client might sense that the salesperson is distancing himself from what he is saying. Therefore, it is important for salespeople to use eye contact to help establish rapport with customers and also further the sales process. Direct eye contact can also be a sign of aggressiveness, so when to use and when not to use direct eye contact is an important consideration in a negotiation.

There are many things students can learn and salespeople can see if they keep their visual attention focused on their customers while they interact with them. Things like:

- Head position tilt/lean/changes
- Breathing rate/pattern/shifts – fast versus slow, high in chest versus low in stomach, sudden sigh
- Heart rate (can be seen at the base of most people's necks)
- Fingertips on face or lips
- Hands facing up
- Body lean...
- Tension in upper body
- Shoulders raise quickly & unconsciously
- Time for processing answers

Direct eye contact is beneficial during the following communication processes:

1. When establishing rapport. Direct eye contact, along with proper facial expression, can help establish trust and comfort early in an interaction.
2. When doing a presentation. When presenting the product or service, direct eye contact is important not only to help the salesperson's ideas transfer to the prospect's thinking, but also so he can judge the prospect's reaction to what he is saying.
3. When closing. The salesperson has to show that he himself believes the product or service is appropriate for the customer.

A customer might avoid eye contact if he is trying to cover up his true emotions, and gaze past the salesperson or around the room. This leads to boredom and the idea that the negotiation message is decreasing in interest. Increased eye contact is a sign of honesty and interest. A frequent eye



contact with a client is a way to show good communication in a negotiation and to facilitate the correct transfer of information.

For a salesperson, eye contact is also very important. When he discusses product feature, for instance, the salesperson has to direct the customer's attention to the sales literature or samples. Then, he has to look the customer straight in the eye as he states the benefits. As clients interpret eye contact as honesty, if salespeople do not look at their clients while explaining benefits, they may get the impression that the salespeople do not believe in what they are saying. All in all, scanning the clients for their reactions can tell salespeople how to direct a presentation.

Len Sperry (1975: 40) suggests that the following voice characteristics (technically called paralanguage) are likely to have the meanings described in the right-hand column.

Voice characteristics	Meaning
Monotone voice	boredom
Slow speech, low pitch	depression
High voice, emphatic pitch	enthusiasm
Ascending tone	astonishment
Abrupt speech	defensiveness
Terse speed, loud tone	anger
High pitch, drawn-out speech	disbelief

Every day, salespeople let orders slip away because their voices do not match what they mean to say. They seem not to be able to listen to the words and the tone of voice the client is using to explain his objections. The five major elements of verbal communication are:

1. Fillers and sounds: single syllable sounds "Uh," "um," "eh"; sometimes combined with connecting words "and uh," "like eh"; a group of words that adds nothing to the meaning of the sentence "You know," "you see," "you understand"; hedge words "I guess," "maybe," "perhaps"; qualifiers "just," "that's all," "only"; noises: throat clearing, sniffing, sighs, coughing, etc. Even if they may seem a minor problem, clients judge the salesperson's level of confidence and product knowledge by the fluency of their speech. Fillers and sounds may be interpreted as nervousness or uncertainty. A solution for this problem should be the eliminations of fillers and the use of silence instead of making a filling noise.



2. Pace: it refers to the tempo and rhythm of the salesperson's speech: the tempo of his delivery – how fast or slow he speaks and the speech rhythm – flowing, continuous or in little chunks. A good salesperson can use a moderate pace, which will allow him time to pronounce the words and will give the client the chance to understand what he is saying without being left in the dust or impatiently waiting for each word. Furthermore, salespeople may gain an extra edge if they can match their speed to their client's speech. This gives the impression that the salesperson and the client are alike. As far as rhythm is concerned, it is beneficial to use a dialogue that contains a mix of short sentences and longer, explanatory statements, which might give the client a good impression.

3. Volume: A too loud volume may indicate an overaggressive and insensitive salesperson, whereas a too soft volume may be considered shy, nervous, weak, uncertain or insecure. A solution for this can be a salesman who is able to keep his voice at a moderate volume or to match his volume to his client's.

4. Tonality of voice may give clients an accurate impression of the salesperson's position. Through the tone of voice, salespeople should make their clients believe that they value what they say and care enough to really understand their point of view.

5. Emphasis in speech is quite important for salespeople, as they use it in order to help their clients hear the key words in their statements.

However, it is advisable to tell students to use great caution against labelling of voice tones. It is much better if it is explicitly determined what a voice tone means to someone during the course of the communication with them. This process of calibration (the ability to interpret correctly what you see, according to a set of rules) makes sure that the interpretations are correct for the person the salespeople are dealing with at the time.

In conclusion, the nonverbal communication in a negotiation has a major importance in achieving the needed goal. As demonstrated before, it is advisable that students, future salespeople, should study how to possess both proficient professional skills and nonverbal skills in order to close a



good sale. Detecting green, yellow and red signals, together with an accurate eye contact and an appropriate voice participation in the negotiation process are important elements to be taken into consideration so that the desired results should be attained.

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# Technology in ESP Teaching and Learning

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Diana MARCU

## Abstract

*The present paper aims at briefly presenting the use of ICT into the ESP teaching and learning process. The paper comprises four parts: in the introduction, several definitions of what CALL, ICT and ESP refer to, followed by a historical overview of the process which has been shaped by the continuous transformations technology has gone through. The third part discusses both the benefits and limitations brought by the use of certain technological tools in the ESP class, followed by conclusions. Taking into account the fact that ESP is focused on the specific needs of learners, technology has been used for a series of activities which would aid the learning process. Both teachers and students have been using technology to find suitable materials, to help design courses, to assess or research in order to enhance the teaching and learning process of foreign language acquisition. Technology is constantly evolving so both teachers and students need to keep an eye on these transformations in order to use the best of them in their educational process.*

**Keywords:** computer-mediated communication; CALL; ESP teaching and learning; ICT, technology.

## 1. Introduction. Definitions

With the advent of the Internet in the 1990s, technology has spread over all sorts of areas, including the field of education and language learning. Step by step, we have integrated technology in both our professional and personal lives, many times without realizing the extent of technology-use together with its major benefits or uncontrolled drawbacks. Teachers use technology in classes in various ways, the main purpose being that of making the process of foreign language acquisition vivid and useful.

The process of language teaching and learning is based on several theories which are meant to aid stakeholders achieve their desired goals. When it comes to the multiple ways people acquire knowledge, one of the theories states that people improve knowledge through social interaction. Back to 1978, Vygotsky and the social constructivism theory state that people construct knowledge by interacting the existing knowledge with new ideas and experience, interaction which takes place in the social



environment. According to Siemens (2005) and the connectivism theory, learning is achieved through networking, when people establish connections with other professionals or resources. Thus, computer-assisted language learning, information and communication technology or, nowadays, the mobile-assisted language learning, find their way in the process of language teaching and learning both in the area of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

Computer-assisted language learning, also known in the literature as CALL, is a field of research which helps learners achieve their goals in the process of foreign language acquisition through the use of computers both in classes and during their free time. According to Chun," CALL is not a methodology; it is an emerging field that studies how technology is used as one (of many) tool(s) for language learning" (Chun, 2011:663).

Information and Communication Technology (ICT), generally defined, refers to the variety of communication technology which includes computers, cell phones, video-conferencing, social networking or other media applications which enable people transmit information in a digital form. Davies and Hewer (2009) explain the ICT in language learning as computer-based technologies such as desktops, laptops, tablets, smartphones, and software and internet-based technologies including email, websites, and social networking sites for the purpose of English teaching and learning.

In terms of what ESP means, various definitions have been attributed since the 1960s when this field emerged, proving that it is a domain in a continuous expansion. As Dudley-Evans and St John state, "The original flowering of the ESP movement resulted from general developments in the world economy in the 1950s and 1960s: the growth of science and technology, the increased use of English as the international language of science, technology and business, the increased economic power of certain oil-rich countries and the increased number of international students studying in the UK, USA and Australia" (Dudley-Evans, St John, 1998: 19). At the same time, Hutchinson and Waters consider ESP as "an approach not as a product. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. Understood properly, it is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need." (Hutchinson, Waters, 1987: 19). Later on, Laurence Anthony defines ESP as "an approach to language teaching that targets the current and/or future academic or occupational needs of learners, focuses on the necessary language, genres and skills to address these needs, and assists learners in meeting these needs through the use of general and/or discipline-specific teaching materials and methods (Anthony, 2018: Introduction). Discussing



the integration of technology in the ESP classes, Constantinou and Papadima-Sophocleus consider that, "The need to integrate technologies in the ESP classroom is more intense nowadays, as students need to be engaged in the learning process and build their image as global citizens" (Constantinou & Papadima-Sophocleus, 2020:18).

## 2. Historical overview

The process of teaching and learning ESP has been shaped by the continuous transformations technology has gone through. Taking into account the fact that ESP is focused on the specific needs of learners, technology has been used for a series of activities which would aid the learning process. Both teachers and students have been using technology to find suitable materials, to help design courses, to assess or research. The evolution of CALL goes hand in hand with the changes which occurred in the process of ESP acquisition. According to Warschauer (1996), CALL has gone through three distinct phases. Implemented between the 1960s and the 1970s, the behaviorist phase uses computers as means to deliver materials to students, with a focus on accuracy. Computers were used for vocabulary drills and translation tests, following the structural view of language. Between the 1970s and the 1980s, computers were used as tools for creating fluency, following the communicative approach to language teaching which predominated the times. The focus was no longer on accuracy but on creating fluency. PC programmes provided practice in a non-drill format and helped stimulate discussions and free practice. The last phase, the integrative CALL, appeared in the 21<sup>st</sup> century with the advancements in computer technology. Multimedia and the Internet were used to develop social interaction, following the sociocognitive view of language. Computers became tools which helped develop the authentic discourse.

Further on, the ICT world has helped the teaching process as well as that of language acquisition enormously. The appearance of Massive Open Online Courses or Open Educational Resources together with the emergence of specific tools such as Learning Management Systems or Cloud Technology created new opportunities in the entire process of training and developing knowledge in the field.

At the same time, other concepts emerged such as "the network-based language teaching" which focuses on communication and collaboration or "the second wave of online learning" which involves cultural learning and literacy as well as social discourses (Kern & Warschauer, 2000). The Internet has opened the window towards the accessibility of a wide range of authentic written and audio-visual materials specific to students'



specialisations alongside the computer-mediated communication (CMC) such as emails, a series of blogs or forums which help improve communicative skills in a foreign language. On the other hand, blogs or wikis do not only help develop language skills but also offer a great opportunity for professionals to connect in terms of publishing their research and collaborate remotely.

These days, research is being carried in the perspective of how effective the implementation of mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) can become in the process of language learning. As Miangah and Nezarat discuss in their paper related to MALL, “The ways through which the barriers of CALL have been removed can help the MALL technology to grow with less effort and cost. Some language skills such as speaking and listening skills as mobile-based activities need some further improvements due to the hardware weaknesses. Mobile-based learning or m-learning faces many challenges, but it has grown in exponentially in spite of all its problems to provide a better environment for language learning” (Miangah & Nezarat, 2012:315).

### **3. Technology in ESP – benefits and limitations**

As previously stated, technology is not a methodology used in classes but a useful tool for both teachers and students, if integrated appropriately. It is the responsibility of the teacher to select the suitable type of technological tool to use in class in order to develop specific skills for his/her students. ESP, with its focus on learners' needs, has a lot to gain from the use of technology during classes. Since students best acquire language if presented in real-life contexts, teachers rely on technology and more precisely the Internet to find authentic materials which fit the specialization of the students and are, at the same time, updated with the latest information. Many times, textbooks do not offer the right content in relation to the expectations and needs of the class or they are completely outdated and dull. So, the Internet becomes a useful resource in terms of authentic input in specific contexts, being of help in materials selection and development.

Technology is a great tool to enhance the vocabulary of students. The use of multimedia, for example, leads to a better understanding of the concepts taught and the proper use of words in specific contexts. For example, students in engineering more easily acquire information on how a pulley works after watching a video with explanations on YouTube. Or students in Business Administration learn more of how you are supposed to conduct a negotiation if they hear and visualize the process instead of simply reading a text about it.



CMC is of great help in enhancing learners' communicative competence. In all areas of ESP, emails are necessary tools and the possibility offered by technology to send and receive emails in real-life contexts is of great help for students achieving success in their future careers. Social networking or blogs which can be accessed in their free time, provide students with the opportunity of enhancing their intercultural awareness since they relate, remotely, to people from different parts of the world. As Li states, "The mediational role that technology plays in network-based learning is vitally important, students from different cultures and backgrounds can take advantage of computer tools to represent their thoughts and to bridge the gap in intercultural communication" (Li, 2018:12). At the same time, the use of technology in class and in the free time, many times transforms the process of acquiring the foreign language into a vivid and interactive experience which motivates 'the digital natives' teachers deal with these days.

ESP is a learner-centered approach and precisely because of this, teachers need to pay attention on how to link the variety of technological tools available nowadays to the needs and expectations of students. In her paper entitled *Integrating Technology in ESP: Pedagogical Principles and Practice*, Li synthetizes an example of how to link technology to meet the needs of the students.

WHAT LEARNERS NEED	HOW TECHNOLOGY CAN HELP (EXAMPLES)
COMMUNICATION SKILLS	CMC tools (e.g. online discussion boards, emails and videoconferencing) can be used to engage students in real-life discourse
ACADEMIC WRITING SKILLS	Corpus analysis of published academic work to identify how to use linking words, reporting verbs and tenses
COLLABORATIVE EXPERIENCE	Wikis, project-based CALL
ENGAGEMENT AND PARTICIPATION IN A PROFESSIONAL COMMUNITY	The use of social networking

Table 1 An example of linking technology to learners' needs (Li, 2018 :15)

On the other hand, the integration of technology and its tools in classes may come with limitations given the fact that computers and the Internet are not available in all areas. Even in the case of universities, there are a lot of lecture rooms which are not equipped with computers or projectors so it



is impossible for teachers to use ICT in such instances. At the same time, when it comes to technology, one has to take into consideration the digital literacy of both teachers and students and the fact that there are no or few training options available for them. If students become more motivated when technology is used during the classes since they find such meetings vivid, there might appear cases when they lose concentration and not take work seriously while surfing the Internet or using blogs or social networking.

#### 4. Conclusions

To sum up, the integration of technological tools in ESP classes comes with a lot of advantages since the Internet and ICT perfectly fit the goals of an ESP lecture. ESP focuses on the needs of the learners, it is a learner-centered approach, and the availability of technology in classes brings on many advantages such as authentic input in specific contexts, a great way of enhancing vocabulary, communicative competence and intercultural awareness. On the other hand, there are still limitations of using ICT in classes since, even if we live in the area of technology, there are cases where the Internet or computers are unavailable or teachers need to be trained in order to use them correspondently. The use of ICT in ESP teaching and learning remains a field to be studied in the future as technology is constantly evolving and both teachers and students need to take the best of what this area has to offer to enhance the educational process.

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# Limbaj specializat, text specializat, lexic specializat: delimitări conceptuale

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## Locul limbajelor specializate în sistemul general al limbii

Analiza lexicului specializat presupune, inevitabil, raportarea lui la cel comun, ambele fiind încadrate în lexicul general. Acesta din urmă este definit în lucrările de lingvistică drept totalitatea cuvintelor unei limbi, în diversitatea lor. În baza unor criterii argumentate științific, specialiștii au divizat vocabularul general în: **lexic specializat**, utilizat în comunicarea în diverse domenii ale științei, și **lexic comun**, folosit de nespecialiști. Unitățile lexicale din limbajul comun alcătuiesc nucleul unei limbi, ele sunt bine cunoscute de vorbitorii acesteia și asigură înțelegerea comunicării dintre ei. Lexicul specializat sau terminologiile însumează cuvintele/termenii corespunzători unor sfere diferite de activitate profesională, fiind înțelese, în special, de persoanele care activează în sferele respective.

Cercetătoarea Angela Bidu-Vrânceanu menționează că distincția **lexic comun/lexic specializat** presupune raportarea la totalitatea lexicului unei limbi, care este alcătuit din mai multe submulțimi (numite și vocabular(e)). Delimitarea ține seama de mai multe criterii interdependente: circulația sau frecvența cuvintelor, factorul stilistico-funcțional (interesul grupelor de vorbitori în funcție de profesiunea și apartenența social-culturală). Prin această operație de segmentare a totalității lexicului unei limbi se favorizează limitarea obiectului de cercetare lexicală dintr-o cantitate prea mare și prea diversă de unități, ceea ce permite o abordare științifică ulterioară mult mai riguroasă. Sintetizând abordările mai multor cercetători, A.Bidu-Vrânceanu delimită submulțimile:

(1) Vocabularul cu termeni obligatorii pentru orice variantă a limbii, care reprezintă sfera general activă sau vocabularul fundamental;

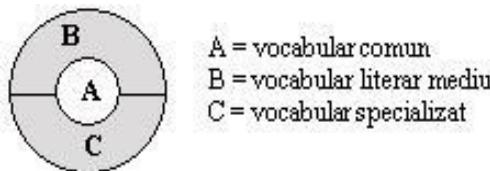
(2) Vocabularul caracteristic nivelului mediu de cultură sau limba literară curentă sau limba standard (exceptând limbajul artistic și științific) și care reprezintă mai mult un sistem virtual;

(3) Vocabularul specific științei și tehnicii sau limbajul (limbile) specializat(e) sau terminologiile [18].



Ideea este vehiculată și în lucrările semnate de Olga Bălănescu, care, de asemenea, distinge trei categorii de unități lexicale și frazeologice caracteristice limbajului de specialitate din sfera comerțului [12]:

Reprezentarea grafică a acestei structuri este următoarea (Figura 1.1):



**Fig. 1.1.** Structura limbajului de specialitate (după A.Bidu-Vrănceanu, 2000)

Criteriul de delimitare a lexicului specializat de cel comun este determinat mai cu seamă de diferențele semantice dintre cuvintele din lexicul comun și termeni, aceștia din urmă având, de obicei, definiții clare și arii distincte de întrebuițare.

Astfel, lexicul specializat reprezintă, pe de o parte, o submulțime a lexicului unei limbi în general, iar pe de altă parte, este o componentă indispensabilă a limbajului științific (specializat) ca sistem lingvistic, ultima fiind o noțiune mai largă, pe care o vom explicita în cele ce urmează.

Potrivit lui Ion Coteanu, **limbajul** este „un sistem lingvistic mai mult sau mai puțin specializat în redarea conținutului de idei specifice unei activități profesionale, unuia sau mai multor domenii din viața social-culturală (...), care, toate, au ori tind să aibă cuvinte, expresii și reguli proprii de organizare, rezultate din diverse restricții impuse limbii” [51, p.45].

**Limbajele specializate** sunt concepute drept sisteme de comunicare, fiind definite în mai multe moduri: a) coduri lingvistice care diferă de limbajul general, fiind alcătuite din unități specifice care se supun unor reguli specifice; b) variante ale limbajului general; c) submulțimi (engl. *subsets*) pragmatice ale limbajului în ansamblu [35, p.60-62]. În diferite studii, pentru denominarea acestora sunt folosite sintagmele **limbaje specializate**, **limbi specializate** și **limbi speciale** [35,36; 44; 84 ș.a.]. În alte surse, ele mai sunt numite și *tehnolecte*, *subcoduri* (abordare pragmatică), *limbaje de specialitate*, *microlimbi* (abordare glotodidactică).

Pornind de la ideea că „limba generală este cea utilizată în viața de zi cu zi, în timp ce un limbaj specializat este utilizat pentru a facilita comunicarea lipsită de ambiguitate într-un anumit domeniu de cunoaștere, bazată pe utilizarea unui vocabular și limbaj specific domeniului respectiv” [122], noi vom utiliza sintagma *limbaj specializat* [90]. În analiza viziunilor exprimate de lingviști însă, vom păstra sintagmele pe care le-au utilizat autorii în sursele citate.



Între limbajul comun și cel specializat există numeroase similitudini. În primul rând, majoritatea limbajelor de specialitate sunt create pe baza limbii comune. Toate limbajele specializate folosesc tipuri de exprimare similară celor din limba comună. La rândul lor, limbajele de specialitate influențează limba comună, vorbirea curentă preluând expresii din domenii profesionale cărora le-a schimbat sensul. Delimitarea se poate face prin respectarea criteriilor legate de frecvența cuvintelor și de factorul stilistic-funcțional [18, p. 9].

Unii lingviști (Coșeru E., *apud* Munteanu C.) consideră însă că între limbajul comun (numit și primar) și cel specializat (numit și terminologic sau secundar) există deosebiri fundamentale, cele mai importante fiind: modul diferit de structurare a lexicului comun și a celui terminologic; caracterul precis, obiectiv al delimitărilor tehnico-științifice, care sunt delimitări operate în realitatea obiectivă, în opozиie cu structurile lingvistice, care sunt delimitări operate în intuirea realității, adică în planul aprehensiunii umane; caracterul dinamic, flexibil al lexicului (un termen științific poate deveni cuvânt obișnuit, și viceversa); încadrarea terminologii în sistemul limbilor mai degrabă prin semnificant decât prin semnificat, semnificatele termenilor științifici fiind „interidiomatice” și.a. [115].

Potrivit autoarei Iurieva E.A. [198, p.22], opinie pe care o împărtăşim și noi, atât limbajul comun (al comunicării cotidiene), cât și cele specializate reprezintă subsisteme ale aceleiași limbi naturale. Totodată, între ele există deosebiri esențiale: limbajul comun este primar, în timp ce toate limbajele specializate sunt secundare; limbajul comun are o sferă de utilizare nelimitată, iar fiecare dintre limbajele specializate se limitează la un domeniu special (știință sau, în sens mai îngust, matematică, fizică, producție, administrație); limbajul comun se formează spontan, iar cele specializate sunt formate, într-o mare măsură, în mod conștient; limbajul comun este în totalitate natural, iar cele specializate conțin elemente de artificialitate.

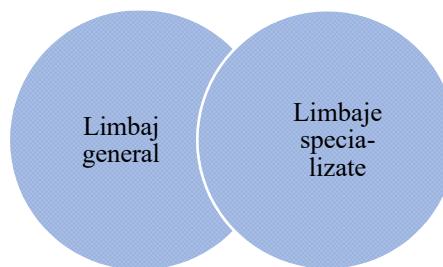
Budileva A.N. consideră că limbajul științific reprezintă, de cele mai multe ori, „o simbioză a limbajelor artificial și natural; totodată, primul funcționează, de obicei, în sfera terminologiei și a desemnării unor noțiuni înguste, iar celui de-al doilea îi revine rolul de operator și dispecer (predicate, copule, categorizări, modele morfologice și sintactice)” [171, t.n.]. Pe de altă parte, lingvistul care se ocupă de studiul limbajelor specializate nu are acces decât la discurs, iar „sistemul căruia i se supun aceste manifestări nu este autonom, el depinde întotdeauna de o limbă preexistentă”, altfel spus limbajele specializate trebuie considerate „o actualizare a limbii, adică un discurs” [44, t.n.].



În acest context, unii autori [159, p. 23-26] subliniază necesitatea de a diferenția termenii „text” și „discurs”, precizând că „un text poate fi format din mai multe tipuri de discurs sau, altfel spus, un tip de text se poate realiza în diferite genuri”. Conchidem că textul specializat este produsul lingvistic, iar discursul specializat reprezintă modul în care se realizează comunicarea dintre specialiștii unui domeniu sau dintre specialiști și nespecialiști. Discursul, la rândul său, cunoaște o taxonomie variată, care are la bază mai multe criterii de clasificare. Pentru studiul de față, prezintă interes delimitarea discursurilor în funcție de domeniu (discursuri nespecializate și discursuri specializate: economic, filosofic, turistic, sportiv etc.), de finalitate (discurs didactic, de popularizare a științei etc.), de gen (discurs literar, discurs publicitar, discurs științific, discurs mediatic). Termenii pe care îi vom analiza în capituloane ce urmează vor fi excepțional preponderent din textele specializate științifice cu tematică sportivă.

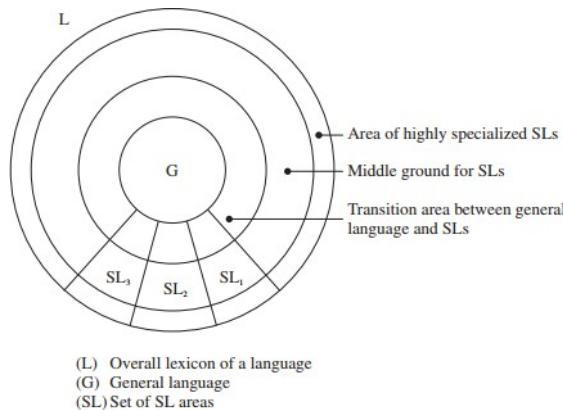
În unele lucrări se pune, de asemenea, problema delimitării discursului specializat de limbajul specializat [43, t.n.], autoarea specificând că, în textele specializate, pot fi identificate atât caracteristici proprii discursului, cât și trăsături specifice limbii (adică limbajului specializat – n.n.), iar elementul care permite a oscila de la o abordare discursivă la una „sistematică” (proprie limbajului) este „existența unui locutor, care nu reprezintă un individ, ci o clasă de indivizi, identificabilă prin caracteristici socioprofesionale. (...) Numai noțiunea de locutor colectiv autorizează trecerea de la un punct de vedere discursiv la un punct de vedere sistematic” [43, t.n.]. Astfel, atât discursul, cât și limbajul specializat au același obiect: textele specializate.

Interacțiunea dintre limbajul general și limbajele specializate este reprezentată, deseori, sub forma unor mulțimi care se intersectează parțial (Figura 1.2), în sprijinul acestei opinii fiind adusă ideea că limbajul general nu poate fi inclus integral în limbajele specializate, dat fiind că el conține, spre exemplu, și lexicul colorat stilistic, care nu este specific limbajelor specializate [198, p.21].



**Fig. 1.2.** Corelația dintre lexicul general și cel specializat (după Averbuh K.Ia., apud Iurieva E.A., 2014)

Guy Rondeau (*apud* Cabré M.T.) sustine ipoteza existenței unui singur limbaj special în domeniul științei și tehnicii, noțiune pe care o consideră reprezentativă pentru toate limbajele specializate. Autorul conchide că se poate vorbi despre limbajul special doar ca despre o submulțime a limbajului general, care poate fi diferită de limbajul general, dacă am considera vocabularul, caracteristicile pragmatice și funcționale ale textului drept trăsături specifice nivelurilor acestuia [35, p.68-69]. Schematic, această structură poate fi reprezentată în felul următor (Figura 1.3):



**Fig. 1.3.** Poziția limbajelor speciale, după G.Rondeau, citat de M.T.Cabré (1999)

În această figură, L reprezintă lexicul general al limbii, G – limbajul general, SL<sub>1</sub>, SL<sub>2</sub>, SL<sub>3</sub>

- limbajele specializate. Între limbajul general și cel specializat există o zonă de tranziție, iar în fiecare limbaj specializat sunt utilizați termeni de specializare medie (zona de mijloc a limbajelor specializate) și termeni de specializare maximă (zona de specializare înaltă).

Elementele lexicale au capacitatea de a migra dintr-un registru în altul, astfel încât nu există hotare rigide între limbajul general și cel special, dar nici între diferitele limbaje specializate. Din aceste considerente, după părerea noastră, niciuna dintre cele două figuri nu ilustrează complet locul limbajelor specializate în sistemul general al limbii. Pe de o parte, figura propusă de lingviștii ruși, deși surprinde ideea interacțiunii limbajului general cu cele specializate, nu conține versiunea interacțiunii reciproce a acestora din urmă, promovând ideea intrunirii tuturor limbajelor specializate într-o singură sferă. Or, considerăm important a sublinia că, în prezent, în diferite sfere de activitate umană sunt utilizate numeroase limbaje specializate distincte, care dispun de propriile sisteme terminologice



și cunosc o clasificare complexă, chiar dacă granițele dintre ele sunt uneori destul de vagi, iar unitățile dintr-un anumit tip de limbi specializate circulă în altele.

Pe de altă parte, nici ideea incluziei lexicului general în centrul figurii realizate de G. Rondeau nu se justifică: este bine cunoscut faptul că nu toate unitățile lexicale din vocabularul general al limbii sunt preluate de limbajele specializate. Trebuie menționat și faptul că, la rândul lor, unitățile lexicale dintr-un anumit limbaj specializat au capacitatea de a fi adoptate de către alte limbaje specializate (dacă întunesc anumite condiții), devenind termeni în cadrul acestor submulțimi. Interacțiunea diferitor limbaje specializate însă nu este ilustrată în schema propusă de G. Rondeau. În schimb, autorul emite ideea distribuirii lexicului din cadrul limbajelor specializate în mai multe straturi, opinie care va fi adoptată și dezvoltată în studiu de față.

Cât privește locul limbajelor specializate în sistemul general al limbii, subscriem la viziunea cunoscutei cercetătoare M.T.Cabré, care consideră că determinarea poziției limbajelor specializate în sistemul general al limbii trebuie realizată în funcție de trei variabile: câmpul tematic (domeniul de întrebuițare), tipul de utilizator (destinatarul) și tipul de situație în care are loc comunicarea:

1. Câmpurile tematice speciale (*special subject fields*) nu reprezintă o parte a cunoștințelor generale ale vorbitorilor, ele sunt obiectul unui proces specific de învățare.

2. Vorbitorii care posedă acest tip de cunoștințe sunt utilizatori ai unor limbi speciale, cu alte cuvinte, sunt experți într-un anumit domeniu, cu toate că în acest caz se face distincție între emițătorii și receptorii comunicării specializate. Emițătorii care produc comunicarea specializată trebuie să posede cunoștințe în domeniile speciale, dobândite în decursul formării lor. Pe când receptorii pot să fie alți experți sau un public general, care receptionează pasiv comunicarea specială în timp ce acumulează cunoștințe.

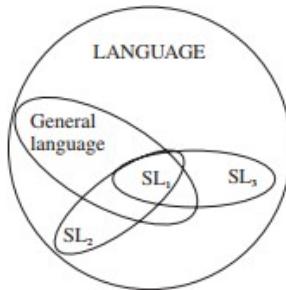
3. De obicei, comunicarea în limbile speciale este formală și se atestă în situațiile în care domină criteriile profesionale sau științifice.

4. Limbajele speciale se caracterizează prin trăsături lingvistice (unități și reguli) și textuale (tipuri de texte și documente).

5. O limbă specială nu este o submulțime cu o structură unitară, dimpotrivă, ea acceptă unele variații, care depind de modul de utilizare și de situația de comunicare, și anume: a) gradul de abstractizare, care ține de câmpul tematic, de receptorii informației și de scopul comunicării emițătorului; b) scopul comunicării, care determină variațiile privind tipul de texte; c) dialectele geografice, istorice și sociale; d) stilul personal.

6. Limbile speciale posedă caracteristici pragmatice și lingvistice, fapt ce ne permite să le considerăm o submulțime (*subset*) a limbajului general.

7. Limbile speciale constituie o submulțime a limbajului general. Ele se intersectează cu limbajul general, cu care nu numai au trăsături comune, ci realizează în permanență un schimb de unități lexicale și convenții [35, p.65-66] (Figura 1.4).



**Fig. 1.4.** Locul limbajelor specializate în sistemul general al limbii  
(după M.T. Cabré, 1999)

Așadar, limbajele specializate reprezintă submulțimi ale limbajului general, constituind sisteme complexe, ce cuprind unități lexicale variate ca formă, conținut, mod de funcționare. Ele se intersectează cu limbajul general, cu care nu numai împart trăsături comune, ci realizează un schimb continuu de unități lexicale și convenții. Între limbajul general și cel specializat există o zonă de tranziție, iar în fiecare limbaj specializat sunt utilizati termeni de specializare medie (zona de mijloc a limbajelor specializate) și termeni de specializare maximă (zona de specializare înaltă). Granițele dintre limbajul general și cel special, precum și cele dintre variantele limbaje specializate sunt flexibile, elementele lexicale circulând în permanență dintr-o zonă în alta, suferind sau nu modificări semantice și funcționale.

Identificarea lexicului specializat se efectuează în funcție de distribuirea unităților lexicale conform tipologiei lor, iar stratificarea vocabularului terminologic este condiționată de o serie de criterii de ordin lingvistic și extralingvistic, iar hotarele dintre straturile lexicale cărora aparțin aceste unități și cele dintre câmpurile semantice în care se încadrează, de asemenea, sunt foarte flexibile [88; 90].

### **Textul specializat: caracteristici și straturi lexico-semantice**

Interesul sporit al terminologilor față de formarea și funcționarea limbajelor specializate este determinat în primul rând de necesitățile actuale ale lingvisticii aplicate: prelucrarea automată a datelor, standardizarea terminologiei, crearea sistemelor de traducere automată, a dicționarelor terminologice și a diferitor baze de date, automatizarea activităților intelectuale legate de utilizarea limbii (crearea sistemelor de inteligență



artificială, a sistemelor de stocare automatizată) etc. Totodată, lingviștii sunt interesati de problemele înțelegерii textului, de particularităile de receptare a acestuia. Analiza semantico-funcțională a textului este preferată descrierii structurale și statistică, stilistica funcțională având rolul principal în studierea teoriei comunicării, mai cu seamă a factorilor care determină funcționarea mijloacelor lingvistice într-un anumit stil al limbii literare. Astfel, în cercetările din domeniul terminologiei realizate în ultimul deceniu, se remarcă o deplasare a accentului de pe analiza lexicului specializat pe studierea limbajelor de specialitate în toată complexitatea lor [20; 36; 44; 134 §.a.].

Se afirmă, de asemenea, că încercarea de a face o distincție între termeni și cuvinte nu mai este viabilă și că cel mai bun mod de a studia unități de cunoștințe specializate este studierea comportamentului lor în texte. Deoarece funcția generală a textelor de limbă specializată este transmiterea de cunoștințe, aceste texte „tind să se conformeze şablonelor pentru a facilita înțelegerea și, de asemenea, sunt în general caracterizate printr-o repetare mai mare decât de obicei a termenilor, a expresiilor, a frazei și chiar a paragrafelor complete” [64, *t.n.*].

Orice text (oral sau scris) poate fi analizat ca o modalitate de prezentare a unui anumit conținut conceptual. Textele științifice, numite și texte specializate (monografii, manuale, ghiduri metodice, articole de specialitate, rezumate științifice, enciclopedii, documente tehnice), constituie rezultatul unui proces de gândire creatoare, fiind un mijloc specific de comunicare interumană. Notiunea de text științific poate fi interpretată fie ca totalitatea textelor unor autori diferiți, fie ca text individual al unui singur autor, fie ca o teorie aparte [171, *t.n.*]. Înțelegerea textelor de acest tip depinde atât de capacitatea autorului/emitătorului de a expune, consecvent și corect, rezultatele propriilor cercetări, cât și de capacitatea cititorului / receptorului de a decodifica și de a interpreta aceste informații.

Receptarea textului științific este un proces destul de complicat, care presupune realizarea unui șir de operații cognitive. Eficacitatea înțelegерii mesajului este determinată, în mare parte, de gradul de „saturatie” a textului cu unități lexicale decodificabile, pe care le-am putea numi și unități lexicale standard. Textele științifice și tehnice sunt, de obicei, bogate în terminologie datorită numărului mare al unităților de limbă specializate.

În cele ce urmează, ne propunem să relevăm **caracteristicile** și criteriile de delimitare a textului de specialitate.

Folosirea limbajului-standard este considerată a fi una dintre calitățile esențiale ale textului științific, alături de altele, precum: claritatea, precizia, concizia, respectarea riguroasă a normelor limbii literare, structurarea logică a enunțurilor, evitarea tropilor, realizarea exclusivă a funcției



referențiale etc. [51, p.52; 68, p.164-168; 35, p.47; 87; 89 și a.]. La rândul lor, textele specializate sunt „producții lingvistice, orale sau scrise, care se manifestă în cadrul comunicărilor profesionale și a căror finalitate este exclusiv profesională. Situațiile profesionale sunt recunoscute după interlocutorii care interacționează, după subiectul evocat, care ține de domeniul sau domeniile vizate de profesie, și după finalitatea esențială de a căuta informația împreună cu receptorul, deși pentru aceasta se folosesc strategii discursivee diferite” [36, p.37, t.n.].

Analizate prin prisma conceptelor pragmaticii, textele cunosc grade diferite de specializare terminologică, fapt determinat atât de statutul emițătorului, cât și, mai ales, de cel al receptorului. Textele „strict specializate” se adresează unui interlocutor plasat la cel mai înalt nivel al comunicării din domeniu, iar cele „cu grade inferioare de specializare”, cum ar fi cele de popularizare științifică sau din comunicarea obișnuită, au destinații eterogeni [23, p.22].

M. Petit distinge trei tipuri de comunicare științifică, în funcție de destinatar: între specialiști, în scop didactic, de vulgarizare [127]. Referitor la gradul de specializare a textelor științifice, M.T. Cabré afirmă că „pertinența unui text la un nivel înalt, mediu sau jos se determină prin caracteristicile destinatarului, suportul și finalitățile sale. Un text produs de un specialist pentru studenți poate fi definit ca fiind de nivel mediu” [36, p.38-39, t.n.].

Diferențierea textelor științifice cu specializare maximă de cele didactice sau de popularizare este determinată, potrivit lingvistei A. Bidu-Vrânceanu [23, p.30], de „*densitatea terminologică a textului*”, care „*are consecințe asupra gradului de abstractizare*” a acestuia și constituie „*un criteriu obiectiv de măsurare și diferențiere a discursului și textelor specializate*” (*subl. aut.*).

Cercetătorii [23, p.30; 127] remarcă faptul că acest aspect este insuficient exploarat în analiza terminologilor și că, deocamdată, nu s-a ajuns la un consens.

Din punct de vedere analitic, se poate spune că textele specializate se definesc prin trei tipuri de condiții:

- condiții discursivee: proprietățile situației specializate ale acestui tip de comunicare;
- condiții cognitive: tema care este tratată și modul în care este tratată;
- condiții lingvistice: condițiile textuale generale (precizie, concizie și sistematicitate, ultimele două la grade diferite în funcție de condițiile discursivee), forma macro- și microtextuală și, mai cu seamă, unitățile lexicale proprii domeniului despre care este vorba în text [36, p.38-39].

Textul specializat este „în aceeași măsură utilizator și furnizor de terminologie (înțelesă drept totalitatea termenilor utilizați într-o limbă sau



într-un anumit domeniu al cunoașterii)“ [84]. Totodată, el este „principala sursă de informații paradigmaticе și sintagmatice despre termen“ [64]. Așadar, termenii sunt „unitățile cele mai informative“ ale textului specializat [176, p.204],

având rol principal în acest tip de discursuri. Din punct de vedere terminologic, textul științific are următoarele caracteristici: **structură terminologică**; **densitate terminologică** – raportarea lexemelor speciale (în primul rând a termenilor) la numărul total de cuvinte semnificative din text, de obicei exprimată în procente; **frecvență terminologică** – raportul dintre lexemele speciale (termeni) și numărul total de cuvinte dintr-un text; **profil terminologic** – aspect ce se referă la conținutul textului, exprimat prin totalitatea termenilor mai importanți din punct de vedere informativ [176, p.204, *t.n.*]. În această ordine de idei, precizăm că Leicik V.M., *apud* Druță I., distinge trei categorii de texte științifico-tehnice și oficiale: 1) texte care **utilizează** termeni – monografii, articole de sinteză, documente oficiale; 2) texte care **fixează** termeni – dicționare, ghiduri și îndreptare; 3) texte care **creează** termeni – în special studii de cercetare, în care autorii relatează în premieră rezultatele unor experimente, generalizări etc. [60, p.34].

Structura, modul de prezentare și limbajul utilizat în textele științifice au un caracter neuniform, iar faptul că se adresează unor categorii diferite de destinatari constituie criteriul principal de care se ține seama atunci când acestea sunt elaborate. Sub aspect stilistic, Irina Condrea distinge câteva substileuri ale limbajului științific, și anume:

- **substilul tehnico-științific/academic**, care include, de regulă, lucrări cu tematică îngustă, rezultate ale cercetărilor din diverse sfere ale științei, în care sunt investigate particularități inedite ale fenomenelor, sunt propuse viziuni proprii noi, se fac generalizări și se trag concluzii valabile pentru întregul domeniu (articole publicate în reviste de specialitate, anale științifice, culegeri tematice, materiale ale simpozioanelor și ale conferințelor științifice etc., monografii, teze de doctorat, de masterat, de licență și.a.);

- **substilul didactic**, care cuprinde texte din sfera învățământului de toate gradele (manuale, ghiduri, culegeri de texte, de exerciții, de teste; antologii; suporturi de curs etc.), alcătuirea lor fiind în funcție de vârstă și nivelul de cunoștințe al destinatarului;

- **substilul de popularizare**, ce conține texte elaborate de specialiști din diverse domenii (istorie, geografie, arte, medicină, economie, drept, sport etc.), destinate unui public larg, în care sunt expuse într-un limbaj accesibil diverse probleme, iar termenii utilizați sunt, de regulă, explicați și nu creează dificultăți pentru înțelegerea mesajului;



- **substilul informativ-lexicografic**, care cuprinde lucrări cu caracter informativ (encyclopedii, dicționare, cataloage, indici, alte culegeri informative), adresate fie celui mai larg cerc de cititori, fie specialiștilor dintr-un anumit domeniu mai îngust [45, p.192-194].

Am putea afirma, aşadar, că există mai multe niveluri de specializare a textelor științifice și, prin urmare, grade diferite de accesibilitate. Descrierea acestora în funcție de triada euristic/ didactic/ de vulgarizare reprezintă „un prealabil necesar al oricărei analize pertinente a discursului științific” [137, p.214].

Pentru a distinge un text științific de unul nespecializat, trebuie avute în vedere următoarele trei caracteristici ale celui dintâi:

- Textele științifice sunt concise (ele tind să nu fie redundante), sunt precise (tind să evite ambiguitățile) și impersonale (nu exprimă emoții).

• În vocabular, predomină substantivele și grupurile nominale (în opozиie cu verbele și adjectivele) – atât din punct de vedere calitativ, cât și cantitativ.

• Discursul limbilor specializate preferă limba scrisă celei orale, ele folosesc, de asemenea, simboluri din alte sisteme semiotice [35, p. 70-71, *t.n.*].

Analiza termenilor în context este o necesitate subliniată tot mai frecvent în terminologia actuală. Este o tendință firească, dat fiind că o unitate lexicală își capătă valoarea de termen și, respectiv, statutul de termen, numai dacă este situată într-un ansamblu terminologic pertinent, altfel spus într-un context terminologic.

Potrivit autorilor Bessé B. de, Nkwenti-Azech B., Sager J.C., **contextul** reprezintă „o unitate textuală de lungime variabilă, care înconjoară un termen sau cuvânt în interiorul unui text și de care poate depinde semnificația cuvântului sau a termenului”. Există mai multe tipuri de context: **contextul definitoriu**, care explică conceptul; **contextul enciclopedic**, care oferă informații despre natura conceptului, a părților sale, a funcției etc.; **contextul de utilizare**, care ilustrează ariile discursului în care se folosesc un cuvânt sau un termen; **contextul formal**, care ilustrează comportamentul morfologic al unui termen sau al unui cuvânt; **contextul metalingvistic**, care informează despre utilizarea autonomă a termenului [17, p. 126, *t.n.*].

Contextul imediat al unui termen sau, mai bine-zis, cuvintele situate în proximitatea imediată a acestuia, mai poartă denumirea de **cotext**. Acesta din urmă formează „un câmp conceptual care permite a stabili corect sensul cuvintelor și a construi o impresie referențială. Termenul se pomenește înconjurat de alte unități terminologice și acest ansamblu formează un câmp semantic care ne arată domeniul de activitate spre care să ne orientăm



pentru a actualiza corect referentul extralingvistic al unui termen în același timp cu sensul său în raport cu anturajul lui lingvistic” [1, t.n.].

Prin urmare, un **cotext**, care mai poate fi numit și **microcontext lingvistic**, este alcătuit din alti termeni alăturați, care, împreună, formează un domeniu de referință, un câmp conceptual, ajutând la semantizarea tuturor componentelor acestuia și, respectiv, la actualizarea/ înțelegerea lor de către destinatarul textului.

Cotextul poate oferi indicii directe sau ambigue privind domeniul de proveniență al unității lexicale respective, însă există și situații când cotextul nu oferă niciun indiciu despre domeniul de proveniență al acesteia [135]. În acest caz, ar trebui luat în considerare contextul mai larg în care apar. Indiscutabil rămâne însă faptul că analiza sintagmatică a termenilor poate fi realizată numai dacă se ține cont de cotextele/contextele în care apar.

Toate limbile naționale, la o anumită etapă a dezvoltării lor, parcurg un proces de stratificare. În sens larg, stratificarea reprezintă o „formă de distribuire diferențiată a indivizilor oricărui sistem social”. Fiind un sistem, limba este un fenomen social, în cadrul căruia se manifestă trăsăturile profunde ale omului și ale societății umane [190, p. 27-38, t.n.].

Stratificarea unităților lexicale care alcătuiesc texte de specialitate constituie domeniul de interes al mai multor lingviști [12; 16, p.69-71; 18; 35; 106; 176; 183; 192 §.a.]. Spre exemplu, cercetătoarea M.-T. Cabré distinge trei grupuri de lexeme utilizate în texte de specialitate: 1) unități lexicale din limbajul general, 2) unități lexicale speciale, care aparțin unei zone aflate la hotarul dintre limbajul general și limbajele de specialitate și 3) unități lexicale proprii textelor specializate [35, p.71-73, t.n.].

Viziuni similare împărtășesc și unii autori români.

Valeria Nistor delimită două straturi relativ independente și bine individualizate ale vocabularului folosit în limbajele de specialitate: **lexicul neterminologic** și **lexicul specializat**. În opinia autoarei, „lexicul neterminologic alcătuiește, sub aspect stilistic, nivelul neutru, el conține cuvinte din limba literară comună” și este „baza pe care se construiește un text științific”. În această categorie V.Nistor încadrează verbele de acțiune, de tipul: *a demonstra, a trata, a formula, a caracteriza, a rezulta*; substantive abstractive și de proveniență verbală: *actualitate, utilizare, formare, introducere*; adjective și adverbe cu sens apreciativ: *activ, actual, pozitiv, negativ, semnificativ* etc. La rândul său, lexicul specializat este alcătuit din **lexicul științific general** și **lexicul terminologic**. Lexicul științific general „cuprinde termeni cu una sau mai multe semnificații, care funcționează într-un domeniu sau în ansamblul domeniilor specializate”. Acești termeni „sunt purtătorii informației larg utilizate”, ei „rezintă fondul național științific de bază”. Este vorba despre termeni de tipul: *operatie, fenomen,*



*proces, sistem, abstract, adaptare* etc. Iar lexicul terminologic este „zona de specificitate a stilurilor funcționale nonartistice, în mod deosebit a stilului științific”, grupându-se în diverse nomenclaturi și terminologii [118].

În unele surse sunt menționate patru **straturi** lexicale ale textelor științifice:

a) Cuvinte din fondul literar comun utilizate și în textul științific fără nici o modificare. Acestea sunt mai ales cuvinte auxiliare, pronume, numerale, adverbe, unele verbe copulative și un număr nesemnificativ de substantive și adjective.

b) Cuvinte științifice cu caracter general, utilizate în majoritatea disciplinelor științifice, indiferent de domeniu.

c) Lexicul de profil, ce variază în funcție de specialitate, mai puțin numeros, dar foarte important, orientat spre o sferă mult mai îngustă de utilizare, nu ca și lexicul științific general, și de aceea cu caracter mult mai informativ pentru specialist;

d) Lexicul special, terminologic (terminologia lexicală îngustă), limitat în utilizare în cadrul unei singure discipline științifice, foarte numeros și înțeles, de regulă, doar de specialiști [49].

Aderăm la opinia conform căreia unitățile lexicale utilizate de autorii textelor științifice pot fi divizate convențional în trei categorii esențiale: neterminologice, științifice cu caracter general și terminologice. La rândul lor, unitățile lexicale terminologice cunosc grade diferite de specializare [88, 90].

### **Termen, terminologie, sistem terminologic**

Sistemul de concepte ale științei contemporane are un caracter complex, aflându-se într-o interdependență directă cu procesele de creare a domeniilor științifice respective. Structura acestui sistem suferă modificări continue, generate nu doar de intensificarea proceselor de integrare și de diferențiere a științelor, ci și, mai ales, de apariția unor noi principii de formare a domeniilor de cunoaștere, a unor noi discipline științifice, ceea ce conduce nemijlocit la apariția unor noi sisteme terminologice.

Întregul sistem terminologic al unei limbi este alcătuit din straturi, clase, câmpuri semantice organizate ierarhic. Astfel, termenii nu se grupează în mod arbitrar, ci în funcție de particularitățile semantice ale domeniului respectiv, în baza unor factori lingvistici și extralingvistici.

În ultimele decenii, în cercetările de lingvistică interesul pentru studiul lexicului specializat a crescut substanțial. Acest fapt este determinat atât de sporirea rolului științei și tehnicii în dezvoltarea omenirii, cât și de creșterea rolului terminologiei în limbile moderne. În lucrările de specialitate se remarcă faptul că, în prezent, ca rezultat al dezvoltării rapide a domeniilor



științifice, circa 90% din numărul total de cuvinte noi, apărute în limbile moderne, constituie elemente ale lexicului specializat, iar îmbogățirea vocabularului terminologic decurge mult mai rapid decât cea a lexicului comun. Se estimează, de asemenea, că numărul domeniilor științifice se află în continuă expansiune, constituind, în prezent, câteva sute; numărul conceptelor existente este de circa 50 de milioane, iar anual sunt create între 4 000 și 10 000 de obiecte și concepte științifice noi, care, evident, necesită să fie denumite [160, p.15-16].

De la Wüster și Lotte, considerați fondatorii terminologiei ca știință (anii '30 ai sec. al XX-lea), și până în prezent, când se înregistrează un interes crescând față de analiza lexicului de specialitate din diverse domenii ale științei, diferitele aspecte ale acestei probleme au preocupat numeroși lingviști. Astfel, sunt bine cunoscute contribuțile școlilor naționale de terminologie de la Praga, din Polonia, Spania, URSS, Canada, din unele state scandinave etc. De-a lungul timpului, numeroși cercetători s-au pronunțat direct sau tangențial asupra noțiunii de termen și sistem terminologic, printre care savanți consacrați, ca I. Iordan, A. Graur, E. Coșeriu, I. Coteanu, Th. Hristea, M. T. Cabré, P. Lerat, G. Rondeau, P. Faber, H. Felber, L. Wald, N. Forăscu, A. Bidu- Vrânceanu, S. Berejan, V. Guțu Romalo, V.M. Leicik, A.V. Superanskaia, N.V. Podolskaia, N.V. Vasilieva, și alții.

Noțiunile de **termen** și **terminologie** cunosc în literatura de specialitate o mulțime de definiții. Astfel, autoarea Ahmetova M. analizează circa 20 de definiții ale termenului și încearcă să efectueze o analiză retrospectivă a evoluției noțiunii de **termen** în lingvistică, menționând, totodată, că ele constituie doar o parte neînsemnată din numărul total [168], iar Ŝelov S. selectează din literatura lingvistică aproape 30 de definiții ale termenului [194].

Această varietate de definiții se explică, probabil, prin faptul că termenul este un obiect de cercetare pentru mai multe științe, iar fiecare știință, la rândul său, scoate în evidență caracteristicile cele mai importante din punctul ei de vedere (logic, filosofic, lingvistic etc.). În această ordine de idei, Superanskaia A.V., Podolskaia N.V., Vasilieva N.V. afirmă că logicienii consideră drept termeni orice cuvânt raportat la o definiție rigidă; filosofii identifică termenii cu definițiile lor, considerându-i prescurtări ale definițiilor; reprezentanții cunoașterii profesionale consideră termeni toate cuvintele ce țin de activitatea lor profesională, fără a fi preoccupați de caracterul lor sistemic și de prezența unor temeuri suficiente pentru a termeniza o anunită noțiune; iar pentru lingviști, termenul este, mai întâi de toate, denumirea unui concept" [192, p.11-12].

Astfel, în opinia diferitor lingviști, un **termen** este: o unitate lexicală ce constă din unul sau mai multe cuvinte care desemnează un concept în cadrul



unui domeniu [17, p. 151]; un semn lingvistic care se atribuie unuia sau câtorva concepte, care sunt determinate de alte concepte din același domeniu; el poate fi un cuvânt sau o îmbinare de cuvinte, un simbol grafic, o abreviere, un acronim etc. [67, p. 168, *t.n.*]; unitatea de bază a terminologiei, care denumește conceptele proprii fiecărei discipline specializate [35, p. 149, *t.n.*]; o desemnare ce constă din unul sau mai multe cuvinte care reprezintă un concept general aparținând unui limbaj special. Un termen trebuie să fie acceptat și folosit de specialiști ai domeniului de activitate respectiv [30, p. 9]; denumirea printr-o unitate lingvistică a unei noțiuni definite dintr-un anumit domeniu de activitate; termenii sunt cuvinte, unități frazeologice, abrevieri sau simboluri literale [139, p. 566]; o unitate lexicală dinamică cu o valoare specializată, care contribuie la constituirea cunoștințelor prin utilizare în discurs [61, p. 51].

Definiții mai ample au fost formulate de colective de autori [24, p.505; 192, p.14, *t.n.*], spre exemplu, cercetătoarele Superanskaia A.V., Podolskaia N.V., Vasilieva N.V. consideră că **termenul** este:

- a) un cuvânt special (sau o îmbinare de cuvinte) acceptat în activitatea profesională și utilizat(ă) în condiții deosebite;
- b) o denominare verbală a unui concept, care face parte din sistemul de concepte al unui anumit domeniu de cunoștințe profesionale;
- c) elementul conceptual esențial al unui limbaj specializat [192, p.14, *t.n.*]. Iar în *Dicționarul de științe ale limbii* **termenul** este definit în felul următor:
  - a) un element al unei terminologii sau al unui limbaj specializat, reprezentând denumirea cunoștințelor din acest domeniu;
  - b) unitate a cunoașterii cu un conținut stabil, deci mai independentă față de context decât cuvintele obișnuite;
  - c) semn lingvistic compus dintr-un semnificant și un semnificat;
  - d) denumire (etichetă) la care se ajunge printr-o procedură de lexicalizare naturală sau artificială, mai mult ori mai puțin specifică;
  - e) simbol, stimул fizic reprezentând conventional, prin cuvânt/litere/cifre/pictograme, o noțiune sau un obiect individual [24, p.505].

Observăm că, pentru sirul de definiții prezentate supra, este comună ideea că termenul reprezintă o „unitate lexicală”, un „simbol”, o „etichetă”, o „desemnare” (denumire), „un semn lingvistic”, folosit(ă) în limbajele specializate pentru a indica un **concept** sau o **noțiune** (acești termeni sunt considerați sinonimi în lucrările mai multor autori). Elementul comun al tuturor definițiilor analizate este capacitatea termenului de a desemna un concept științific (obiect sau fenomen) al unei științe sau al unui domeniu de activitate profesională.



Din perspectiva lingvisticii cognitive, **termenii** sunt „unități lingvistice care transmit o semnificație conceptuală în cadrul textelor cunoașterii specializate. În înțelegerea naturii termenilor, acest proces de transmitere a sensului este la fel de important ca și conceptul pe care îl desemnează” [64, t.n.].

Împărtășim opiniile potrivit cărora caracterul terminologic al unei unități lexicale se poate manifesta doar în discurs (texte, contexte, microcontexte) și considerăm, în acord cu cercetătoarea Inga Druță, că un **termen este o unitate lexicală dinamică, având o valoare specializată și contribuind la constituirea cunoștințelor prin utilizare în discurs** [61, p. 51].

În prezent, documentul care delimitizează strict noțiunile utilizate în terminologie este *International Standard Terminology – ISO 704* (1997, 2000, 2009), care este preluat de majoritatea cercetătorilor în activitatea lor terminologică. Conform acestui document, termenul este o „**desemnare** constând din unul sau mai multe cuvinte, care reprezintă un **concept** general într-un **limbaj special**” [71, p. 24, t.n.]. În același text se stipulează că în categoria termenilor se includ și elementele nonlingvistice (simboluri, litere, cifre, pictograme sau combinații ale acestora), iar o condiție obligatorie este că „un termen trebuie să fie acceptat și utilizat de specialiști ai domeniului respectiv”.

În mod tradițional, alături de noțiunea de **termen** se analizează și cea de **concept**. Aceasta din urmă este definit drept o „construcție mentală care servește la clasificarea obiectelor individuale ale lumii exterioare sau interioare cu ajutorul unor abstracții mai mult sau mai puțin arbitrară”, ele mai sunt considerate și reprezentări mentale ale obiectelor într-un domeniu specializat și pot fi definite prin integrarea lor într-un domeniu de referință [71, p. 2, t.n.].

Fie că este înțeles ca **semn lingvistic**, fie că este considerat o **unitate a cunoașterii**, **termenul** constituie obiectul de studiu al **terminologiei** ca știință. În lingvistica actuală, și definițiile terminologiei sunt la fel de numeroase. În mod curent, noțiunea **terminologie** este utilizată cu două sensuri generale: 1) totalitatea termenilor, noțiunilor, denumirilor, de care se folosesc limbajele specializate pentru a transmite cunoștințe într-un domeniu particular de activitate profesională; 2) știință sau disciplina despre totalitatea termenilor, noțiunilor, denumirilor [7]. Definițiile formulate de majoritatea autorilor, de asemenea, urmează Standardul internațional *ISO 1087: 1990*: „Terminologia este ansamblul de termeni care reprezintă un sistem de noțiuni al unui domeniu particular”; „Ştiința terminologiei este studiul științific al noțiunilor și al termenilor folosiți în limbajele de specialitate” [61, p.14, 160, p.5 §.a.].



Terminologia mai este considerată și o știință interdisciplinară, situată la intersecția dintre lingvistică, logică, ontologie, tehnologiile informaționale și disciplinele individuale. Această interdisciplinaritate a terminologiei este determinată de caracterul complex al unităților terminologice, care constituie, deopotrivă, unități lingvistice, elemente cognitive (logice și ontologice) și mijloace de comunicare (teoria comunicării), afirmă M.T.Cabré, citându-l pe Wüster [35, p.25, t.n.].

În esență, noțiunea **terminologie** se referă la cel puțin trei concepte diferite: a) principiile și bazele conceptuale care guvernează studiul termenilor; b) orientările utilizate în munca terminologică; c) ansamblul de termeni al unui anumit domeniu special [35, p.32, t.n.].

Una dintre cele mai ample definiții ale terminologiei este formulată în *Dicționarul general de științe ale limbii (ediția a II-a)*, în care terminologia este definită drept un „concept utilizat cu mai multe sensuri interdependente, nu întotdeauna delimitate clar:

(1) Limbă (limbaj) specializat(ă) sau un subsistem lingvistic care utilizează o terminologie (în sensul 2) și alte mijloace lingvistice sau nelingvistice, pentru a realiza o comunicare de specialitate nonambiguă, cu funcția majoră de a transmite cunoștințe într-un domeniu particular de activitate profesională.

(2) Ansamblu de termeni sau cuvinte specializate aparținând unui sociolect, care se caracterizează prin univocitate și nonambiguitate.

(3) Terminologia mai este utilizată cu sensul unei științe interdisciplinare preocupată de problemele generale ale terminologiilor (în sensurile 1 și 2), care analizează logica cunoștințelor, ierarhia conceptelor, codajul lingvistic și nonlingvistic, precum și problemele creației de cuvinte necesare științelor tehnicii” [24, p.506-507].

Autoarele Superanskaia A.V., Podolskaia N.V., Vasilieva N.V. accentuează caracterul polisemantic al cuvântului **terminologie**, afirmând că acesta are tocmai cinci sensuri:

1) totalitatea sau o oarecare mulțime indefinitely de termeni-cuvinte în general;

2) totalitatea termenilor (conceptelor și denumirilor) unui anumit domeniu al cunoașterii (terminologia medicală, terminologia geografică);

3) știința despre formarea, structura și funcționarea termenilor în general;

4) știința despre formarea, structura și funcționarea termenilor unui anumit domeniu al cunoașterii, utilizăți într-o anumită limbă, și a echivalentelor lor din alte limbi;

5) știința terminologică generală [192, p.14, t.n.].



Observăm că, de fapt, primele două definiții sunt asociate cu sistemul de concepte ale unui anumit domeniu al cunoașterii, iar ultimele trei sunt corelate cu noțiunea de știință despre sistemul de concepte.

Această polisemie însă nu i-a împiedicat, până în prezent, pe cercetători să se înțeleagă reciproc, deoarece „condițiile contextului sau ale situației ajută la corelarea univocă a cuvântului terminologie în fiecare situație de utilizare a lui” [192, p.14, *t.n.*].

Deseori, pentru a delimita ansamblul de termeni utilizați într-un anumit domeniu special, alături de noțiunea de **terminologie**, se operează cu cea de **sistem terminologic**. Cităm doar câteva definiții ale terminologiei ca domeniu lexical, excerptate din lucrările de specialitate: un ansamblu de termeni dintr-un anumit domeniu de specialitate (*the set of terms of a particular special subject*)

[35, p. 32, *t.n.*]; vocabularul unui domeniu special (*a vocabulary of a special subject field*) [138, p.3]; sumă a termenilor dintr-un anumit domeniu (sensul concret al noțiunii de terminologie) [23, p. 12]; un ansamblu/corpus/ set de termeni dintr-un anumit domeniu/ limbaj de specialitate/ sistem științific [7; 11, p. 41-42; 30, p.10; 122, *t.n.*]; un subansamblu/subsistem lexical determinat semantic și funcțional [160, p.6; 139, p. 568], care reprezintă rezultatul unui proces conștient, prin care s-a căutat să se denumească, în principiu cât mai sistematic, noile obiecte și fenomene sau să se propună echivalenți pentru termeni existenți în alte limbi [139, p. 568]; totalitatea termenilor de specialitate folosiți într-o știință, într-o disciplină, într-o activitate practică, în arte, în cercetare etc. [46, p.321], dar și de un cercetător/ autor sau un grup de cercetători/ o entitate socială [122, *t.n.*]; o colecție de termeni tehnici dintr-un anumit sistem științific, care diferă de uzul comun prin faptul că termenii sunt definiți cu exactitate în acest sistem [29, p. 1186, *t.n.*]; totalitatea sau o mulțime nedeterminată de cuvinte-termeni în general și totalitatea termenilor (noțiuni și denumiri) dintr-un anumit domeniu al cunoașterii [192, p.14, *t.n.*].

Așadar, terminologia, ca totalitate a termenilor sau cuvintelor specializate, reprezintă un strat independent al oricărei limbi naționale și se află într-o interacțiune intensă cu activitatea profesională a specialiștilor din diverse domenii. Observăm că, în cele mai multe surse, noțiunile **terminologie** și **sistem terminologic** sunt utilizate cu aceeași valoare semantică. Ele nu se exclud reciproc, ci, din contra, fiecare este folosită pentru a explica pe cealaltă.

În unele studii de specialitate însă, se face o distincție categorică între cele două noțiuni. Astfel, cunoscutul cercetător Leicik V.M. consideră că **terminologia** unui domeniu este totalitatea termenilor formați în mod



natural, spontan, rezultatul unui proces îndelungat, care se realizează, de obicei, în perioada de constituire a domeniului respectiv. Aceasta este etapa „terminologiei incomplete”. La rândul lui, **sistemul terminologic** reprezintă totalitatea termenilor creați în mod conștient, reflectă un sistem de concepte, iar prin intermediul acestora – anumite domenii științifice și (sau) de activitate. Dacă sistemul de concepte reprezintă un model logic al domeniului respectiv, atunci sistemul terminologic este modelul lingvistic al acestuia. Cele patru tipuri de trăsături ale sistemului terminologic sunt, în viziunea cercetătorului, următoarele: a) general-sistemic, b) logice, c) lingvistice și d) capacitatea de a crea noi modele [183, p. 106-120, t.n.]. Autorul afirmă că, pentru a deveni sistem, terminologia trebuie să îndeplinească o serie de condiții, precum: existența unui domeniu special, care să dispună de hotare bine conturate; existența unui sistem noțional, ce vizează domeniul respectiv; existența unei teorii (concepții), care descrie domeniul respectiv și în care se încadrează acest sistem noțional; existența unei limbi comune și a unui limbaj specializat, ale cărui elemente lexicale pot fi utilizate pentru denominarea conceptelor sistemului noțional respectiv (obiecte și trăsături ale acestora) [183, p. 119, t.n.].

Pornind de la cele menționate, putem afirma cu certitudine că orice ansamblu de termeni utilizat într-un anumit domeniu al cunoașterii reprezintă un sistem complex, logic structurat și ierarhizat și îndeplinește condițiile formulate de cercetător. În lucrarea de față, adoptăm ambii termeni (*terminologie* și *sistem terminologic*), considerându-i sinonime, dat fiind că lexicul specializat, inclusiv cel din domeniul sportului, care interesează cercetarea de față, a depășit demult etapa inițială, spontană de formare, constituind în prezent un sistem organizat în clase și categorii distințe.

### Criterii de clasificare a termenilor

În orice domeniu științific, clasificarea are un rol primordial, reprezentând o metodă de cunoaștere, ce se realizează la o anumită etapă de dezvoltare a științelor, și anume când apare necesitatea evaluării și reevaluării obiectului cercetărilor, a ierarhizării noțiunilor, a diferitor raporturi etc. Rolul clasificării este incontestabil și în terminologie, dat fiind că anume în acest mod pot fi relevate și argumentate structura logică a domeniului respectiv, caracterul sistemic, diversitatea raporturilor dintre numeroasele lui elemente. Potrivit autorilor *Lexiconului tehnic român* (1957-1966), volumul total al termenilor tehnici românești cuprindea la acea etapă 68 500 de termeni descriptori (recomandați), la care se adaugă termeni tolerați sau nerecomandați (în general, sinonime sau variante ale celor descriptori) și câteva zeci de mii de termeni utilizați în cuprinsul



articolelor [139, p.568]. Evident, de atunci și până în prezent au fost înregistrați o mulțime de termeni noi. Cunoașterea științifică diversificându-se continuu, au apărut și domenii științifice noi, cum ar fi sistemele digitale sau nanotehnologiile.

În cele ce urmează, ne-am propus să trecem în revistă variantele abordări privind clasificarea termenilor, precum și criteriile care sunt puse la baza acestor clasificări.

În știința logicii, clasificarea este considerată, alături de definiție și diviziune, una dintre operațiile logice asupra noțiunii. Ea „se bazează pe găsirea unei diferențe specifice, o proprietate care să permită reconstituirea genului prin regruparea speciilor din același gen” [82, p.37]. Această diferență este numită criteriu al clasificării.

Astfel, pornind de la însușirile comune ale obiectelor, acestea sunt grupate în clase tot mai generale [52, p.40]. Prin urmare, scopul oricărei clasificări constă în ierarhizarea claselor unui sistem conform anumitor caracteristici esențiale, specifice sau nu acestor obiecte.

Clasificarea științifică este definită drept „o modalitate ordonată de asociere și disociere, precum și de organizare mintală a ideilor, prezente în creierul omului sub formă de noțiuni. Suma tuturor obiectelor individuale, ce posedă anumite însușiri, se numește clasă. Caracteristicile unor obiecte tipice separate ajută la înțelegerea esenței întregii clase și, clasificând noțiunile, la organizarea lor în sisteme” [192, p.138, t.n.].

Efectuarea corectă a unei clasificări presupune respectarea următoarelor reguli:

- toate obiectele supuse clasificării trebuie să fie repartizate într-o anumită clasă;
- obiectele nu pot fi repartizate în două sau mai multe clase diferite;
- asemănările, respectiv însușirile comune pe baza cărora obiectele se repartizează în aceeași clasă, trebuie să fie mai importante decât deosebirile lor;
- alcătuirea claselor de obiecte pe aceeași treaptă a clasificării trebuie să aibă la bază același criteriu – aceleași însușiri [52, p.40].

Date fiind diversitatea și instabilitatea termenilor, criteriile de clasificare a acestora sunt, de asemenea, variante. În mod frecvent, aceste elemente sunt clasificate în funcție de sferă și conținutul lor. Sintetizând opiniile mai multor logicieni [52; 82; 146; 157 §.a.], preluate și în unele articole cu caracter lingvistic [97, p. 43-46 §.a.], remarcăm următoarele clasificări ale termenilor:

După **sferă** (din punct de vedere extensional):

**1)** în funcție de numărul de obiecte reflectate – **singulari și generali**;

**2)** în funcție de faptul dacă reflectă obiecte care există în realitate – **vizi** (ce denumesc obiecte sau realități inexistente) și **nevizi** (care denumesc obiecte ce au o existență reală);



3) în funcție de caracterul univoc al stabilirii sferei – **precisi** (cu un conținut exact și o sferă bine stabilită) și **imprecisi** sau **vagi** (care nu au un conținut și o sferă stabilită cu exactitate);

4) după gradul de distribuție a proprietății între membrii clasei – **colectivi** și **distributivi/divizivi**.

După **conținut** (din punct de vedere intensional):

1) în funcție de faptul dacă reflectă obiecte sau însușirile acestora – **concreți** și **abstracti**;

2) după prezența/absența proprietății denotate – **pozitivi** și **negativi**;

3) în funcție de gradul de dependență/independență semantică față de alți termeni – **absoluți** și relativi;

4) după concordanța logică cu alți termeni și participarea altor termeni la construcția semantică a termenului – **simpli** și **compuși** [82, p. 35-37; 52, p.27-29; 157, p.39-44; 97, p. 43-45 ș.a.].

Pornind de la criteriul extensiunii, între doi termeni pot fi stabilite raporturi logice de concordanță (atunci când termenii au cel puțin un element comun în extensiunea lor – raporturi de identitate, de ordonare și de încrucișare) și raporturi de opozitie (atunci când cei doi termeni nu au nici un element comun – raporturi de contrarietate și de contradicție) [157, p.96-104; 97, p.45-46].

Cele expuse în rândurile de mai sus reflectă clasificarea termenilor din punctul de vedere al logicii. Pentru specialiștii în terminologie prezintă însă un interes deosebit clasificările lingvistice ale termenilor ca mijloace lexicale de desemnare a noțiunilor.

Astfel, lingvistul român Paul Miclău, care s-a ocupat de analiza semantică a limbajelor de specialitate, clasifică termenii tehnici și științifici în „categorii referențiale în funcție de clasele de seme (părțile de vorbire), iar în interiorul acestora, în funcție de manifestările ontice (existențiale) sau epistemice (de cunoaștere)”. În acest context, autorul distinge cinci categorii esențiale de termeni: numele, adjecтивul, verbul, adverbul, substitutele și elementele de relație. Bunăoară, în categoria numelui, sunt încadrate următoarele clase: a) obiecte sau fenomene, luate în substanțialitatea lor tehnică (*lentilă, clor, metabolism, hidrocentrală* etc.); b) trăsături calitative ale acestora (*transparență, căldură, conductibilitate, fisiune (nucleară)* ș.a.); c) trăsături cantitative (*înălțime, frecvență, dispersie* etc.); d) trăsături structurale (*coeziune, simetrie*); e) trăsături care se referă la metodologie (*inducție, deducție, analiză, sinteză*) și f) trăsături care se referă la teoria științelor (*performanță, competență, presupozitie*), ultimele două încadrând, precum observăm, noțiuni abstracte. Considerând analiza componențială drept modelul cel mai potrivit pentru cercetarea semantică limbajelor speciale, același autor efectuează și o „înfățișare a categoriilor componențiale ale



semnificației din limbajele speciale": 1) seme care se referă la trăsăturile perceptibile studiate cu ajutorul limbajelor specializate (forma, dimensiunea, culoarea, duritatea, miroslul, trăsăturile acustice, gustul); 2) trăsături structurale; 3) trăsături funcționale; 4) trăsături care țin de tehnica producerii; 5) trăsături care se conturează prin localizarea în timp și în spațiu; 6) trăsături clasematice și 7) trăsături epistemice [106, p.68-82].

Potrivit cercetătorilor C. Manea, D.M. Pruneanu, în funcție de specificitatea lor, termenii tehnico-științifici sunt: 1) termeni tehnici de strictă specialitate, folosiți (și, în cele mai multe cazuri, înțeleși) numai de către specialiști; 2) termeni de orientare științifică accesibili vorbitorilor obișnuiți (datorită frecvenței relative în uz și analizabilității lor); 3) termeni redefiniți semantic și preluăți de vocabularul uzual. Cel mai clar poate fi observată repartizarea acestora pe domenii de activitate: domenii tehnice, științe matematice, științe ale naturii, științe sociale și istorice; științe filologice, lingvistică; arte plastice, muzică, teorie și critică literară [99].

O altă clasificare îi aparține savantului Silviu Berejan, care divizează unitățile terminologice, în funcție de modul de formare și de utilizare a lor, în două clase mari: termeni de proveniență populară, naționali (apărăuți în exercitarea unor meserii și arte autohtone) și termeni de proveniență cultă, științifică, internaționali (apărăuți ca rezultat al dezvoltării civilizației mondiale). Primii au apărut pe cale naturală, firească și, împreună cu restul fondului lexical, formează vocabularul specific al limbii. Ceilalți sunt reglementați, de obicei, de specialiști din fiecare domeniu, fapt ce le conferă un caracter pronunțat artificial [16, p. 69].

Gradul de acceptabilitate terminologică, adică „gradul de apreciere a unui termen bazat pe o scară de valori predeterminată” [160, p.13], a condiționat divizarea termenilor în următoarele categorii: **standardizați, privilegiați** (recomandați), **tolerați** (acceptați ca sinonime), **nerecomandabili și respinși**.

O amplă clasificare a termenilor a fost propusă de mai mulți lingviști din Rusia [171; 183, p.88-97; 184, t.n.], clasificare ce are la bază divizarea termenilor în funcție de opoziția **general/special**. Astfel, se disting: termeni care denumesc categorii sau termeni categoriali (*materie, spațiu, timp, cantitate, calitate, măsură* și.a.); termeni științifici generali și tehnici generali, folosiți în diverse domenii ale cunoașterii (de ex. *informație, element*); termeni comuni mai multor domenii, numiți și „interramurali” sau interdisciplinari (de ex. *metodă*), și termeni speciali (cum ar fi noțiunile din geologie: *subdelta, geo chimia petrolului* și.a.). Aceasta reprezintă, în viziunea autorilor, o **clasificare terminologică propriu-zisă**.

La baza altor clasificări sunt puse diverse trăsături ale termenilor: de conținut, de formă, funcționale, intra- și extralingvistice.



Astfel, din punctul de vedere al **conținutului**, se disting:

1) termeni ai observației (clasele de obiecte reale) și termeni teoretici (noțiuni abstractive), delimitare folosită mai ales în filosofie;

2) în funcție de domeniul de cunoaștere sau de activitate – științifici, tehnici, industriali, economici etc. (numărul claselor de termeni științifici coincide cu numărul de științe care există la o anumită etapă a progresului științific, iar în cadrul fiecărei clase de termeni din fizică, chimie etc. se evidențiază atâtea sisteme terminologice, câte teorii independente de descriere a obiectelor și legităților fizice, chimice etc. există);

3) în funcție de categoria logică a conceptului definit: termeni care denumesc obiecte, procese, trăsături și calități, unități de măsură și.a.

Clasificările **lingvistice** ale termenilor se bazează pe trăsăturile semantice și structura formală a acestora:

1) în funcție de structura semantică – monosemantici și polisemantici;

2) în funcție de structura formală – radicali, termeni derivati, termeni compuși, termeni-sintagme, abrevieri și.a.;

3) în funcție de limba de proveniență – termeni formați pe teren propriu (naționali), termeni împrumutați și termeni hibrizi;

4) în funcție de apartenența la o parte de vorbire (criteriu lexico-gramatical) – termeni substantivali, verbali, adjectivali, adverbiali;

5) în funcție de aspectul stilistic – termeni normativi, profesionalisme și argotisme. Abordarea **sociologică** presupune delimitarea termenilor în următoarele categorii distincte:

1) în funcție de autor – termeni colectivi și individuali (orice termen, înainte de a deveni general-acceptat, a fost creat de un anumit autor; dacă nu a fost acceptat ca termen, el rămâne a fi un ocazonialism);

2) în funcție de sfera de utilizare – termeni universali (comuni pentru mai multe domenii conexe), particulari (specifici unui singur domeniu) și conceptual-autoricești (specifici unei singure abordări sau autor).

O altă clasificare a termenilor se bazează pe **frecvența** utilizării acestora în text: termeni cu frecvență sporită, medie și redusă.

Totodată, pentru fiecare epocă se creează clasificări care țin seama de aspectul **istorico-lexicologic**: termeni-arhaisme și termeni-neologisme.

Din punctul de vedere al **caracterului normativ**, se disting termeni aflați în proces de standardizare, termeni supuși standardizării (standardizați), termeni respinși în procesul de standardizare (inadmisibili), termeni aflați în proces de sistematizare (recomandați), termeni admisibili și termeni respinși în procesul de sistematizare [171; 183, p.88-97; 184, t.n.].

Cât privește evoluția formelor termenilor specializați, în literatura lingvistică este menționată și „*variația în timp a condițiilor de impunere, normare, codificare (subl. aut.)*”, în corelație cu factori extralingvistici care au



făcut ca în epoca actuală acest aspect să ocupe un loc central în terminologie” [23, p. 56].

În altă ordine de idei, menționăm că, în literatura de specialitate, se face distincție între **termeni** și **nomeni**, clasificare ce ține seama de două criterii: caracterul noțiunilor și al obiectelor desemnate și scopurile desemnării acestora. Potrivit lingvistului Silviu Berejan, **termenii** sunt cuvinte specializate care au în uz, spre deosebire de cuvintele obișnuite, granițe riguros conturate de întrebuițare și sensuri riguros determinate în cadrul acestor granițe. Termenii reflectă deci prin mijloacele limbii noțiuni și obiecte din diverse medii speciale ale societății umane. **Nomenii** sunt cuvinte specializate care, spre deosebire de termeni, denumesc obiecte (nu și noțiuni), iar spre deosebire de cuvintele obișnuite, numai denumesc lucrurile, fără să se refere la conținutul lor, și indică doar clasa de obiecte din care fac parte. Nomenii sunt, aşadar, simple mărci, etichete ale obiectelor, care constituie în realitatea ambientă clase de unități omogene (tipuri de piese tehnice, de mărfuri de același fel, de soiuri de plante, de varietăți de fructe, de specii de animale etc.). În limbă ei reprezintă unități ale planului expresiei, care nu au corespondent în planul conținutului, adică nu au sens propriu-zis [16, p.69]. Prin urmare, ansamblul de termeni dintr-o anumită limbă sau dintr-un domeniu tehnico-științific alcătuiește o terminologie (cuvântul dat denumește, după cum se știe, și disciplina lingvistică ce se ocupă de studiul termenilor și al sistemelor terminologice), iar totalitatea nomenilor poartă denumirea de nomenclatură.

O nomenclatură însă nu poate să apară fără să existe o terminologie. Principalele trăsături specifice ale nomenclaturilor (care sunt întotdeauna neapărat de persoane cu o pregătire profesională înaltă) sunt, în opinia cercetătoarelor Superanskaia A.V., Podolskaia N.V., Vasilieva N.V.,

„caracterul artificial al formării lor, ordonarea și fixarea lor obligatorie în scris” [193, p.22, *t.n.*]. Așadar, clasificarea are un rol esențial în activitatea terminologică. În bibliografia de specialitate se atestă o mare varietate a criteriilor de clasificare a termenilor științifici. Abordările prezentate în paragraful de față reflectă diversitatea și complexitatea termenului ca element lexical, dat fiind că orice termen, posedând însușiri și funcții distincte, poate face parte din mai multe clasificări simultan, fapt ce a condus la apariția mai multor direcții de cercetare independente: terminologia generală, semasiologică, onomasiologică, funcțională, istorică, descriptivă, cognitivă, textuală etc. [92].

Am insistat asupra acestor criterii nu doar pentru a vărsa lumină asupra clasificărilor existente (care în unele lucrări se suprapun, iar în altele rămân a fi incomplete), ci și pentru a le selecta pe cele mai relevante pentru clasificarea termenilor sportivi [90; 91] și, mai ales, pentru a sublinia



caracterul de sistem al terminologiei, ca parte esențială a limbajelor specializate. Pentru cercetarea de față, prezintă interes clasificarea terminologică propriu-zisă (ce se realizează în funcție de opoziția „general-special”), clasificările lingvistice (în special, cele bazate pe trăsăturile semantice ale termenilor și pe structura lor formală), precum și clasificarea sociologică (ce presupune delimitarea unităților lexicale specializate în funcție de sfera lor de utilizare).

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# The dynamics of legal english lexicon

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## Summary

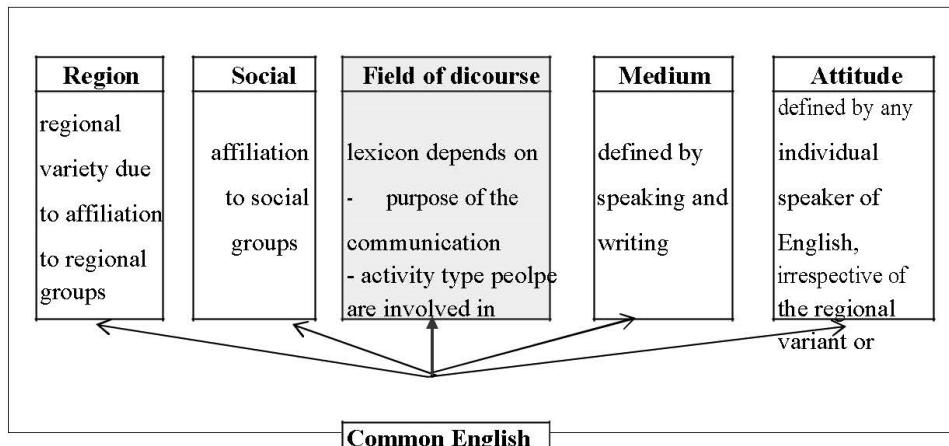
*The paper is a complex investigation of lexical features and culturally specific elements in legal translation. The applied research is based on analysis of the bilingual corpus (European legal documents). In order to validate the working hypotheses, linguistic, socio-cultural and translational aspects were carefully correlated, with the stated purpose of identifying the recurring problems in the management of specialized lexicon and of the cultivems in the legal translation, considering the increasing importance on which the translations from and into English have been received.*

*The translation market has imposed high quality standards, and the competence of the translator, in this case the legal translator, is not limited only to technical issues.*

**Keywords:** socio-cultural aspects, which must be carefully managed, different legal systems, different interpretations of terms

## 1.1.The English lexicon and language varieties

With regard to the synchronic features of the English lexicon, further appreciations are to be taken into consideration. Thus, maintaining the concept of central *core* or *Common English*, linguistic research studies emphasize the fact that the lexicon of the English Language displays typical features according to certain language varieties. Specialised classifications of English language varieties provide further the synchronic features of the English lexicon. According to this classification, a graphical representation of the language varieties and their lexical peculiarities would show the following (Quirk 1985: 15):



**Figure 1 - Language varieties and their lexical peculiarities**

As the main interest of the present paper is to present typical lexical features of legal language, in what follows we will focus mainly on certain lexical characteristics of Standard English versus legal English used in written documents.

## 1.2. Language varieties according to field of discourse

Depending on the professional domain, training and interest, the individual can change the register of the language used. Thus, the change of register can be understood as the individual's choice to turn to a particular set of lexical items, which are frequently used for handling the field in question (Oțăt, 2011: 204).

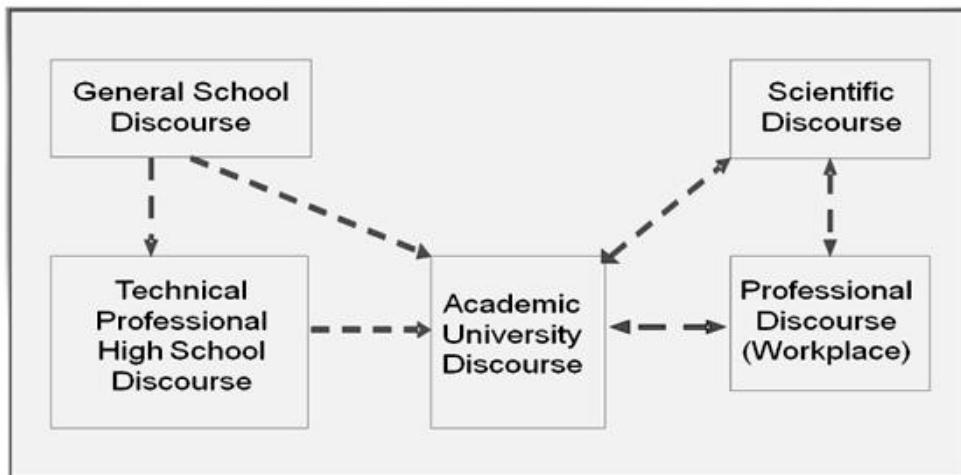
The switch to a certain register implies further changes beside the particular set of lexical items. This aspect is clearly emphasised by the language of technical and scientific description. In such cases the passive is common and clauses are often nominalised. Moreover, noticeable grammatical differences are to be found in the language of legal documents.

Generally speaking, literature is a long-established field, though it extends to other fields (Quirk 1985: 24). Furthermore, some fields have certain characteristics in common, for example, legal and religious English have numerous forms peculiar to their respective fields, but both may include usages that are otherwise archaic.

Moreover, scientific language covers a wide range of subject matter (psychology, literary criticism, history, physics, medicine), each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though all these varieties belong to the scientific register. According to Quirk, the scientific languages number considerable varieties which have developed their own linguistic expression



(Quirk 1985: 25). Among these language varieties, legal language lexical peculiarities are to be further presented and analysed.



**Figure 2 - Continuum of texts in academic and professional fields**

### 1.3. Legal language lexical features

Characterised by Cao (2007: 21) a distinctive feature of legal language, legal discourse is a complex and unique aspect in translating legal texts. Thus, *the complex legal vocabulary is a general feature typical for different language varieties in the field of legal language* (Oțăt, 2011: 204), further specific features of these sub-languages indicate particular and unique aspects the legal vocabulary.

As postulated by Danet (1984: 3), legal vocabulary exhibits distinctive lexical features particular to expressing the concepts of law and, as a consequence, it has been subjected to analysis in a number of studies. Thus, the author highlighted the following features as characteristic of the legal register:

- *technical terms*
- *common terms with uncommon meanings*
- *archaic expressions*
- *formal items*
- *unusual prepositional phrases*

According to Cao in Oțăt (2011: 204), the special expressions used in legal English are difficult for non-professionals to understand, thus with the intention to better recognize and understand them, non-professionals need a process of interpretation by professionals, i.e. *the process of thawing or unfreezing* (Ibidem).



Nevertheless, despite the efforts of simplification and *unfreezing* prominent theorists and researchers within the field of legal language feature this area of expertise by mentioning attributes like *formality*, *frozen*, *consultative* Danet (1984: 9). Consequently, key features of the legal register and style indicate concepts such as concreteness, conciseness, and clearness of intentions and actions, a special system of clichés and stamps which lack of emotional colouring. As a result, the frozen style of legal English is typically exemplified in its lexicon.

Based on theoretical arguments and practical analysis, the present section aims at proving that even though more and more people ask for the use of plain English in official documents, most of them exhibit the lexical features of archaic words, technical terms or use deliberate vague words.

### **1.3.1. Formal words**

Not everyone knows what *initiate* or *terminate* means, but virtually any speaker of English understands *begin* and *end*. The formal words like the former ones which are rarely used in general English, are frequently used in legal language. Formal language is one of the traits of the legal lexicon. There are a lot of formal words, a small sampling of those would mention terms like: *approximately*, *commence*, *complete*, *construe*, *convene*, *employ*, *notify*, *present* etc.

#### ***Transfer of days between fishing vessels flying the flag of different member states***

*Member States may permit the transfer of days present within the area for the same management period and within the area between any fishing vessels flying their flags provided that points 4.1. and 4.2. and 12 apply mutatis mutandis. Where Member States decide to authorise such a transfer, they shall notify the Commission, before the transfer takes place, of the details of the transfer, including the number of days to be transferred, the fishing effort and, where applicable, the fishing quotas relating thereto.*

REGULATION (EU) 2015/104:114

*In light of the particular characteristics of air traffic in the Union, common competence standards for air traffic controllers employed by air navigation service providers should be introduced and effectively applied, ensuring air traffic management and air navigation services (ATM/ANS) to the public.*

REGULATION (EU) 2015-340:7

One of the main purposes in using such words is to make legal documents to sound formal.



### 1.3.2. Archaisms

D. Crystal writes: *It is especially noticeable that any passage of Legal English is usually well studded with archaic words and phrases of a kind that could be used by no one else but lawyers* (Crystal 1969: 194) Such old-fashioned words are archaisms. Lawyers tend to believe that these archaisms enable clearer and less ambiguous reference and give greater weight and authority to the language. In legal language, the typical used archaisms are compound adverbs formed usually by adverbs, such as here, there, or where, to which prepositions, such as after, at, by, from, in, of, to, under, upon or with etc., have been suffixed. These words were common in medieval English. Rather than saying "under it" or "under that", a speaker of Middle English could say "*hereunder*" or "*thereunder*". And instead of using "with what" or "with which" in questions, Middle English speakers would generally say "*wherewith*". In addition, legal English has retained several morphological forms that have died out in ordinary speech.

*Having regard to Regulation (EU) No 167/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 February 2013 on the approval and market surveillance of agricultural or forestry vehicles (1), and in particular Article 22(4), Article 24(4), Article 25(2), (3), and*

*(6), Article 27(1), Article 33(2), Article 34(3), Article 35(4), Article 45(2), Article 46(3) and Article 53(8) thereof*

REGULATION (EU) 2015-504: 1

*Direct fishing of the species set out in Part A of Annex V, shall be prohibited in the zones and during the periods set out therein.*

*For exploratory fisheries, the TACs and by-catch limits set out in Part B of Annex V, shall apply in the subareas set out therein.*

REGULATION (EU) 2015/104:117

Such kind of words reflects the regular, solemn, conservative, rigid and authoritative style of contracts and the use of which can avoid the repetition and redundancy. One of the main justifications for continued use of antiquated vocabulary is that it is more precise than the modern equivalent. Using antiquated terminology bestows a sense of timelessness on the legal system, as something that has lasted through the centuries and is therefore deserving of great respect. And archaic language is considered more formal than everyday speech.

### 1.3.3. Loans or Borrowings

**Loans** represent the second linguistic layer of the legal vocabulary. Concerning borrowings of Latin root, Cao (2007: 58) considers that



comprehension difficulties might appear as such words, even if they are similar linguistically; turn out to be different in legal substance. Accordingly, Cao (*Ibid*: 57) presents several examples of **common false friends** such as the word *demand* which is differently treated in English and French; in this respect, the word *domicile* in English, *domicile* in French and *Domizil* in German are differently rendered within the legal documents in these languages. In addition, examples of noun phrases such as *good faith* in English, *bona fides* in French and German are not entirely the same, as they are regarded by Cao as examples of linguistic equivalents but conceptually non-equivalents or partial equivalents in different languages.

### ***Transfer of days between fishing vessels flying the flag of different member states***

*Member States may permit the transfer of days present within the area for the same management period and within the area between any fishing vessels flying their flags provided that points 4.1. and 4.2. and 12 apply mutatis mutandis. Where Member States decide to authorise such a transfer, they shall notify the Commission, before the transfer takes place, of the details of the transfer, including the number of days to be transferred, the fishing effort and, where applicable, the fishing quotas relating thereto.*

REGULATION (EU) 2015/104:114

#### **1.3.4 Technical terms**

Legal language contains a large number of words that are not used at all in ordinary speech. The technical meaning of words in the official documents has often stabilized, clarified, single and precise (Otăt, 2011: 206).

In legal texts, technical terms are widely used such as: *defect, remedy, jurisdiction, damages and/or losses indemnities, tenancy*, etc. In the following example the underlined words are commonly used technical legal terms in contract English.

*This system and the results of the assessments shall be documented; (2) established a documented agreement with a qualified entity, approved by both parties at the appropriate management level, which clearly defines: (i) the tasks to be performed; (ii) the declarations, reports and records to be provided; (iii) the technical conditions to be met in performing such tasks; (iv) the related liability coverage; and (v) the protection given to information acquired in carrying out such tasks. (b) The competent authority shall ensure that the internal audit process and a safety risk management process required by ATCO. AR.B.001(a)(4) cover all certification or oversight tasks performed on its behalf.*

REGULATION (EU) 2015-504: 19



In this excerpt there are 106 words, among which more than 25 words are technical terms. That can show us the frequent use of technical terms in legal documents.

In the same line with Cao (2007:10) in (Oțăt, 2011: 206).such terms affect the meaning of the other lexical units used in connection with them, thus legal words have meanings only in the context of the existence of a legal system and only through particular rules of law. Under the circumstance, we can emphasise that legal language provides a typical a lexicon which is constructed differently from that of the ordinary language, and involves terms that relate to each other in ways different from those of the ordinary language.

### 1.3.5 Common words with uncommon meanings

Words used on any occasion are called common words. In legal language, there are some common words used in specialized style, therefore they can be considered technical terms. In this situation, they are used not for their common meaning, but for their special sense. Thus, for example *prejudice* as a common word (noun), means an unfair and often unfavourable feeling or opinion formed without thinking deeply and clearly or without enough knowledge. But in legal language, *prejudice* means loss of any rights. In ordinary speech, *same* usually implies comparison to a similar object or person; that implication is lacking in the legal meaning, which refers to the thing mentioned.

It is mandatory that at school and at home, teens discuss with teachers and family about current issues in the world. If teenagers discuss global juncture, they will better understand the events and the context in which they happened. Psychological preparation is very important for all of us, but especially for fragile souls. Family and school routine helps a lot in keeping calm and rational thought. Adults should keep a relaxing atmosphere and be always ready to discuss with teens about their fears and questions. (Ileana Mihaela Chirițescu, 2015)

According to the analysis of the proposed corpus there were encountered common words with uncommon meanings like: *action, article, award, consideration, party, satisfaction* etc.

*findings, corrective actions and date of action closure;*

REGULATION (EU) 2015-504: 36

*Upon notification to the Commission by the Member State concerned, the Commission may endorse the outline of the intended quota transfer or exchange that the Member State has discussed with the relevant Contracting*



*Party to the RFMO. Thereupon, the Commission shall exchange, without undue delay, the consent to be bound by such quota transfer or exchange with the relevant Contracting Party to the RFMO. The Commission shall then give notification of the agreed quota transfer or exchange to the secretariat of the RFMO in accordance with the rules of that organisation.*

REGULATION (EU) 2015/104:15

### **1.3.6. Deliberate use of vague words**

According to Mellinkoff, the language of the law is sometimes characterized as one of extraordinary *precision*, and *unambiguous* (Mellinkoff 1994: 26). Precision is the driving force for the unique characteristics of legal English, which is critical to reducing the likelihood of misinterpretation. But precision is not necessarily extreme clarity—it may also involve selecting the appropriate level of vagueness or flexibility. Exactitude and completion are achieved by using both the accurate and vague words together.

According to the examples provided below we could argue that terms or expressions like *in a reasonable period of time* or *by technical regulations in force* are used by the contractual parties with the intent to make the contract more operative:

*(b) The competent authority shall ensure that the internal audit process and a safety risk management process required by ATCO.AR.B.001(a) (4) cover all certification or oversight tasks performed on its behalf.*

REGULATION (EU) 2015-504: 19

*If the competent authority allocates tasks related to the initial certification or continuous oversight of persons or organisations subject to Regulation (EC) No 216/2008 and its implementing rules, they shall only be allocated to qualified entities. When allocating tasks, the competent authority shall ensure that it has:...*

REGULATION (EU) 2015-340: 85

*(4) The authorities performing supervision and verification of compliance under this Regulation should be sufficiently independent from air traffic controllers when issuing licences or extending the validity of the endorsements, when suspending or revoking licences, ratings, endorsements or certificates in cases where the conditions for their issue are no longer met. Those authorities should also be sufficiently independent from air...*

REGULATION (EU) 2015-340: 1



Based on the translation-oriented perspective postulated by Cao (2007: 23) that “the nature of law and legal language contributes to the complexity and difficulty in legal translation, we further aim at highlighting particular features of legal language in terms of lexical and culture-bound particularities.

## 2.1. Legal language specific features and translation difficulties

Regarding the special occurrences and the difficulties translators may face when dealing with legal language texts, Cao (*Ibidem*) establishes a classification of various factors which influence and may even alter the quality of a legal translated document, even if the most appropriate translation strategies and procedures have been applied. In this respect, Cao refers to the difference between legal systems and laws arguing that even though legal language is a technical language *it is not a universal technical language, but one that is tied to a national legal system.*

Within the same climate, it is worth mentioning that:

- a main factor that may imply translation difficulties is the difference between the two legal systems of the source and target language, this aspect being clearly emphasized by Trosborg (1991) as well.
- Still, it is not only the peculiar characteristics of each legal system which may lead to ambiguities, but the cultural differences as well. We could say that it is due to cultural differences that specific legal systems have been developed among different societies as *language and culture or social contexts are closely integrated and interdependent* (Cao 2007: 31). Trosborg (1991:78) highlights that law reflects society and that 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 between two languages becomes more difficult, the translator is assigned the tasks of *a mediator between two intercultural situations of communication* (Croitoru 1996: 212). This view is also supported by Cao (2007: 25) who states that law is an expression of the culture, which is expressed through legal language. Legal language, like any other language use, is a social practice and legal texts necessarily bear the imprint of such practice or organizational background.

- The third factor, and an essential one for our investigation, also mentioned by Cao (*Ibidem*), which can give rise to ambiguities in legal translation, is the linguistic dimension. At this point, Cao refers to two interrelated linguistic dimensions which can affect the translation process from a source text into a target text. Firstly, it is worth taking into



consideration that legal language is an instance of LSP, thus encoding special syntactic, semantic and pragmatic rules (Sager 1990 in Cao 2007: 28). Trosborg (1991: 66) states that *The acquisition of a special language happens through explicit rules which need common language for their introduction [...]*.

However, equal attention should be paid to the translators' competence and behaviour towards legal documents. In this respect, Cao (2007: 81) considers that often, *a translator has to make hard decisions within the constraints of language*. Admittedly, considering both the importance of the most appropriate translation strategies that have to be applied throughout a translation process and the translator's skills and competences in approaching legal texts we will further adopt the perspective put forward by Cao (2007) regarding the existence of translation difficulties that are likely to occur in legal documents translation. Being aware of the significance of all the previously defined factors that influence the translator during the translation process, we shall focus mainly on the lexical aspects that may generate ambiguities at various levels.

It is worth mentioning that our research is focused on both English and the Romanian translations, aiming to identify and analyse particular features of lexical and culture-bound particularities that may happen during the translation process, i.e. during the translation of English Regulations into Romanian.

*Fear usually springs when human being feels guilty of something and expects divine punishment, in any form. He would have wanted people to be brave and open-hearted because he sensed, in his innocence, that this was the way the world could be saved from the invasion of eternal evil.* (Ileana Mihaela Chiriteșcu, 2012)

By means of this investigation we first attempt to reveal those particular lexical and culture-specific issues that may occur during translating the source texts into the target texts. Accordingly, we shall carry out a linguistic contrastive study of the findings in terms of qualitative and quantitative forms of lexical and culture-bound particularities in the translation of EU official documents, i.e. EU Regulations.

## Conclusions

To sum up we could envisage that lexical characteristics of legal language and moreover of EU official documents are to be emphasised by the very nature of this language variety as a branch of legal English

If analysing contracts' language lexical features synchronically, various characteristics are to be mentioned:

- thus, concerning compounding the analysis showed that this process is not quite productive, especially regarding compounds from adjectives, verbs and even adverbs;



- the most frequently encountered compounds belong to the class of nouns to which other words were attached;

• furthermore the undertaken analysis showed that the process of derivation is the most productive in contracts. Thus, derivation by suffixes has recorded the highest number of new word forms encountered within the analysed contract texts, around 250 derivatives, while prefixation only produced about 70 new word forms;

• further processes of word formation seem to be rarely used in contracts. Among other products of word formation which were encountered in contracts, though not so productive, were examples backformation and acronyms.

At the *lexical* level ambiguities seem to occur most frequently due to an ambivalent use of specific vocabulary items. Thus, by investigating both native and bilingual contracts we reached the conclusion that: **common words with uncommon meaning** are likely to cause lexical translation difficulties;

• **archaisms** and **loans** are the less frequently encountered examples of translation-related difficulties, especially due to the formal and strict norms of the contract style. However, borrowings have been encountered in our analysis; most of the loan items being instances of **Latin** and **French borrowings**, such as *quantum* ☐ *cuantum* which were understood and used both by the drafters and the translators of the analysed texts. Some other examples of borrowings used in Romanian target texts, which regard more contemporary contract and business lexical items such as *joint venture* or *the format* (of the document) have also been properly transferred and used in the TT documents;

• in the case of synonyms, **legal terms** seem to produce most of the ambiguous examples encountered, mainly due to an ambiguous interpretation of such words during the translation process. The most frequently encountered instances of lexical ambiguity determined by **synonymous legal terms** are noun phrases or compound nouns containing words such as *law* - *lege*; *regulation* - *regulament*, *dispoziții*; *provision* - *măsură de precauție*, *prevedere*; *rule* - *normă*, *regulă*, which sometimes have been ambiguously interpreted and used interchangeably;

• in terms of *morphological* characteristics, we can state that **noun + noun compounds** are those ambiguous instances most frequently encountered both in source and target texts. While comparing source texts and target texts a further conclusion indicated that a high rate of **noun + noun compounds**, some of which ambiguous, have been transposed into the Romanian target texts mainly as **noun phrases**. Moreover, these target text **noun phrases** frequently display multiple interpretations, for example,



*performance warranty – garanție de bună execuție, quality terms și condiții calitative, remedy costs - costuri de remediere.*

We may conclude by stating that translation-related difficulties in terms of lexical and culture-specific issues do occur in legal language texts. Moreover, most translation-related difficulties do not occur due to translation errors, but rather due to the specific features of legal language which translators have to take into consideration, acting cautiously.

Needless to say those social, cultural and political factors also need to be taken into consideration when drafting or translating contracts.

We must realize that we are imperfect and we must fight to defeat our fears. It is true that we can all control our emotions. We need to try to control our vulnerabilities. People have a duty to them-selves, which is to fight and become stronger and more confident. Self confidence means peace of mind. Peace of mind means spirit and mental health. (Ileana Mihaela, Chiriteșcu, 2013)

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### Webography

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# Teaching Listening to IT Students in Synchronous Online Lessons

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Alina-Roxana POPA

## Abstract

*The article presents some of the differences between traditional, face-to-face English lessons, versus synchronous online lessons centred upon teaching listening to IT students. While acknowledging the time-tested value of traditional approaches, the paper underlines some advantages that online instruction can bring to the educational process, in an integrative approach. Some types of extensive listening activities are evaluated, together with an example of an intensive listening approach to free online resources such as videos, in order to suggest possible ways for materials development.*

**KEYWORDS:** *synchronous online lessons, ESP, intensive listening, extensive listening, materials development.*

When teaching listening in online synchronous lessons versus traditional face-to-face instruction, one should take into account a series of aspects that guide the successful planning of activities. By exploiting what traditional settings have taught us about what makes successful lessons and bringing this to the added value that the online environment can demonstrate, the gain should become obvious and we should not dismiss the online experience as inferior.

As a receptive skill, listening has certain characteristics which differentiate it from reading. Spratt *et al* make a short summary of the key differences between written and spoken language:

- spoken language disappears as soon as it is produced, and it needs to be processed at speed which is imposed by the speaker, not the listener(s) – although, in the case of live speech, a listener can intervene with: “listening ‘repair’ strategies, such as using formulaic expressions (*Sorry? What was that? I didn’t quite catch that*), repeating up to the point where communication breakdown occurred, using a rising intonation [...], or rephrasing and seeing if the speaker confirms the rephrasing”. (Harmer 2007: 306)



- sentences and meaningful words in spoken language are marked through stress and intonation, not punctuation;
- spoken language consists of connected speech, sentences or incomplete sentences, or single words, whereas written language consists of signs which are joined together into text;
- spoken language is accompanied by body language, while written language has no visual support (except for pictures, in some cases);
- written language is more carefully organised than spoken language;
  - the vocabulary and grammar of spoken language is generally simpler than in the case of written language. (adapted from Spratt *et al* 2005: 30)

Like in the case of reading, there are several subskills which need to be trained:

1. listening for gist;
2. listening for specific information;
3. listening for detail;
4. listening for attitude (to see what attitude a speaker is expressing) (Spratt *et al* 2005: 31)

Face-to-face classroom listening can be done through a variety of means: listening to the teacher, visitors to the class, CDs/DVDs, watching videos, Internet podcasts etc.

One of the advantages of classroom listening is that the teacher can control the selection of materials and the activities that can be done with them, according to the learners' level and needs, while gradually building their confidence and skill. Harmer points out that teachers should have a collection of listening materials readily available, "clearly marked for level, topic and genre" (Harmer 2007: 303) According to the same author, both authentic and simplified versions of listening materials are important for developing this skill, the teacher's role being to select and present these materials gradually, according to their level of difficulty.

Both the teacher and students can create their own recordings by using online tools and share them with the class. The plus of such activities is that they prompt greater involvement with the content, both from the authors' side, and from the part of the listeners, as the recordings come from people who know each other and they arouse curiosity.



In the case of English for IT students, the teacher should also create different scenarios in order to prompt conversations, as listening is not an isolated skill, scenarios which should have in mind the learners' working life.

But probably the most effective and efficient method of getting learners to acquire this skill is through extensive listening. The teacher should be aware of the learners' interests, in order to direct them to the appropriate resources. Even if they mostly have to deal with specialized language in their working life, the greatest difficulty about listening is not related to the recognition of separate words or phrases, but to recognize the mechanisms of connected speech. Therefore, learners should be encouraged, for example, to listen to the radio, without worrying that they do not understand all the words. As there are thousands of stations broadcasting via the Internet, they should be encouraged to choose some that have programmes related to their interests and make a habit out of listening to them (e.g. the BBC on *BBC Sounds. Stations* (2022) offers a choice of 21 main radio stations, 40 local radio stations, plus a selection of podcasts on *BBC Sounds. Podcasts* (2022)).

Another example is the *BBC Learning English* (2022) website, which offers thousands of recordings of various programmes, also provided with audio scripts and related exercises. Teachers should demonstrate in class how a programme works and give others of the same series as homework. At the same time, students can look for various programmes according to their interests, by using the "search" function (note that *BBC Sounds* (2022) has a "search" function).

Websites such as *YouTube* also offer a wide choice of videos on various subjects; the teacher can select some for use in class, and develop the learners' appetite to search and use the website by themselves, at their own pace.

Listening to their favourite songs while reading the lyrics, which can be found on the Internet using a search engine; or watching films in English, with the subtitles also in English, can be extremely enjoyable activities for students, which, if performed regularly, will bring enormous benefits to the development of all language skills. They can absorb language structures naturally, even without being aware, and in a manner which eliminates the stress associated to homework or imposed, controlled studying. Moreover, such materials can successfully make up for the students' not having native English speakers as their class instructors, a situation which is the rule, rather than the exception in Romanian universities.

Roughly speaking, learners should be made aware of the importance of such activities, and form habits out of performing listening activities in an extensive manner.



Next, we will look through some of the differences between face-to-face and synchronous online lessons for IT students that are centred upon listening activities.

Firstly, what is different online, and what I regard as an advantage at the same time, is that all students have simultaneous access to electronic devices and digital resources, which can result in improved listening conditions and convenience. Provided that students are not disturbed in their private spaces during online lessons and they are equipped with devices such as headsets, good internet connection, etc., personal spaces can be transformed into top language laboratories, which are not easily accessible in traditional face-to-face settings.

Secondly, teachers can have guest speakers interact with students more easily, as space limits are transcended. Besides experienced or native English speakers, a good idea would be to invite other young people from different backgrounds / other faculties / cities / countries etc. in order to share their experiences, engage in discussions or even projects with each other. Examples of the format of such encounters could be structured around interviews, presentations or storytelling.

Another advantage of synchronous online lessons is that the links to online resources can be more effectively organized by the teacher, presented to the students and offered as references for future individual practice. For example, lists of links to websites can be kept as such for quick access, or set as favourites in the students' browser toolbars. For instance, I urge my students to set as a favourite link such free resources as the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online* (1996-2022) for checking word meaning and pronunciation; the *BBC Sounds* bookmark can be set as a direct link to their favourite podcast etc. Although these resources can also be presented and demonstrated in a traditional face-to-face setting, in front of a classroom full of students who are passively watching a sequence of actions performed by the teacher on a single computer, I believe students can be guided more effectively into organising these resources on their own private devices, by making each step along with them in real time, simultaneously, while everyone is controlling and interacting with his/her own devices.

As for the disadvantages, I consider the feeling of physical interaction, with body language accompanying and completing the spoken word, as being the greatest loss in online lessons. Moreover, the energy of a group being engaged in the same activity, sharing the same physical space, cannot be overestimated as a support, motivational and facilitating factor in the assimilation or learning process. On the other hand, being able to make use of the positive traits that synchronous online lessons can offer represents an enormous gain.



It is at this point that the teacher's role is critical as facilitator of interaction, while subtly prompting students to engage by creating favourable circumstances: inspiring a feeling of ease and commitment in order to make students eager to turn on their webcams or participate in the exchange; finding the right activities, at the right moment, in order to aid bonding among group members, etc. Here, an online platform feature such as *Zoom's Breakout Rooms* can be particularly useful for dividing students into smaller groups so as to facilitate collaboration and interaction.

Thus, the challenge posed by the online environment to the human factor can be turned into an advantage, as overcoming this challenge is a litmus test of the lesson efficiency, and also a reason for instructors to come out of their comfort zone and revisit old models and practices of teaching.

In what follows, we will see an example of intensive listening activities and we will also have explanations of the way in which the material can be used. In my personal practice with my students, I often resort to exposing them to free online videos from the IT field.

The one that I present as an example is *15 Laptop Buying Mistakes* (Tech Gear Talk 2021), a ten-minute YouTube recording with almost 1,200,000 views. The age of the students is young adult and above, and their English level is upper-intermediate / advanced.

Teachers can create various activities starting from online videos. Firstly, they will initiate a lead-in discussion to activate the students' schema, which is their background knowledge of the world. Most useful at this stage is for the instructor to compile a list of questions, on the basis of the content that s/he has previously studied, making students construct a variant of that argument, thus arousing their interest in the topic and facilitating the learning of both language and a touch of specialized subject matter, which is the case of ESP.

The presenter in the video enumerates and elaborates on a series of mistakes that those buying laptops are prone to make: overlooking ergonomics; overpaying for a laptop; buying the cheapest laptop; overlooking portability; not considering the ports; not considering the amount of storage; being obsessed with one spec; not buying enough power; believing that size doesn't matter; not thinking about how long they will need that computer; thinking of a two-in-one (laptop + tablet) as a laptop; not watching reviews; blind brand loyalty; being allured by glossy displays; being keen on high resolution; buying based on other people's needs.

After starting with a general question of the type "What kind of things do you take into account before buying a laptop?", the students will spontaneously name some of the same aspects that are dealt with in the video, and maybe others in addition. Subsequent to the students' exhaustion



of ideas, the teacher can elicit answers by asking supplementary questions, e.g.:

“Is ergonomics important to you? Do you go to the store before buying online in order to get a feeling of the device?”

“Do you tend to buy the most expensive or the cheapest laptop? Why?”

“If the laptop does not have enough ports, does it bother you that you will need to carry around adapters or hubs for your workflow?”

“Do you think it is important for your laptop to be upgradable?”

“Do you really need the latest feature?”

“Do you want your laptop to have a touchscreen as well? “By opting on that hybrid functionality are you giving up on something when you’re looking at laptops at the same price point?”

“Do you really need high resolution? Won’t your battery life suffer because of it?”

“What will you use the laptop for? Is a laptop with ‘better’ features that people praise really a better option for your needs?”

Before playing the recording per se (with or without English subtitles), the teacher can set the students the task of identifying any additional aspects that the presenter pinpoints. For a second viewing, the teacher can provide an excerpt of the script with some missing key vocabulary items that the students are asked to fill in. For an additional activity, they can match the meaning of some terms to their definitions, which the teacher gives them on a separate document; in order to check their answers, they can look up the terms in one of the free online dictionaries, etc.

## Conclusions

The Internet and the online environment offer ample opportunity for teachers to revisit their methods and leave their comfort zone. Whether some like it or not, synchronous online lessons will become more and more prominent in mainstream education, and it is up to our ability as teachers to make use of the advantages that these can provide. Our role as facilitators of student interaction and as guides among the myriad of available resources will be a litmus test of the lessons' efficiency. Both extensive and intensive listening activities can be varied through the online component so as to readily respond to present realities on the labour market, which are increasingly focused on time spent in front of networked screens. As trend setting academia, our adjustability, our being able to transition from classic



to online environments, together with our creativity and inquisitiveness in front of the new will prove vital for the successful schooling of the generations to come.

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# Enseigner la grammaire en ligne

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Daniela SCORTAN\*

## Abstract

*For teachers, grammar is the linguistic component that they consider the most important in language class, before vocabulary, civilization and phonetics. Even if it is indisputable that the learner learns to communicate by communicating, he nevertheless cannot do without grammar in language practices. Grammar still has its place in the online classroom. Even remotely or in an individual class, the teacher can help his students improve their grammar on their electronic devices. For students, taking online courses requires a lot of time, skill, practice, and patience.*

**Keywords:** grammar, online classroom, language practices, skill, students.

## 1. Introduction

Au fil des ans, de nombreux chercheurs et professeurs de langues se sont posé la question s'il faut enseigner la grammaire ou non en premier lieu. Ensuite, les enseignants qui étaient favorables à l'enseignement de la grammaire ont eu du mal à identifier les moyens efficaces de l'enseigner. Gauthier (1984 : 26) affirme qu' :

« Il faut bien que l'enseignant prenne bien conscience que l'enseignement de la grammaire, (de sa grammaire, de la grammaire officielle, explicite) a essentiellement pour finalité de poser des jalons et de produire des relais mémoriels dans l'esprit de l'élève, qui lui permettent d'engendrer à peu près à coup sûr les formes encore inconnues dont il a cependant besoin pour s'exprimer. »

Péronnet (1997 : 546) propose un modèle pour une grammaire de la variation :

« Une grammaire de la variation peut d'abord être définie par opposition à ce qu'elle n'est pas, c'est-à-dire par opposition à une grammaire de type monolithique. Une grammaire de la variation prend en compte les divers

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usages d'une même langue et pas seulement l'usage standard officiel. Ces divers usages peuvent comprendre d'abord l'usage écrit et l'usage oral, mais pas uniquement. Une langue peut varier de plusieurs autres manières encore, sous l'influence de différents facteurs d'ordre social, géographique et situationnel, notamment à l'intérieur de l'aspect oral. La variation de type social est marquée par les traits « populaire/standard »; la variation de type géographique, par les traits « régional/standard », et la variation de type situationnel, par les traits « familier/standard (ou soutenu) ».

Giardina et Oubenaïssa (2003 : 204) insistent sur l'importance de la compétence en design éducatif dans le cas des enseignants qui se préparent pour des cours en ligne :

« L'influence des média sur le processus d'enseignement et les nouveaux rôles à assumer par l'enseignant ainsi que par l'apprenant, sont énormes. Malheureusement, le développement des cours en-ligne se fait trop souvent sans grand égard aux impacts sur les caractéristiques des apprenants, et encore moins en considérant les implications des approches pédagogiques adoptées. La compétence en design éducatif, graduellement, mais discrètement, s'impose de plus en plus lors de la critique des nouvelles réformes portant sur la formation des enseignants. »

Lebrun (2004 : 86-87) souligne le fait que les applications en ligne ne représentent qu'un point de départ dans l'apprentissage de l'étudiant et que le rôle de l'enseignant est aussi d'entraîner les étudiants dans des activités collectives de groupe :

« Un apprentissage de qualité ne se bâtit pas sur un simple transfert de la matière enseignée mais sur la construction personnelle que l'apprenant va entreprendre. Même si cela fait mal aux technologues, on n'apprend pas en ligne ! La grosse partie de cette activité échappe quelque part à l'outil technologique et fait partie du dispositif que l'enseignant met en place : à lui revient la décision de faire travailler les étudiants en groupe, de les faire plancher sur un problème, de les engager dans un projet personnel ou collectif... ou de leur « donner cours » à l'ancienne même au travers des nouveaux médias. Cependant, certains outils ou matériaux correctement encadrés peuvent générer une activité cognitive importante de la part de l'étudiant : des exercices de différentes natures (vrai-faux, vrai-faux groupés, QCM, QCM à réponses générales implicites, etc.) mais aussi des logiciels d'animation ou de simulation que l'étudiant utilisera selon un protocole de découverte qui lui est éventuellement fourni. Cette activité de l'étudiant



conduit souvent à ce qu'il décontextualise, modélise, théorise les informations récoltées. »

Metzger et Delalonde (2005 : 31) présentent les avantages de la formation en ligne qui libère les enseignants des contraintes physiques ou temporelles :

« La formation en ligne permet également une meilleure gestion des activités et du temps de travail en présentiel. Après un investissement cognitif important pour développer leur cours en ligne, les professeurs peuvent réduire le temps d'enseignement face à la classe (moment à la fois riche, mais toujours chargé d'imprévus), ce qui leur permet d'exercer leur activité d'enseignement avec une moindre contrainte physique ou temporelle, et grâce à cette flexibilité, de se consacrer plus directement à la recherche. »

## **2. Méthodes d'enseignement de la grammaire en ligne**

Le passage des cours traditionnels aux cours en ligne rend les apprenants et les enseignants qui avaient l'habitude d'avoir des cours en face à face depuis des années face à un énorme changement dans l'ensemble du système de donner et recevoir des instructions. Les enseignants et les étudiants qui sont familiers avec la tradition du système de rencontre, d'interaction, de communication face à face, sont soudainement obligés de s'adapter au système d'instructions en ligne. Avant le passage des cours traditionnels aux cours en ligne, seuls quelques enseignants et étudiants connaissaient les instructions en ligne. Un changement complet dans le scénario où toutes les classes étaient à 100% en ligne a représenté quelque chose de nouveau pour les deux parties.

Enseigner la grammaire peut être un défi pour les enseignants dans le meilleur des cas, et devoir soudainement le gérer en ligne a été certainement une perspective effrayante pour certains d'entre nous.

Il existe différentes manières de présenter une structure grammaticale aux apprenants. Si les étudiants préfèrent les instructions de grammaire explicites, l'enseignant peut utiliser cette méthode. L'enseignant et les étudiants lisent ensemble les notes de grammaire. Avant de commencer les tâches pratiques de grammaire, l'enseignant guide les étudiants à travers les notes de présentation de grammaire tout en partageant l'écran des notes ou pendant qu'ils suivent sur leurs propres appareils.

Il existe de nombreuses façons de rendre cette méthode plus interactive! L'enseignant peut demander aux étudiants de lire à tour de rôle les exemples à haute voix afin qu'on puisse également travailler leur prononciation (et qu'ils n'écoutent pas seulement la voix de l'enseignant tout le temps).



Les résultats s'obtiennent progressivement. Par exemple, avant de lire sur la forme ou la fonction d'une structure grammaticale, l'enseignant peut demander aux étudiants : « Est-ce que quelqu'un connaît les situations quand la préposition *de* remplace l'article indéfini et l'article partitif ? » ou « Est-ce que quelqu'un sait quand nous utilisons le plus-que-parfait ? » Ensuite le professeur peut demander aux étudiants de trouver leurs propres exemples de phrases. Après avoir lu les exemples des notes de grammaire, les étudiants sont sollicités d'en penser davantage et de partager lors d'une discussion avec leurs collègues les exemples trouvés. Si les étudiants ne comprennent pas la forme et la fonction de la structure grammaticale et ne sont pas clairs sur les exceptions aux règles générales, l'enseignant peut leur présenter plus d'exemples et répondre à leurs questions.

Si l'enseignant souhaite que les apprenants prennent en charge leur propre apprentissage, il peut attribuer les notes de grammaire aux devoirs. La veille de commencer une nouvelle leçon de grammaire, l'enseignant assigne la tâche des notes de grammaire comme devoir. L'enseignant demande aux étudiants de les lire et de noter toutes les questions qu'ils ont à poser le lendemain. Pour rendre cette activité plus interactive, le professeur peut dire aux étudiants de se préparer à répondre à ses questions sur les notes le lendemain. Le professeur peut également leur poser des questions de contrôle de compréhension sur les bases de la forme et de la fonction de la structure grammaticale. L'enseignant peut également poser des questions sur les exceptions, car elles sont plus difficiles à apprendre et à retenir.

L'enseignant peut aussi attribuer des tâches de pratique de la grammaire avant de réviser les notes de grammaire. Si l'on préfère l'acquisition de la grammaire implicite, on peut essayer cette méthode. Cette méthode consiste à sauter les notes de grammaire dans un premier temps. Le professeur attribue une ou plusieurs des tâches de grammaire et observe si ses étudiants peuvent lui dire les règles de grammaire le lendemain. En faisant un peu de pratique, le professeur remarque si les étudiants peuvent comprendre les règles et les schémas de la structure grammaticale qu'ils étudient. Ensuite, le professeur et les étudiants parcourront les notes de grammaire ensemble ou le professeur peut les assigner comme devoirs. Si on les fait ensemble, on peut se référer à des exemples tirés des tâches que les étudiants ont déjà effectuées. Après avoir couvert les notes, le professeur peut assigner le reste des tâches de la leçon.

Le professeur peut attribuer une leçon non grammaticale qui utilise la structure grammaticale en contexte. Si l'on préfère l'approche communicative de l'enseignement, on peut essayer cette méthode. Dans le coin supérieur droit du site <https://apprendre.tv5monde.com/fr>, on peut trouver l'icône de recherche (la loupe). Après avoir cliqué dessus, on peut saisir la cible



grammaticale dans le champ de recherche et choisir une leçon non grammaticale dans la liste (le cas échéant). Les étudiants pourront voir la structure grammaticale dans son contexte. Par exemple, le professeur peut rechercher « l'impératif ». Le professeur peut ensuite choisir l'un des thèmes proposés : *Conseils mode pour avoir du style !, Recette des bouchées au brie de Meaux, Obésité : un fléau devenu mondial ?* Le professeur peut demander aux étudiants de souligner des exemples de l'impératif qu'ils voient dans le contexte. À partir de là, les étudiants peuvent essayer d'obtenir la forme et la fonction de base de l'impératif. Ensuite, les étudiants peuvent essayer le reste des tâches de pratique de la grammaire.

L'enseignant peut décider d'utiliser les notes de grammaire pour passer en revue les exceptions délicates à une règle, ignorer complètement les notes ou attribuer les notes uniquement aux étudiants qui ont des difficultés avec l'impératif. En guise de suivi, l'enseignant peut demander aux étudiants intermédiaires à avancés de trouver d'autres exemples en ligne (articles de presse, articles de blog, etc.) qui utilisent l'impératif et de les partager ensemble le lendemain.

Les tâches de chaque leçon de grammaire en ligne doivent suivre un ordre logique et progressif (avec les tâches les plus faciles au début et les plus difficiles à la fin). En général les leçons commencent par les notes de grammaire et la plupart se terminent par un quiz. Par exemple, une leçon avec le passé composé comprend les notes de grammaire suivies d'exercices faciles à choix multiples pour pratiquer des phrases affirmatives et négatives au passé composé. Après cela, il y a des tâches pour pratiquer les verbes réguliers. Vient ensuite une liste de verbes irréguliers et des exercices pratiques. Les tâches restantes comprennent un mélange de verbes réguliers et irréguliers et couvrent les marqueurs de temps, la formation des questions et les contraires. La leçon se termine par un quiz, une tâche d'évaluation rapide qui permet au professeur de vérifier la compréhension de ses étudiants, de tout ce qu'ils ont appris dans cette leçon.

Les étudiants peuvent prévisualiser chaque tâche avant de la résoudre en cliquant sur le titre de la tâche. C'est également ainsi que l'enseignant lance la tâche s'il la partage d'écran. Combien de tâches peut-on effectuer en même temps ? Cela dépend de l'heure de la session et des besoins des étudiants. Si l'enseignant ne dispose que d'une heure, il peut essayer d'effectuer deux ou trois tâches, ainsi que des corrections et des discussions. Si le professeur enseigne aux mêmes étudiants toute la semaine, il peut diviser la leçon et effectuer deux ou trois tâches par jour à partir de la leçon avec d'autres éléments connexes. Si les étudiants semblent bien connaître la structure grammaticale, l'enseignant peut leur demander d'effectuer quelques tâches, puis passer à une structure grammaticale. Cependant, si l'enseignant a un



cours long, il peut certainement couvrir toute la leçon (toutes les tâches pour un objectif) car elles sont de difficulté progressive et non répétitives. L'enseignant peut toujours assigner une ou deux tâches (ou toutes !) aux devoirs.

Pour attribuer une tâche aux devoirs, l'enseignant accède à la page classroom.google.com, puis clique sur Connexion. Il se connecte avec son compte Google, par exemple, vous@votreetablissementscolaire.edu. Le professeur clique sur le cours et en haut, il clique sur créer un devoir, il saisit un titre et d'éventuelles instructions.

L'enseignant obtiendra les résultats de ses étudiants en temps réel pour la plupart des tâches. Pour les tâches avec des réponses écrites, le professeur peut noter les réponses et laisser des commentaires écrits à ses étudiants. Le professeur peut également assigner des tâches à ses étudiants à accomplir pendant une session en ligne. De cette façon, les étudiants peuvent effectuer les tâches individuellement à leur propre rythme (comme ils le feraient en classe avec un exercice sur papier), et le professeur peut voir les résultats pour tous ses étudiants pendant qu'il dirige un cours en utilisant une plateforme de partage d'écran. Une fois que ses étudiants ont terminé une tâche, le professeur peut choisir de la parcourir pendant le partage d'écran pour discuter des problèmes que les étudiants ont pu rencontrer. La beauté de l'attribution de tâches à la maison est que l'enseignant peut toujours choisir d'en attribuer plus aux étudiants qui ont des difficultés et moins à ceux qui n'en ont pas. L'enseignant peut également attribuer une tâche ponctuelle et aléatoire sur une certaine structure grammaticale de n'importe quelle leçon à un étudiant qui avait une question à ce sujet ou qui souhaitait une pratique supplémentaire.

### **3. Enseigner la grammaire dans le contexte de la lecture et de l'écriture**

Que ce soit en ligne ou non, enseigner la grammaire uniquement comme matière isolée de l'écriture n'est pas efficace. Il est très important, lors de l'enseignement à l'aide d'appareils, de toujours fournir une multitude de possibilités de lecture et d'écriture approfondies. En observant la grammaire utilisée dans leurs lectures aidera les étudiants à la modéliser dans leur propre écriture. En trouvant et en corrigeant leurs propres erreurs d'écriture les étudiants progresseront et amélioreront leur propre grammaire. L'enseignant peut présenter des mini-leçons sur des sujets de grammaire tout en enseignant la grammaire dans le contexte de la lecture et de l'écriture.

Il est essentiel de donner aux étudiants les moyens d'améliorer leur propre grammaire à l'aide d'expériences authentiques. Le professeur peut



demandez aux étudiants d'évaluer la structure de la phrase, la ponctuation ou la grammaire utilisée dans un texte qu'ils lisent. Le professeur demande aux étudiants de lire leur propre texte à haute voix (ils pourraient même envisager de l'enregistrer et de l'écouter). Cette activité aide les étudiants à identifier plus facilement les erreurs. Le professeur peut aussi leur demander d'essayer de modéliser ou d'imiter le style d'écriture d'un auteur et d'imiter la structure et la mécanique de ses phrases.

L'enseignant peut aussi utiliser des mini-lessons pour initier les étudiants aux règles de grammaire de manière ciblée. Faire cette activité en ligne peut fonctionner encore mieux car l'enseignant peut créer des leçons vidéo concises, mais approfondies, qui permettront aux étudiants d'apprendre un concept de grammaire particulier. Ce qui est formidable, c'est que les étudiants peuvent les apprendre à leur propre rythme. S'ils ne comprennent pas quelque chose, ils peuvent rejouer la vidéo, prendre des notes et poser des questions pour tenter d'appliquer les connaissances présentées à leur propre écriture.

Le professeur peut également facilement enseigner une mini-leçon sur Zoom ou Google Meet si c'est quelque chose qu'il utilise avec ses étudiants, mais essayer de limiter la leçon à 10 minutes maximum. La grammaire est une matière sur laquelle les étudiants peuvent se déconnecter assez rapidement, il serait donc idéal de limiter au minimum l'enseignement direct. Si l'enseignant ne peut pas partager ses propres vidéos avec les étudiants, YouTube propose de nombreuses mini-lessons de grammaire à partager avec ses étudiants.

En ce qui concerne la communication avec les étudiants, les SMS, les médias sociaux et les courriels sont souvent les domaines où les erreurs de grammaire sont monnaie courante. Si les étudiants peuvent commencer à évaluer leurs propres erreurs grammaticales dans ces supports, ils pourront peut-être commencer à apporter des modifications qui se traduiront ensuite par leur propre écriture en dehors de leur appareil. L'enseignant doit essayer de placer la grammaire dans un contexte réel en demandant aux étudiants d'examiner leurs propres textes, publications sur les réseaux sociaux et courriels pour voir ou évaluer leur propre utilisation de la grammaire. Si l'enseignant peut leur faire voir les erreurs qu'ils commettent, ils peuvent faire une pause la prochaine fois avant d'appuyer sur le bouton envoyer (surtout lorsqu'ils envoient au professeur un courriel !) Une activité complémentaire à cela pourrait être de demander aux étudiants d'examiner les médias sociaux de leur célébrité préférée pour évaluer sa grammaire.

Si les étudiants ne sont pas en mesure de vérifier leurs propres messages, l'enseignant peut même envisager d'écrire ses propres messages texte ou publications sur les réseaux sociaux pour que les étudiants



corrigent les erreurs qu'ils trouvent. L'enseignant peut aussi créer de fausses conversations par SMS à partager avec ses étudiants.

De nombreux enseignants n'aiment pas les fonctionnalités de correction automatique sur les ordinateurs, mais nous devons admettre que la correction automatique fera toujours partie de la vie des étudiants, et ces fonctionnalités ne feront que s'améliorer. Au lieu de craindre la correction automatique, l'enseignant peut l'utiliser à son avantage.

L'enseignant peut aider les étudiants à apprendre à utiliser efficacement la correction automatique de la grammaire. Voici quelques modalités d'utiliser les fonctionnalités de correction automatique : les étudiants doivent appuyer deux fois sur la barre d'espace pendant qu'ils envoient un SMS, un point sera automatiquement ajouté et la phrase suivante commencera par une majuscule. L'enseignant peut demander aux étudiants d'essayer d'exprimer correctement la ponctuation du texte. Pour ce faire, ils doivent ouvrir un Google Doc et sélectionner Outils Messagerie vocale. Lorsque les étudiants disent « point » ou « virgule », cela insère la ponctuation dans leur écriture.

L'enseignant peut demander aux étudiants d'activer la vérification orthographique, mais lorsqu'un étudiant tombe sur un mot qu'il a mal orthographié, il doit regarder l'orthographe suggérée et la retaper au lieu de la corriger automatiquement avec la fonction de clic.

L'enseignant peut demander aux étudiants de regarder les suggestions de grammaire (soulignés en vert) et d'expliquer pourquoi le technicien a fourni cette suggestion. Parfois, il n'est pas nécessaire de changer l'orthographe ! L'ordinateur n'a pas toujours raison, il offre donc une possibilité d'évaluation de la part de l'étudiant.

#### 4. Conclusions

La grammaire a toujours sa place dans la classe en ligne. Même à distance ou dans une classe individuelle, le professeur peut aider ses étudiants à améliorer leur grammaire sur leurs dispositifs électroniques. Dans l'enseignement de la grammaire, engager les étudiants en ligne à faire des exercices de grammaire constitue une tâche assez difficile pour les enseignants car ils ne peuvent pas surveiller les distractions de leurs étudiants et l'équité dans la réalisation d'exercices comme dans l'enseignement en face-à-face. Même pour les étudiants, suivre des cours en ligne nécessite beaucoup de temps, d'habileté, de pratique et de patience.



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# Comprehensiunea terminologiei medicale

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## Rezumat

Pentru înțelegerea și învățarea adecvată a terminologiei medicale un rol important îl are analiza cuvintelor formate cu ajutorul prefixelor, sufixelor și al elementelor de compunere savantă. Acestea formează cuvinte derivate neologice și cuvinte compuse neologice, care sunt frecvente în limbajul științific, având o circulație internațională.

**Cuvinte cheie:** terminologie medicală, prefixe, sufixe, compunere, neologic

## Abstract

For the proper understanding and learning of medical terminology, the analysis of words formed with the help of prefixes, suffixes and elements of scholarly composition has an important role. They form neological derived words and neological compound words, which are common in scientific language and have an international circulation.

**Keywords:** medical terminology, prefixes, suffixes, composition, neological.

## Introducere

O limbă de specialitate este o varietate lingvistică ce convine unei nevoi profesionale și științifice bine identificate. În acest sens, Maria Teresa Cabre, citându-i pe Pich și Draskau, afirmă că „Limba de specialitate (LSP) este o varietate lingvistică formalizată, utilizată din nevoi specifice și într-un context adecvat, adică în scopul comunicării unor informații de natură specializată la orice fel de nivel. Plasată în vârful scării de complexitate, ea este utilizată de cei mai specializați experți între ei ; plasată la baza scării de complexitate, ea servește la informarea sau la inițierea nespecialiștilor în cel mai eficient, cel mai precis și cel mai puțin ambiguu mod posibil.”<sup>1</sup>. Limba de specialitate este adesea impusă pentru a facilita comunicarea

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<sup>1</sup> CABRE M.T., *La terminologie : théorie, méthode et applications*, traduit du catalan et adapté par Monique C. Cormier et John Humbley, Ottawa/Paris, Les Presses de l’Université d’Ottawa/André Colin, 1998, p. 149.



între specialiștii dintr-un domeniu dat, precum inginerii, medicii, juriștii etc.<sup>2</sup> Kocourek<sup>3</sup> este cel care realizează o listă a principalelor denumiri ale limbii de specialitate: limbă specială și limbă tehnică<sup>4</sup>; limbi speciale<sup>5</sup>; limbă a grupurilor particulare<sup>6</sup>; limbi ale științelor<sup>7</sup>; limbi tehnice<sup>8</sup>; limbă profesională<sup>9</sup>; limbi tehnice și științifice<sup>10</sup>.

Ca subsistem lingvistic ce utilizează o terminologie ce vizează non-ambiguitatea comunicării în domeniul de specialitate, o limbă specializată nu se reduce la terminologie, ea utilizând termenii în enunțuri ce „mobilizează resursele ordinare ale unei limbi naturale pentru a da tehnic socoteală de cunoștințele specializate”<sup>11</sup>. Kocourek consideră limba de specialitate ca „o sub-limbă a limbii numite naturală”<sup>12</sup>, caracterizată printr-un vocabular special utilizat de o comunitate lingvistică și dictat de nevoile de limbaj ale unui domeniu precis. Sistemul fundamental al limbii nu se schimbă, deci, niciodată, „ceea ce se schimbă în limbă, ceea ce oamenii pot schimba, sunt desemnările ce se multiplică, ce se înlocuiesc și care sunt întotdeauna conșiente”<sup>13</sup>.

Prin opoziție cu lexicul general, lexicul specializat este univoc, monoreferențial și fără trăsături de tip conotativ. Dacă lexicul general este relativ stabil, lexicul de specialitate suferă o îmbogățire rapidă. Îmbogățirea lexicului specializat se face prin crearea de noi cuvinte legate de apariția unor noi realități fizice sau conceptuale. Înglobând multe „cuvinte savante”, lexicul medical folosește din plin și exploatează

<sup>2</sup> SAGER et all cité et traduit par CABRE Maria Teresa, op.cit., p. 124.

<sup>3</sup> KOCOUREK R., *La langue française de la technique et de la science : vers une linguistique de la langue savante*, Ed. Brandstetter Verlog, Allemagne, 1991, p. 16.

<sup>4</sup> VENDRYÈS J., *Le langage. Introduction linguistique à l'histoire*, Paris, Michel (1re éd. 1921), 1968, p. 276-277.

<sup>5</sup> SAUSSURE F. de, *Cours de linguistique générale*, Paris, Payot (1ère éd. 1916), 1972, p. 41.

<sup>6</sup> MEILLET A., *Linguistique historique et linguistique général*, Ed. Champion, 1921, p. 247.

<sup>7</sup> FUCHS M., „La langue des sciences”, in Ferdinand Brunot, *Le maniement des idées et le vocabulaire technique. Histoire de la langue française des origines à 1900*, VI, 1, fasc. 2, Armand Colin, Paris, 1905, p. 675.

<sup>8</sup> DAUZAT A., *Tableau de la langue française. Origines. Evolution. Structure actuelle*, Paris, Payot. 1967, p. 85.

<sup>9</sup> WARTBURG W. von, *Évolution et structure de la langue française*, Berne, Francke. (10e éd. 1971), 1934, p. 116.

<sup>10</sup> QUEMADA B., „Introduction à l'étude du vocabulaire médical (1600- 1710)”, in Annales littéraires de l'Université de Besançon (2e série), t. II, fasc.5. Langue et littérature française, 2. Besançon : Faculté des lettres, 1955, p. 7.

<sup>11</sup> LERRAT P., *Les langues spécialisées*, Ed. PUF, France, 1995, p. 21.

<sup>12</sup> KOCOUREK R., *La langue française de la technique et de la science : vers une linguistique de la langue savante*, Ed. Brandstetter Verlog, Allemagne, 1991, p. 12.

<sup>13</sup> BENVENISTE E., *Problèmes de linguistique générale* (t2), Ed. Gallimard, Paris, 2005, p. 94.



mecanismele și schemele derivaționale tipice, cu precădere bazele greacă și latină, fiind permeabil și împrumuturilor din limbile străine.<sup>14</sup>

Medicina, ca orice domeniu de specialitate, se caracterizează printr-un limbaj medical strict științific, prin prezența termenilor tehnici creați de specialiștii domeniului, în absența în limba generală a elementelor de care au nevoie pentru a-și practica meseria. Specificitatea sa lingvistică este dată de utilizarea unui vocabular particular, „limba medicală [nefiind] decât un vocabular medical: ea are aceeași fonetică, aceeași morfologie și aceeași sintaxă ca și limba comună; numai lexicul se schimbă”<sup>15</sup>. Fiind creată de specialiști pentru specialiști<sup>16</sup>, limba medicală le este rezervată acestora și le permite să transfere cunoștințe științifice. Ea le aparține deci medicilor. Utilizarea unui vocabular specific medicinei asigură comunicarea, evită discursul prea lung, prin utilizarea unor termeni specifici și concisi, precum și utilizarea unei limbi comune întregului corp medical și paramedical, ceea ce permite transmiterea unei informații „filtrate”<sup>17</sup>, ce presupune concizie, precizie și lipsă ambiguității, având și o funcție criptică, aceea de a nu-i spune pacientului un adevăr insuportabil, spunându-i-l de fapt într-un limbaj specific și incomprehensibil.

Vocabularul medical prezintă o serie de particularități: formele sintactice utilizate cu o frecvență mai mică în limba comună, utilizarea frazelor incomplete, parafraza nominală, cu utilizarea sufixelor, a prefixelor, a sufixoidelor și a prefixoidelor în neologisme a căror concizie semantică face pereche cu o obscuritate în care adesea și specialiștii se pierd.

Vocabularul medical este construit din mai multe unități de sens diferite, în general de origine greacă și latină. Acestea sunt radicalii, prefixele și sufixe, prefixoidele și sufixoidele. Componentă primordială a cuvântului, radicalul are un sens care se schimbă cu ajutorul afixelor și al elementelor de compunere. Deci, pentru a sesiza sensul vocabularului medical este esențială cunoașterea semnificației rădăcinilor, a afixelor și a elementelor de compunere de origine savantă.

După cum vom constata, majoritatea termenilor medicali din limba română au etimologie franceză, dar în franceză ei sunt formați de la

<sup>14</sup> FONSECA J., *Quelques considérations sur l'enseignement des langues de spécialité*, [en ligne], In : Avenir de langues étrangères , Lisboa, février, 1986, URL. <http://ler. Letras. up.pt/uploads/ficheiros/2552. pdf>

<sup>15</sup> BAYLON Christian et Xavier MIGNOT, *La communication*, Ed. Nathan, Paris, 1994, p. 327

<sup>16</sup> ROULEAU Maurice, *La langue médicale : une langue de spécialité a emprunté le temps d'une traduction*. In : Traduction, terminologie, rédaction, 1995, Volume 8, numéro 2, p. 29-49.

<sup>17</sup> BAYLON Christian et Xavier MIGNOT, *op.cit.*, p. 327-329.



radicali la care se adaugă sufixe, prefixe, sufixoide și prefixoide de origine greco-latînă, conținutul semantic al respectivelor termeni comunicând diferite informații ce vizează modalitățile de diagnosticare și tratament, precum și efectul administrării diferitelor medicamente. „Cunoscând elementele terminologice (ET) – finale și inițiale greco-latine, rădăcinile cuvintelor compuse, prefixele și sufixele cele mai frecvente, medicii, studenții de la facultățile de specialitate, rezidenții etc. vor putea însuși mai ușor bogăția terminologiei clinice.”<sup>18</sup>

## I. Prefixele și prefixoidele

În formarea terminologiei medicale, un rol important îl au prefixele și prefixoidele. Chiar dacă există în limba română ca elemente de formare a cuvintelor, în corpusul analizat termenii au în general origine franceză. În această limbă, prefixele și prefixoidele sunt:

### 1. privative

• **a- / an-**: *deficient, fără...* În limba română este consemnat ca prefix „privativ, negativ”. (< fr. *a-*, *an-*, cf. gr. *a-*, *an-*, fără, lipsit de) (MDN 2000).

o **anurie**: *lipsa urinei*, substantiv feminin, este consemnat de majoritatea dicționarelor ca având etimologie franceză, având sensul de „Încetare patologică a secretării urinei” [Gen. *-iei*. / < fr. *anurie*, cf. gr. *an* – fără, *ouron* – urină] (DN 1986).

o **apiretic**: indică *lipsa febrei*, fiind adjecțiv cu sensul „care are temperatură corpului în limite normale; care nu este însotit de febră; afebril”, din fr. *apyrétique*, derivat din radicalul lat. *apyretus* „care este fără febră” (THEODORE PRISCIEN, *Log.*, 77 in TLL s.v., 346, 59), el însuși împrumutat din gr.  $\alpha'$  π υ' ρ ε τ ο ζ „fără febră” (HIPPOCRATE, 54 in BAILLY), care există și sub forma  $\alpha'$  π υ' ρ ε κ τ ο ζ (de la  $\alpha'$  π υ ρ ε ξ ι' α) *id.*

### 2. Care indică opoziția

• **anti-**: *contra, opus, contrar la, ...* are în limba română semnificația „împotriva”, „(în) contra”, „opus”. [fr. *anti-* (DEX 2009), cf. < lat. *anti*, gr. *anti* (DN 1986).].

o **antidot**: *contra otrăvii* este substantiv neutru cu sensul de „Substanță care neutralizează acțiunea unei otrăvi, a unui virus etc. din organism; contraotravă.” [< fr. *antidote*, cf. lat. *antidotum*, gr. *antidoton* < *anti* – contra,

<sup>18</sup> Vasile Melnic, „Mijloace de formare a terminologiei (clinice) medicale în limba română”, *Limba română. Revistă de știință și cultură*, nr. 3/2003, Chișinău, <https://limbaromana.md/index.php?go=articole&printversion=1&n=2627> consultat pe 14 aprilie 2022.



*dotos – dat] (DN 1986). Limba franceză consemnează etimologia latină a termenului *antidote*, ce provine din lat. *antidotum*, atestat cu sensul propriu „contra otrăvii” sau, ca sinonim al lui remediu, „contra bolilor”.*

o **antibiotic**: *contra vieții*, substantiv neutru (și adjecțiv), este „Substanță organică solubilă, produsă de unele microorganisme animale și vegetale, care are capacitatea de a distrugă anumiți microbi sau de a le opri dezvoltarea, fapt pentru care se utilizează în tratamentul bolilor infecțioase”, are etimologie franceză, termenul *antibiotique* fiind numele dat de Waksman în 1941 oricărei substanțe chimice produse de microorganisme care prezintă, în starea de soluție diluată, puterea de a inhiba creșterea altor microorganisme, și chiar de a le distrugă (*Méd. Biol.* t. 1 1970), compus din pref. *anti*\*- „contra” și din gr. βιωτικός „care privește viața, care servește la întreținerea vieții”.

o **antipiretic**: *contra febrei*, adj. și s.n., cu sensul de „(Substanță) care combată febra; febrifug, antifebril”, provine din fr. *antipyretique*, la rândul său compus din pref. *anti*\* și din gr. πυρετός (de la πυρετός „febră”) „febril, de febră” (PTOLÉMÉE, *Tetr.*, 85 in BAILLY).

- **ana-**: *contrar sau invers, spre sus, din nou, ... este, în limba română, un „Element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „în sus”, „înapoi”, „din nou”, „de-a curmezișul”. [< fr. *ana-*, cf. gr. *ana* – înapoi, în sus]” (DN1986).*

o **anastomoză**: *deschidere spre, comunicare cu, ... este în limba română s.f. cu sensul de „Comunicație naturală sau artificială (chirurgicală) între două vase sangvine, între două segmente ale tubului digestiv etc.; p. ext. trecere a fibrelor nervoase de la un nerv la altul.” Termenul provine din fr. *anastomose* „comunicare între două vase” (H. FIERABRAS, *Méth. chir.*, 3<sup>e</sup>livre, Delb. in QUEM.), împrumutat din gr. αναστομώσεις „deschidere”.*

o **anabolism**: *sinteză a unei molecule pentru a reînnoi celulele moarte*, s.n. cu etimologie fr., este o „Fază a metabolismului în care materiile nutritive introduse în organism sunt transformate în substanțe proprii acestuia; asimilație.” Termenul fr. *anabolisme* este compus din pref. gr. ανά- „în sus” și din βολέ “jet” + suf. *-isme\** [1907 (*Nouv. Lar. ill. Suppl.*)].

o **anafilaxie**: *contrar protecției..., în opozitie cu imunitate, reprezentă „creșterea sensibilității față de o otrăvă sau de o albumină, datorită prezenței acesteia în sânge” (MDA 2010), provenind fr. *anaphylaxie*, cuvânt medical creat de Ch. RICHET [fiziolog fr. 1850-1935] (*Bull. soc. de biologie*, 170), din gr. ανά- ce indică o idee de contrar și din φύλαξις „protecție” (SOPHOCLE, *Fragm.*, 379 in BAILLY), cu substituirea suf. *-ie* cu *-i*.*



### 3. Negative:

- **im- / in-** prefix negativ ce intră în compoziția a numeroase substantive și adjective, servind la indicarea negației, a privațiunii sau a contrariului a ceva.

O **incontinentă**: *nereținere*, „Lipsă de continență, eliminare involuntară a urinei sau a materiilor fecale, neputință de a reține urina sau materiile fecale”, provine din fr. *incontinence*, lat. *incontinentia*.

O **imun**: „Care prezintă imunitate; care nu poate contracta o anumită boală infecțioasă”, din fr. **immun**, lat. **immunis**, **compus din in** privativ și **munus** „obligație, sarcină”, având sensul de „scutit de orice sarcină, scutit de ceva”, cu sens medical, cf. engl. *immune* (1881 in NED).

O **impalpabil**: „care nu poate fi pipăit; *p. ext.* de dimensiune, intensitate etc. foarte mică; minuscul, imperceptibil”, din fr. *impalpable*, el însuși provenit din lat. *impalpabilis* „care nu poate fi prins, atins” (de la *in* privativ și *palpabilis* „pe care-l putem atinge”).

### 4. Care indică o noțiune de localizare

O **epi-**: element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „deasupra”, „pe”. [< fr. *épi-*, it. *epi-*, cf. gr. *επί*]. (DN 1986)

- **epigastric**: *de deasupra stomacului*, adjecțiv cu sensul „care ține de epigastru, privitor la epigastru”, din fr. *épigastrique*, împrumutat din gr. ε' πιγαστρικός „ceea ce este deasupra abdomenului”, compus din ε' πιγαστρι- și din γαστηρός, γαστρός „burtă, stomac”.

O **hipo-**: *dedesubt, sub normă*, cu sensul „mai puțin, sub”, care servește la formarea unor substantive și a unor adjective. – din fr. *hypo-*, element provenit din gr. υπο- „sub, dedesubt”.

- **hipotermie**: *temperatură sub temperatura normală*, termen medical, s.f. cu sensul de „scădere sub limita normală a temperaturii corpului”, din fr. *hypothermie*, format, la rândul său din format din gr. υπο- „sub” și derivatul din gr θερμός „cald” cu sufixul -ie.

- **hipogastru**: *sub stomach*, s.n. cu sensul de „Regiune a abdomenului situată sub regiunea omobilicală”, din fr. *hypogastre*, care provine din gr., format din gr. υπο- „sub” și γαστρηρός, γαστρός „stomac”.

O **iper-**: în opozиie cu *hipo-* însemnând „peste, deasupra, excesiv de, prea”, din fr. **hyper-**, ger. **hyper-**, gr. **ὑπερ-**, lat. **hyper-** (MDA 2010).

- **hiperglicemie**: „Creștere peste valorile normale a concentrației de glucoză din sânge, frecventă în diabetul zaharat”, s.f., este atestat ca termen medical în MDA 2 (2010), din fr. *hyperglycémie*, format din gr. υπερ- „deasupra, dincolo de” și *glycémie* derivat din „dulce” și elementul de compunere -émie (gr. αἷμα „sâng”).

O **peri-**: element de compunere însemnând „în jurul”, care servește la formarea unor adjective, provenit din gr. περί- „în jur, în jurul”.



• **perinatal**: *în jurul nașterii*, adjecțivul este atestat în DCR 2 (1997) ca termen medical, cu sensul de „care se referă la circumstanțele unei nașteri, are loc în jurul unei nașteri”, din fr. *périnatal*, format din gr. περί + οντος *natal*.

o **sub-**: prefix, *dedesubt, fără gravitate, nu complet*, provine din fr. *sub-*, lat. *sub*, care indică poziția inferioară a unui obiect față de altul sau o cantitate, o intensitate, o calitate, o ierarhie inferioară în raport cu alta de același tip.

• **subfebril**: provenit din fr. *subfébrile*, adjecțivul se referă la stări ale organismului, la ființele cu sânge cald) și înseamnă „care se caracterizează printr-o oscilație între gradul de căldură normală a corpului și febră; care are, în mod obișnuit, temperatura corpului subfebrilă.” [MDA2 (2010)] în franceză termenul este format din lat. *sub-* + *fébrile* (din lat. *febrilis* „care are raport cu febra; cauzat de febră”).

• **subluxație**: s.f. cu sensul de „luxație parțială, usoară”, termenul provine din fr. *subluxation*, care are ca etimologie lat. *sub-* + *luxation* (din lat. *luxatio* „dislocare”, de la supinul *luxare* al verbului *luxatum*).

• **sublingual**: folosit în general cu referire la tratamente, pentru a arăta ceea ce se pune sub limbă, adjecțivul este un teren de anatomie cu sensul de „care se află sub limbă”, din fr. *sublingual* (după lat. *sub-* și lat. *lingua* „limbă” + suf. *-al*)

## 5. Care indică ceva în exces, în plus, prea mult

o **Hiper-**: în opozitie cu *hipo-*, indică o intensitate sau o calitate superioară celei normale, o exagerare, un exces, cel mai înalt grad, provenind din gr. υπέρ „dincolo de, prea mult, excesiv”.

• **hipercheratoză**: s.f., termen medical, indică „îngroșarea fiziologicală sau patologică a stratului cornos al pielii”, din fr. *hyperkératose* (din lat. *hyper-* + *kératose* format, la rândul său, din gr. κέρας „corn, materie cornoasă” + suf. *ose-*)

o **polaki-**: „des, frecvent”. din gr. *pollakis* „deseori, frecvent”, fr. *pollaki-*, germ. *id.*, engl. *id.*

• **polakiurie**: „stare anormală care se manifestă prin nevoie de a urina frecvent”, substantivul feminin provine din *polaki* + *urie*, din gr. πολλακίς „adesea”, ουρά „a urina” + suf. *-ie*.

## 6. Care indică o cantitate

o **poli-**: element de compunere însemnând „mai mulți”, „mai multe”, „multiplu”, care servește la formarea unor substantive și a unor adjective, provine din fr. *poly-* (din gr. πολλούς „numerous, abundant, de manieră exagerată”)

• **polidipsie**: s.f. „Sete excesivă, patologică, caracteristică pentru unele



boli ca diabetul zaharat, diabetul insipid, pentru unele boli psihice, stări febrile etc.", din fr. *polydipsie* (din gr. πολύς *v-* + *-dipsie*, din gr. διψή „sete”)

• **poliurie**: s. f. „eliminare crescută de urină”, din fr. *polyurie* (din *poly-* + *-urie*)

o **olig(o)**: element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „mic”, „insuficient”, „sărac”, „puțin numeros” [ < fr., it. *oligo-*, cf. gr. *ολίγος* „în număr mic, insuficient, puțin abundant”]

• **oligurie**: s.f., „diminuare a secreției urinare” [din fr. *oligurie*, cf. gr. *oligos-* + *urie* din gr. *ouron* „urină”]. (DN 1986)

• **oligospermie**: s.f., „scădere a numărului de spermatozoizi din lichidul seminal”. [din fr. *oligospermie*, cf. gr. *oligos* „puțin” și *sperma* „sămânță” + suf. *-ie*].

## 7. Care indică o frecvență, un ritm

o **tahi-**: element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „rapid”, „accelerat”, „turație”. [scris și *tachi-*, var. *taheo-*, *taho-*. / < fr. *tachy-*, *tachéo-*, germ. *tacho-*, cf. gr. *ταχύς* „rapid”] (DN 1986).

• **tahipnee**: atestat ca termen medical în DN 1986, s.f. indică o „accelerare a respirației, care apare în cursul anumitor boli”, din fr. *tachypnée*, cf. gr. *ταχύς* „rapid” și *πνείω* „a respiră”].

• **tahicardie**: s.f., cu sensul de „accelerare anormală a ritmului cardiac” din fr. *tachycardie*, cf. gr. *ταχύς* „rapid” și *καρδία* „inimă”]. (DN 1986)

o **bradi-**: element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „lent”, „rar”. [ < fr. *brady-*, cf. gr. *βραδύς*]. (DN 1986)

• **bradipnee**: termen medical, s.f. are sensul de „rărire anormală a mișcărilor respiratorii”. [din fr. *bradypnée*, cf. gr. *βραδύς* „lent” și *πνοή* „respirație”]. (DN 1986)

## 8. Care indică un loc, o poziție:

o **in-** : penetrare în, impregnare, provenit din prep. lat. *in* „în, printre, pe”, are valoare locativă și incoativă, indicând mișcarea spre interior sau o poziție internă (LEXILOGOS)

• **insemina**: „a fecunda, a însământa (pe cale artificială)” (DEX 2009), termenul aparține biologiei, având ca etimologie fr. *inséminer*, care provine din lat. *inseminare*, derivat, la rândul său, din *seminare* „a semăna” cu prep. lat. *in-* cu valoare locativă.

• **increție**: termen medical, s.f. cu sensul de „secreție glandulară care rămâne în interiorul organismului”, „secreție endocrină”, provine din fr. *incrétion*, cu etimologie lat., după modelul *excrétion*.

o **en-**: rezultat din pref. lat. *in-* ale cărui sensuri sunt aceleași cu cele ale prepoziției cu aceeași formă, elementul de compunere evocă intrarea în limitele unui spațiu determinat, dobândirea unei stări, a unei noi calități sau crearea unui nou spațiu (LEXILOGOS)



• **encefal**: în cap, s.n. ce desemnează „totalitatea centrilor nervoși centrali care se găsesc în cutia craniană; creier”, provine din fr. *encéphale*, cf. gr. ε' γ κ ε' φ α λ ο σ (DN 1986), în sens propriu „care este în cap”, de la ε' γ „în” și κ ε' φ α λ ο σ „cap”.

o ***endo*-**: element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „înăuntru” [< fr., it. *endo*-, cf. gr. ε' ν δ ο ν] (DN 1986), are și sensul de „în interiorul”, intrând în compunerea a numeroase cuvinte savante, în special în domeniul științelor naturale.

• **endometru**: peretele intern al uterului, s.n., termen de anatomie, cu sensul de „mucoasă uterină”, din fr. *endomètre*, engl. *endometrium*, provine în aceste limbi din elementul pref. din gr. ε' ν δ ο ν + „metru”; anton. *ecto-*, *exo*-.

o ***intra*-**: în, în interiorul, care servește la formarea unor adjective și substantive, din fr. **intra**-, lat. **intra** (DEX 2009) „în interiorul”, prepoziție și adverb.

• **intravenos**: adj. „(Despre injecții, tratamente) Care se face în venă”, din fr. *intraveineux*, it. *intravenoso* (DEX 2009), din *intra*- și „venos”

• **intramuscular**: adj., „care se află sau se produce în masa musculară”, din fr. *intramusculaire*, compus din *intra*- și *musculaire*

• **intracavitar**: într-o cavitate cardiacă

• **intratraheal**: în trahee

o ***extra*-**: însemnând: a) „afară (de)”, „(în) afară”, „deosebit (de)”, care servește la formarea unor adjective; b) „superior”, „ultra-”, „foarte” și care servește la formarea unor adjective. – Din fr. *extra*-, lat. *extra*. (DEX 2009)

• **extradural**: adj. situat în afară sau deasupra durei mater. (< fr., engl. *extradural*) (MDN 2000)

o ***ec*-**: adj. situat în afara sau deasupra durei mater. (< fr., engl. *extradural*) (MDN 2000)

• **ectopie**: s.f. „schimbare de loc. ♦ (Anat.) Deplasare sau poziție anormală (congenitală) a unui organ; heterotopie. [< fr. *ectopie*, cf. gr. εκ – în afară, *topos* – loc]” (DN 1986)

o ***ex*-**: cu sensul de „afară de” sau „fost”, care servește la formarea unor substantive, adjective și verbe. – Din lat. *ex* (DEX 2009)

• **exereză**: s. f. (Med.) Ablațiune. – Din fr. *exérèse* (DEX 2009), în fr. împrumutat din gr. ε' ξ α ι ρ ε σ ι σ „extragerea măruntaielor unei victime” (LEXILOGOS), termenul apartine chirurgiei și are sensul de operație de extragere, de înlăturare a unui corp străin, țesut sau organ inutil sau dăunător din organism.

o ***ante*-**: „înainte”, „în față”, „anterior”, care servește la formarea unor substantive, adjective și verbe. – Din lat. *ante* (DEX 2009)



• **antenatal**: adj., „anterior nașterii, prenatal”, din engl. *antenatal* (DCR 2 1997) DEX-S) provenit la rândul său din lat. *ante* „înainte de” și lat. *matalis* „natal”.

o **post-**: însemnând „după”, „ulterior”, care servește la formarea unor substantive, a unor adjective și a unor verbe. – Din lat. *post*, fr. *post-* (DEX 2009), ce intră în compoziția a numeroși termeni savanți sau tehnici care indică posterioritatea (imediată) în spațiu sau în timp.

• **postnatal**: adj., „care urmează după naștere” (din fr. *postnatal*) (DCR 2 1997), este compus în fr. din prep. lat. *post* „după” + *natal*

#### 9. Care indică o cantitate:

o **mono-**: mono – este un element de compunere cu sensul de „unic”, „singur”, „o dată”, care servește la formarea unor substantive și a unor adjective, provenit din fr. *mono-* care, la rândul său, provine din gr. μονο-, din μόνος «singur, unic», intrând în construcția a numeroși termeni științifici sau tehnici.

• monocefal: cu un singur cap

• monodactil: cu un singur deget

o **uni**: element de compunere care înseamnă „unul singur” și care servește la formarea unor adjective și a unor substantive, din fr. *uni-* (DEX 2009), provenit din lat *uni-*, de la *unus* „unu, un singur”, ce intră în construcția unor adjective și substantive ce aparțin în principal vocabularului științific și tehnic (LEXILOGOS).

• **uniovulat**: adj. (despre ovar) „cu un singur ovul; uniovular”, după fr. *uniovulé* (MDN 2000)

o **di- / bi-** : element prim de compunere în terminologia tehnică și științifică internațională, însemnând „doi”, „de două ori”. [< fr. *di-*, cf. lat. *dis-*, gr. *dis* – de două ori] (DN 1986) / element de compunere însemnând „de două ori”, „dublu”, care servește la formarea de substantive și adjective [fr. *bi-*, lat. lit. *bis*]

• **dicorie**: „s.f. [At: DN<sup>3</sup> / Pl: ~*ii* / E: cf ngr δις „doi”, κόρη „pupilă”] (Med) Anomalie constând în prezența a două pupile” (MDA2 2010).

• **bilobectomie**: „s.f., rezecție a doi lobi pulmonari”

o **tri-**: element de compunere care înseamnă „trei” și care servește la formarea unor

substantive și a unor adjective [„întreit, de trei ori, triplu”, gr. *treis* „trei” și lat. *tres*, *id.* > fr. *tri*, it. *id.*, germ. *id.*, engl. *id.* > rom. *tri-* (DETS 1987)]

• **trifalangie**: s. f., prezența a trei falange la degetul cel mare (DETS 1987)

o **cvadri- / tetra-** : Element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „(de) patru (ori)”. [Var. *cuadri-*, *cvadra-*, *cvadru-*, scris și *quadri-*. /



< lat., fr. *quadri-* < lat. *quattuor* – patru] (DN 1986) / Element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația: 1 Patru. 2 De patru ori. 3 Format din patru (părți, elemente etc.) [fr. *tétra*~, gr. *τετρα-*] (DN 1986).

- **cvadriplegie**: s.f., paralizie în care sunt lezate toate cele patru membre (DETS 1987)

- **tetraplegie**: s. f., paralizie afectând cele patru membre (DETS 1987)

- o **penta-**: element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „cinci” [<> fr. *penta-*, cf. gr. *πέντε*] (DN 1986)

- **pentadactil**: care are cinci degete (DETS 1987)

- o ***hemi* - / *semi*-**: „jumătate, doime, înjumătărire” [gr. *hemi* „pe jumătate” > fr. *hémî*-, germ. *id.* engl. *id.*, it. *emi*- > rom. *hemi*- și *emi*-jumătate] (DETS 1987) / element de compunere însemnând „jumătate de”, „pe jumătate”, care servește la formarea unor substantive și a unor adjective [fr., lat. *semi*-]

- **hemiplegie**: s.f., paralizie a unei jumătăți laterale a corpului (DETS 1987)

- **hemicardie**: s.f., malformație congenitală constând în prezența a numai două din cele patru camere normale ale inimii (DETS 1987)

## 10. Care indică culori:

- o **eritr(o)-**: element de compunere cu sensul „roșu”, „hematie” (< fr. *érythr/o*-, cf. gr. *ερυθρός*) (MDN 2000)

- **eritem**: s.n., înroșire a pielii, ca urmare a unei congestii. (< fr. *érythème*, gr. *ερύθημα*) (MDN 2000)

- o **cian-**: element de compunere cu sensul „albastru, violet”. (< fr. *cyan/o*-, -cyan, -cyanose, cf. gr. *κυανός*) (MDN 2000)

- **cianodermie**: s.f., colorare în albastru a pielii (DETS 1987)

- o **leuco-** : element prim de compunere savantă, cu semnificația „alb”; „(referitor la) leucocite”. [Pron. *le-u*-, var. *leuc*- / < fr. *leuco*-, cf. gr. *λεύκος* – alb] (DN 1986)

- **leucoree**: s.f., scurgere vaginală albicioasă și purulentă (DETS 1987), termen format din **leuco- + -ree**, element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „(referitor la o) scurgere” [fr. *-rhée*, it. *-rea*, cf. gr. *πήνος* – a curge] (DN 1986)

- o **cloro-**: element de compunere savantă cu semnificația „verde” sau care indică prezența clorului. [< fr. *chlоро*-, cf. gr. *χλωρός*] (DN 1986)

- **cloropenie**: s. f., lipsă a clorului din organism (DETS 1987)

- o **mela(e)-**: prefix), indică o culoare închisă (cenușie, neagră, verde, brună); termen folosit atunci când se vorbește despre minerale sau roci (Petro-Sadim – prof.dr. Nicolae Anastasiu, Dicționar de termeni – Sedimentologie - Petrologie sedimentară - Sisteme depozitionale), din gr. μέλας „negru”



- **melena**: s.f., are sensul de „eliminare a unui scaun negru, conținând sânge provenit din părțile superioare ale tubului digestiv”, din fr. *mélaena* (DEX 2009), împrumutat din lat. *melaena* (*cholera*), literalmente „bilă neagră, umoare neagră”, transcris după gr. μέλανη adj. fem. „negru” (de la μέλας „negru”) (LEXILOGOS)

### 11. Care indică o formă, o morfologie:

- o **homo- / omo- / homeo- / homoio**: element de compunere cu sensul „egal”, „asemănător”, „constant”. (< fr. *homo-*, *homéo-*, *homoio-*, cf. gr. *homos*, *homoios*) (MDN 2000)

• **homodrom**: adj., „(despre nervi) orientat în același sens” (DTS 1987)

- o **heter(o)- / eter(o)**: element de compunere cu sensul „altul”, „diferit”, „inegal” ( fr. *hétéro-*, cf. gr. ητερος) (MDN 2000)

- **heterocromie**: s. f., „anomalie congenitală caracterizată prin colorarea diferită a irisurilor” „heterobafie”

o **auto-**: element prim de compunere savantă pentru cuvinte care arată că noțiunea se referă la subiect sau că acțiunea exprimată se îndeplinește de la sine. [fr. *auto*, cf. gr. αὐτός „însuși”] (DN 1986)

- **autoreproducere**: s. f. însușire a materiei vii prin care organismele își asigură, automat și de la sine, urmași. (< auto- + reproducere) (MDN 2000)

• **autoliză**: s.f., dezintegrare a celulelor și țesuturilor vegetale și animale sub acțiunea enzimelor proprii. [< fr. *autolyse*, cf. gr. αὐτός – însuși, λύση – dizolvare]

- o **macro- / mega- / megalο**: element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „mare” sau „foarte mare”. [< fr. *macro-*, cf. gr. μακρό] (DN 1986) / element de compunere cu semnificația „(foarte) mare”, „creștere”, „un milion”. (< fr. *méga-*, *mégal/o/-*, -megalie, cf. gr. μέγας, μεγάλος, μεγάλη)

• **macrocit**: s. n., globulă roșie cu diametrul foarte mare (DETS 1987)

• **megacardie**: s. f., mărire a volumului inimii (DETS 1987)

• **megalodactilie**: s. f., dezvoltare exagerată a degetelor (DETS 1987)

- o **micro-**: element de compunere cu semnificația „mic, microscopic” (< fr. *micro-*, *micrie*, cf. gr. μικρός) (MDN 2000)

• **microcefalie**: s. f., malformație congenitală caracterizată prin dezvoltarea insuficientă a craniului și a creierului (DETS 1987)

o **alo-** : element de compunere cu semnificația „altul, diferit, deosebit, alternare, alternanță” [gr. *allos* „altul” > fr. *allo-*, it. *id.* germ. *id.*, engl. *id.*] (DETS 1987)

• **alofazie**: s.f., vorbire incoerentă (DETS 1987)

• **alometrie**: s.f., accelerare sau încetinire a ritmului de dezvoltare a anumitor organe, în comparație cu ansamblul organismului (DETS 1987)



## 12. Alte prefixe și prefixoide:

o ***dis-*** / ***diz-***: cu semnificația „difícil, anormal, greu, defectuos; tulburare, dificultate, greutate” [gr. *dys* „rău, greu, neplăcut”, fr. *dys-*, germ. *id.*, engl. *id.*, it. *dis-*] (DETS 1987)

- ***disacuzie***: s.f., dificultate a auzului (fr. *dysacousie*) (MDN 2000)

o ***pedo-***: Element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificațiile „(referitor la) educație” „creștere” [fr. *pédo-*, cf. gr. *παῖς*, *παίδος*] (MDA 2010)

- ***pedonosologie***: (v. *noso-*, v. -logie<sub>1</sub>) s.f., studiu al bolilor caracteristice copilăriei (DETS 1987)

o ***geronto-***: element de compunere savantă cu semnificația „bătrân”, „bătrânețe” [var. *ger-*. / < fr. *géronto-*, cf. gr. *γερων*, *γέροντος* „bătrân”] (DN 1986)

- ***gerontologie***: s.f., disciplină care studiază bătrânețea sub diversele sale aspecte biologice, psihologice, morfologice etc. (DETS 1987)

o ***gineco-***: element prim de compunere savantă cu semnificația „(referitor la) femeie”, „femeiesc”. [Var. *gin-*. / < fr. *gynéco-*, it. *gineco-*, cf. gr. *gyne*, *gynaikos* – femeie] (DN 1986)

- ***ginecologie***: s.f., disciplină medicală care studiază bolile organelor genitale ale femeii [fr. *gynécologie*, cf. gr. *gyne* „femeie”, *λόγος* „studiu”] (DN 1986)

o ***psi-***: element de compunere provenit din fr. *psych-*, din gr. *ψυχ(o)-*, el însuși provenit din *ψυχή* „suflet, spirit”, servind la construirea a numeroase substantive și adjective, în special în limbajul medical, semnificatul având raport cu psihișmul, cu psihologia.

- ***psihiatru***: s.m., „medic specialist în psihiatrie” [fr. *psychiatre*, cf. gr. *ψυχη* „suflet”, *ιατρός* „medic”].

o ***soma-***: corp uman

- ***somatic***: adj., referitor la corp, al corpului [< fr. *somatique*, cf. gr. *soma* – corp] (DN 1986), termenul aparține medicinei, fiind utilizat în opozitie cu *psihic*.

o ***par(a)-***: element de compunere cu semnificația „perturbat, alături, contrar la ceva, vecin”, din gr. *παρά* „alături” (DN 1986)

- ***parestezie***: s.f., senzație de amorteală, de arsură sau de rece, datorită unei tulburări funcționale a sistemului nervos. [fr. *paresthésie*, cf. gr. *παρά* „alături”, *αἴσθηση* „senzație”] (DN 1986)

• ***parasimpatic***: adj., „(în sintagma) *sistem (nervos) parasimaptic* (și substantivat, n.) = una dintre cele două părți periferice ale sistemului nervos vegetativ, care încetinește bătăile inimii și accelerează mișcările tubului digestiv (fr. *parasympathique*)” (DEX 2009)

- o ***iatro-***: element prim de compunere savantă cu sensul de „medic”,



„tratament”. [ fr. *iatro-*, cf. gr. ιατρός „medic”] (DN 1986)

- **iatrogenie:** s.f., producere a unei boli în urma administrării îndelungate sau excesive de medicamente (DETS 1987), termenul medical indică „starea psihică produsă sau agravată pe cale psihogenă de către medic, ca urmare a unei manevre defectuoase sau a unui tratament medical greșit” (fr. *iatrogénie*) (DEX 2009)

## II. Sufixele și sufixoidele

- **-ITĂ:** element secund de derivare savantă a unor termeni medicali indicând prezența unei inflamații [fr. *-ite*] (MDA 2 2010)

o **gingivită:** s.f., cu sensul de „inflamație a gingilor” [< fr. *gingivite*, cf. lat. *gingiva* – gingie] (DN 1986), este derivat în fr. din lat. *gingiva* + suf. *-ite* (LEXILOGOS)

- **-PATIE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „boală”, „afecțiune”, „suferință”. [< fr. *-pathie*, it. *-patia*, cf. gr. πάθεια]. (DN 1986)

o **nefropatie:** s.f., termen medical ce reprezintă „denumirea generică a bolilor de rinichi” [fr. *néphropathie*, cf. gr. νεφρός „rinichi”, πάθος „suferință”] (DN 1986)

- **-ALGIE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „(referitor la) durere”, „algezie”. [< fr. *algie*, cf. gr. ἀλγος „durere”] (DN 1986)

o **nevralgie:** s.f., semnifică „durere acută pe traiectul unui nerv” [var. *neuralgie* s.f. / < fr. *névralgie*, cf. gr. νευρώνας „nerv”, ἀλγος „durere”] (DN 1986)

- **-STOMIE:** element de compunere, de la *-stome* [împrumutat din gr. -στομ(ι)ος (din στο’μα „gura”) „(ce este) situat în raport cu gura sau cu un anumit orificiu” + suf. *-ie*], intră în construcția unor substantive feminine aparținând vocabularului medical.

o **colostomie:** s.f., termen medical ce indică „deschiderea colonului la piele pentru a crea un anus artificial” [< fr. *colostomie*]. (DN 1986)

- **-ECTOMIE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „excizie”, „extirpare”, „tăiere”. [< gr. εκτομη] (DN 1986), „excizie, extirpare, ablație” [gr. εκτομη „excizie, tăiere” > fr. *-ectomie*, germ. *ektomie*, engl. *-ectomy*] (DETS 1987)

o **amigdalectomie:** s.f., „extirpare chirurgicală a amigdalelor; tonsilectomie” [fr. *amygdalectomie*, cf. gr. αμιγδαλε „migdală”, εκτομη „extirpare”] (DN 1986)



• **-TOMIE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „tăiere”, „tăietură”, „incizie” [ < fr. *-tomie*, it. *-tomia*, cf. gr. *τομε* „secționare, tăiere” (DETS 1987)] (DN 1986)

o **laparotomie:** *s.f.*, termen medical cu semnificație de „deschidere operatorie a cavității abdominale; celiotomie” [fr. *laparotomie*, cf. gr. *λαπαρα* „abdomen”, *τομε* „tăietură”] (DN 1986)

• **-STAZĂ:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „(referitor la) stază”, „oprire” [ < fr. *stase*, cf. gr. *στασις* „, „reținere, oprire” (DETS 1987)] (DN 1986)

o **hemostază:** *s.f.*, semnifică „oprire a unei hemoragii, în special în timpul unei operații” [ < fr. *hémostase*, cf. gr. *ηαιμα* „sâng”, *στασις* „oprire”] (DN 1986)

• **-OZĂ:** sufix utilizat în medicină și biologie cu sensul de „condiție”, „stare”, „maladie cronică, afecțiune neinflamatorie” [din fr. *-ose*; cf. gr. *-οσισ*] (MDN 2000)

o **coxartroză:** *s.f.*, termen medical, este „reumatismul cronic degenerativ al șoldului” [fr. *coxarthrose*] (MDA2 2010)

• **-LIZĂ:** element secund de compunere savantă, cu semnificația „soluție”, „descompunere”, „separare”, „distrugere”. [fr. *lyse*, it. *lisi*, cf. gr. *λυσισ* „dizolvare”] (DN 1986)

o **tromboliză:** *s.f.*, termen medical ce semnifică „metoda terapeutică de dizolvare a unui *trombus*” [fr. *thrombolyse*, cf. gr. *θρομβός* „cheag”, *λυσισ* „desfacere”] (DN 1986)

• **-gen:** element secund de compunere savantă, cu semnificația „care produce, care ia naștere”; „specie, gen, fel”, „familie, neam”. (< fr. *gén-*, *généa-*, *génésio-*, *-gène*, *-genèse*, *-génésie*, *-génie*, cf. gr. *γένος*, *γενεσις*) (MDN 2000)

o **exogen:** *adj.*, cu sensul de „format, dezvoltat la exterior” [ < fr. *exogène*, cf. gr. *εξο* „în afară”, *γεννᾶν* „a produce”] (DN 1986)

o **endogen:** *adj.* „(*Despre organe*) De origine internă, născut înăuntrul organului de reproducere” [fr. *endogène*, cf. gr. *ενδον* „înăuntru”, *γενος* „origine”] (DN 1986)

• **-LOGIE :** element secund de compunere savantă, cu sensul de „disciplină”, „știință”, „expunere științifică”. [< fr. *-logie*, it. *-logia*, cf. gr. *-λογία* < *logos* „cuvânt, discurs”] (DN 1986) // **-LOG:** element secund de compunere savantă cu sensul de „specialist”, „tehnician” (DN 1986) [gr. *λογος* „raport, discurs, tratare” > fr. *-logue*, germ. *-log*, it. *-logo*] (DETS 1987)

o **pneumologie:** *s.f.*, desemnând „ramura medicinii care studiază bolile plămânlui” [fr. *pneumologie*, cf. gr. *πνεύθμον* „plămân”, *λογος* „știință”] (DN 1986)



• **-TERAPIE:** element de compunere cu sensul de „tratament, medicație, vindecare”. [gr. *τηεραπεια* „tratament, vindecare” > fr. *-thérapie*, germ. *id.*, it. *-terapia*, engl. *-therapy*] (DETS 1987)

o **hormonoterapie:** termen medical format din elementul de compunere *hormono-* „hormon, hormonal” [gr. *hormon* „excitat” > fr. *hormono-*, germ. *id.*, engl. *id.*] și *-terapie*, având sensul de „tratament cu hormoni aplicat în diferite boli” (DETS 1987)

• **-OM:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „tumoare”, „tumefacție”. [< fr. *-ome*, it. *-ome*, cf. gr. *-ομα*] (DN 1986)

o **fibrom:** s. n., termen medical ce indică o „tumoare benignă formată mai ales în țesutul conjunctiv fibros și localizată de obicei la sân, la uter și la intestin” [fr. *fibrome*] (DEX 2009)

• **-GRAFIE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „scriere”, „desen”, „descriere”, „studiu”, „scris” [fr. *graphie*, it. *grafia*, cf. gr. *γραπη* „arta de a scrie”] (DN 1986)

o **scintigrafie:** s. f. termen medical ce indică „metoda de explorare a unui țesut, a unui organ intern prin introducerea unei substanțe radioactive; (concr.) imagine astfel obținută” [fr. *scintigraphie*, engl. *scintigraphy*] (DEX 2009)

• **-SCOPIE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „observație”, „examinare”, „privire”. [< fr. *-scopie*, it. *-scopia*, cf. gr. – *σκοπια* < *σκοπειν* „a privi”] (DN 1986)

o **endoscopie:** s.f., termen medical cu sensul de „examinare a interiorului anumitor organe cu ajutorul endoscopului” [fr. *endoscopie*, cf. gr. *ενδον* „înăuntru”, *σκοπειν* „a privi]

• **-FOBIE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „teamă (patologică) de”, „aversiune față de ceva”, „fobie” [fr. *phobie*, cf. it. *fobia*, gr. *πηοβοσ* „frică”] (DN 1986)

o **agorafobie:** s.f. cu sensul de „teamă nemotivată de a traversa locuri deschise, piețe etc.” [fr. *agoraphobie*, cf. gr. *αγορα* „piață publică”, *πηοβοσ* „frică”] (DN 1986)

• **-REE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „(referitor la o) scurgere” [fr. *-rhée*, it. *-rea*, cf. gr. *ρηειν* „a curge”] (DN 1986)

o **rinoree:** s.f., termen medical cu sensul de „scurgere de mucozități nazale” [fr. *rhinorrhée*, cf. gr. *ρηισ* „nas”, *ρηειν* „a curge”] (DN 1986)

• **-RAGIE:** element prim de compunere savantă cu sensul de „scurgere”, „ruptură”, „curgere” [Cf. fr. *-rhagie*, it. *-ragia*, cf. gr. *ρηαγε* „ruptură”] (DN 1986)

o **gingivoragie :** s.f., termen medical cu sensul de „sângerare a gingilor” [fr. *gingivorragie*] (DN 1986)

• **-EMIE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „(referitor la) sânge” [Var. *-hemie*. / < fr. *-hémie*, cf. gr. ηαιμα „sânge”] (DN 1986)

o hidremie: s.f., termen medical ce indică o „creștere anormală a cantității de apă din sânge” [< fr. *hydrémie*, cf. gr. ηυδωρ „apă”, ηαιμα „sânge”] (DN 1986)

• **-URIE:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „(referitor la) urină”, „urinare”. [< it. *-uria*, fr. *-urie*, cf. gr. οθρον „urină”] (DN 1986)

o **glycozurie:** s.f. Prezența glucozei în urină în cazul când bolnavul suferă de diabet. [< fr. *glycosurie*, cf. gr. γλυκυσ „dulce”, οθρον „urină”] (DN 1986)

• **-OID:** element secund de compunere savantă cu semnificația „în formă de”. [Pron. *-o-id.* / < fr. *-oïde*, it. *-oide*, cf. gr. ειδοσ „formă, aparență”] (DN 1986)

o **ovoid:** adj., semnificând „în formă de ou; oval; ovoidal, oviform” [cf. fr. *ovoïde* < lat. *ovum* „ou”, gr. gr. ειδοσ „formă”] (DN 1986)

### Concluzie

Derivarea și compunerea cu elemente savante conduc la îmbogățirea terminologiei medicale. Rolul acestor elemente a fost elucidat din perspectiva etimologiei, cunoașterea semnificației lor facilitând utilizarea termenilor medicali nu doar de specialiști, ci și de profani, în uzul cotidian.

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# Formarea deprinderii de a citi în LR ca LS pentru studenții arabi din anul pregătitor

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## Abstract

*This paper attempts to present some considerations about teaching reading and developing the ability of reading in romanian language as a foreign language. In a period full of opportunities using technology, we consider that the role of teaching is essential and reading is a very difficult process for foreign students. They come at the Romanian preparatory year and after that they study different scientific domains. We will focus our work on teaching for the arabic students because they can be considered a special category from the linguistic point of view. Teaching reading starts when we present the alphabet and the specific letters/groups. We have to take into consideration that the latin alphabet is totally unknown for the arabic students when they start the Romanian preparatory year.*

**Keywords:** letters, sounds, model, imitation, ability

În această lucrare ne propunem să prezentăm câteva aspecte referitoare la formarea deprinderii de a citi în LR ca LS în cadrul orelor de limba română pentru studenții străini din anul pregătitor. Ne vom referi în mod special la vorbitorii de limbă arabă.

După cum se știe, după anul pregătitor, studenții merg la facultate pentru studii de licență/master/doctorat. Citirea este o importantă deprindere în cadrul procesului de învățare a unei limbi străine. Pentru studenții străini din anul pregătitor, fluența în citire este o condiție de bază a succesului lor în anii de studii. Cititul fluent îi ajută la receptarea materialului într-o formă sistematică, organizată logic din punct de vedere al conținutului de idei, precum și la lecturarea în întregime a cursurilor.

## 1. Inițiere în citire

Formarea deprinderii de citire începe odată cu pronunția primelor litere și cuvinte folosite ca exemple în predarea alfabetului. Cuvintele folosite pentru exemplificare trebuie să fie scurte și trebuie insistat pe pronunția

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corectă a literelor. De asemenea, este recomandat să folosim fiecare literă în poziții diferite.

Predarea grafemelor este necesară cu atât mai mult cu cât alfabetul limbii române conține litere specifice, inexistente în limba arabă sau în limbile intermediare ale studenților, semne grafice pe care aceștia nu le cunosc. Astfel, se insistă asupra grafemelor specifice limbii române, care generează multe dificultăți: *ă, â/î, ș, ț, ce, ci, che, chi, ge, gi, ghe, ghi* și *-i* final asilabic. În plus, este cunoscut faptul că pentru studenții arabi deosebirea dinre *b* și *p* reprezintă o barieră greu de depășit indiferent de forma în care apar acestea: vorbit, scris sau citit. Această barieră se menține o perioadă foarte lungă, uneori chiar după mulți ani pronunția lui *b* și înlocuirea lui *p* cu *b* sunt greșeli frecvente pe care le sesizăm la vorbitorii arabi de LR chiar dacă aceștia vorbesc fluent LR și nu fac greșeli la nivel gramatical. Oferim câteva dintre cele mai frecvente erori observate de către noi la diferite categorii de vorbitori arabi (studenți în anul pregătitor, studenți în diferite stadii de studii sau chiar absolvenți): *prânz-brânz, pâine-bâine, puțin-buțin, pui-bui, părinte-bărinte, pădure-bădure, patru-batru, pat-bat, pericol-bericol, începe-încebe, prind-brind, pot-bot, aştept-aştebt, pentru-bentru, pe-be, peste/beste.*

Citirea trebuie să înceapă folosind contexte minimale care conțin forme și cuvinte cunoscute ce aparțin vocabularului de bază. Este important să se insiste asupra caracteristicilor grafice ale LR care sunt total diferite față de limba arabă și care generează multe dificultăți în formarea deprinderii de a citi. Pentru studenții arabi, tot alfabetul latin reprezintă o necunoscută sau cunoașterea lui este aproximativă și superficială dacă aceștia au studiat în școală limba engleză sau limba franceză. Învățarea literelor atât de diferite ca aspect grafic de cele din arabă, acomodarea cu schimbarea direcției de citire/scriere, precum și depășirea dificultăților de pronunțare sunt obstacole pe care studenții arabi le trec foarte greu și cu mari eforturi. Din acest motiv, în învățarea citirii și scrierii, profesorul trebuie să insiste asupra formelor de excepție, de interferență și de dificultate care se stabilesc între cele două sisteme de limbă din punct de vedere grafic. În plus, ar fi ideal să putem avea omogenitatea grupelor de studenți din punct de vedere al limbii materne, deoarece toți membrii unei grupe ar avea același tip de dificultăți, să ar putea insista exclusiv asupra lor, rezultatul fiind omogenizarea și egalizarea lor riguroasă fără apariția unor salturi de la exersarea unui tip de dificultate la altul, cum se întâmplă în cazul unor grupe formate din vorbitori care au limbi materne diferite. Acest lucru este greu de realizat, fapt care ne conduce la predarea cu grupe mixte din punctul de vedere al limbii materne.



## 2. Câteva considerații privind formarea deprinderii de a citi în LR ca LS

Actul *citirii* solicită activitatea mai multor organe care acționează simultan: *văzul* (la citirea semnelor), *auzul* pentru recunoașterea relațiilor fonemático-grafemáticas (indispensabil auditiiei în actul citirii, *organele articulatorii* sunt elementul de bază în producerea și emiterea articulării fonice corecte), *memoria și gândirea* (pentru identificarea sensului lexical al formei grafice incluse în contexte). Astfel, putem afirma că *citirea* înseamnă, în mare parte, înțelegerea unei limbi, cu toate formele ei, în funcție de reprezentările grafice supuse citirii, nu doar reproducerea sonoră corectă a componentelor grafemáticas. La finalul cursului intensiv de LR ca LS, *a citi* înseamnă înțelegerea globală, structuralo-semantică a textului scris în contexte largi și complexe, cu abilitatea ulterioră de rearanjare a materialului informațional și prezentarea lui verbală sau scrisă. Atingerea acestui nivel de cunoaștere și de înțelegere a LR are o motivație solidă dată atât de scopul cursului, cât și de vârsta cursanților. În ceea ce privește anul pregătitor, ambele aspecte apar ca un avantaj: cursanții sunt maturi și citirea este pentru ei determinată de nevoia de studiu într-un anumit domeniu și nu se pune problema aspectului mecanic al titlului, aşa cum este abordat la vârsta școlară. LR este mai mult decât cunoașterea/învățarea unei noi limbi, ea este limba în care vor studia după anul pregătitor în țara în care este limbă oficială. Aceast fapt implică mai multe cerințe: fluentă în limbajul cotidian, familiarizarea cu terminologia de specialitate și capacitatea de a reda în LR cunoștințele teoretice dintr-un anumit domeniu. Pentru a ajunge în acest punct, studentul străin trebuie să aibă deprinderi suficiente de dezvoltate. Ne referim aici la automatisme de scriere, la învățarea cursurilor care facilitează înțelegerea în cazul lecturării diferitelor texte de specialitate.

Deprinderea de a citi în LR ca LS se formează progresiv și presupune mai multe faze cu caracteristici specifice:

*Familiarizarea cu reprezentarea grafică a fonemelor românești, fixându-se relația aspect scris-aspect sonor*

- accentul cade pe grafemele specifice LR;
- prezentarea neconcordanței între aspectul grafic și cel sonor folosind exemple (*ceva, cineva, cinci, ochelari, ochi, merge, inginer, înghețată, unghie, este/e*);
- semnalarea primelor omofone (*ea - ia, ei - ie*);

*Citirea cuvintelor-suport folosite în exemplificare la predarea alfabetului și folosirea lor orală și scrisă în contexte scurte*

- activitățile corespunzătoare acestui moment sunt de fapt dialoguri simple și redarea lor scrisă ( *Cine ești?- Eu sunt...; De unde ești? – Eu sunt din...; Ce zi e azi?- Azi e...*).



*Citirea și înțelegerea reprezentărilor grafice fără legătura analitică a relației literă-sunet = citire imitativă*

*Citirea unor texte având ca scop îmbogățirea vocabularului și dezvoltarea ritmului de vorbire*

- cititul are ca scop accelerarea ritmului vorbirii;
- îmbogățirea vocabularului prin lecturarea unor texte cu conținut complex, texte ce conțin cuvinte necunoscute, care sunt prezentate de către profesor înainte de citirea textului;
- relatarea conținutului de idei într-o formă de exprimare liberă.

Se observă că în aceste faze de formare a deprinderii de a citi, procesul didactic este condus în totalitate de profesor și este recomandat să se respecte ordinea desfășurării lecției: explicarea cuvintelor necunoscute prin conversații introductory, citirea-model sau audierea textului folosind diverse mijloace actuale (CD, materiale virtuale) și citirea imitativă realizată de către studenți.

Astfel, profesorul trebuie să aibă în vedere următoarele aspecte: să implice toți studenții în actul citirii indiferent de fază (citire parțială sau integrală), să corecteze greșelile la finalul unei propoziții/fraze fără a repeta forma greșită. De asemenea, profesorul trebuie să cunoască dificultățile specifice ale studenților arabi și să urmărească evoluția în reducerea și eliminarea acestora.

*Citirea unor texte de specialitate cu scopul de a afla informații dintr-un domeniu științific*

- citirea nu este neapărat sonoră, poate fi efectuată fără profesor și are caracter sintetic (studentul va face o lectură internă a textului, având capacitatea de a înțelege mesajul de idei, fără a se opri din cauza unor cuvinte necunoscute sau a unor structuri de limbă mai deficile sau chiar noi);
- citirea este urmată de discuții complexe și opinii personale, acestea având un rol important în dezvoltarea deprinderii de vorbire fluentă.

Suștinem cititul imitativ deoarece poate fi controlată realizarea asocierii dintre forma grafică și cea sonoră, știut fiind faptul că acesta este primul pas în formarea deprinderii.

Studenții străini învață limba română nu doar pentru a citi diverse materiale tipărite, ci și pentru a audia prelegeri. Citind cu voce tare, studentul își dezvoltă deprinderea de ascultare și auzire, de înțelegere auditivă a părților sonore redate prin mijloacele precizate mai sus.

Considerăm că citirea este o deprindere greu de format la studenții arabi și oferim opinia unui medic după ce a absolvit facultatea de medicină: *Când am citit primul text în limba română mi s-a părut că citesc chineză. Cred că a fost aşa din cauza diacriticelor de genul ă, â, ī, ş, ţ și a grupurilor de litere*



*ce, ci, che, chi ... care îmi păreau imposibil de pronunțat. Încurcam foarte des e cu i și invers, după alfabetul englezesc.* ( Ahmad Wattad)

Ca o concluzie, susținem ideea că citirea începe cu identificarea sonoră a grafemelor și poate fi considerată deprindere în momentul în care studentul parcurge un material fără transpunere orală, înțelege și reține idei, pe care le poate rezuma în scris sau oral.

### 3. Citirea pentru studenții arabi din familii mixte

O situație specifică la studenții arabi apare când LR este limba maternă a unui părinte, de obicei a mamei. Unii dintre aceștia fac anul pregătitor, alții, conform metodologiei, pot susține un test de competență lingvistică și nu mai fac anul pregătitor. Majoritatea studenților din această categorie vorbesc limba română foarte bine. Problemele apar la citit și la scris deoarece ei și-au însușit LR doar pe cale orală. LR fiind limba de comunicare în familie, dificultățile sunt mai reduse față de cei care încep studiul LR de la zero. De asemenea, studenții arabi din familii mixte depășeșc mai ușor bariera **b/p** și problemele lor în ceea ce privește citirea sunt aproape identice: *e/i, o/u, cuvintele noi, cuvintele terminologice lungi, ritm lent în citire*. Exemplificăm considerațiile noastre, oferind următoarele opinii:

*Pentru mine a fost greu la început să citesc. Îmi lua mult timp să citesc un text lung sau o lecție. Era greu să citesc cuvintele noi în limba română pe care nu le-am auzit înainte, dar cu cât am citit mai mult, am devenit să citesc mai repede. M-au ajutat și colegele mele când mai citeam un cuvânt greșit și mă corectau. Pronunțam e în loc de i și invers. Când citeam un cuvânt care are litera u și o pronunța o. Spre exemplu, puroi. Eu ziceam poroi. Nu a fost problemă mare la b și p.* ( Abu el Khair Lara, anul I, U.M.F. Craiova)

*Pentru mine nu a fost mult greu să citesc. La început, citeam mai încet până m-am obișnuit. În anul 2 deja m-am obișnuit să citesc mai repede, dar aveam problema cu i și e, le încurcam. Acum citesc aproape fără greșeli, dar la anumite cuvinte lungi pronunț greșit și încerc să le fac două cuvinte când trebuie să le țin minte.* ( Ajlouni Rania, anul al IV-lea, U.M.F. Craiova)

Există și studenți arabi care provin din familii mixte și care nu vorbesc deloc LR sau cunosc doar vocabularul de bază. Ei încep studiul LR când vin în anul pregătitor și se confruntă cu problemele specifice vorbitorilor de limba arabă, situații pe care le-am semnalat mai sus în prezenta lucrare.

### 4. Contextul pandemic – predare online versus predare fatică

După cum se știe, contextul pandemic din ultimii 2 ani a făcut ca activitățile didactice la nivel universitar să se desfășoare exclusiv online. După părerea noastră, predarea online este asemănătoare cu cea fatică, cu condiția ca studenții să fie simultan conectați la același canal de discuție și să



participe la dialog și la activitățile impuse de procesul didactic. Elementul care diferențiază predarea online de predarea fatică se referă la efortul participanților de a reconstrui contextul social. În ceea ce privește dezvoltarea deprinderii de citire, susținem că toate aspectele descrise mai sus pot fi prezentate și aplicate și în cazul predării online.

## 5. Concluzie

Formarea deprinderii de a citi în LR este un proces lung și dificil pentru studenții arabi. Anul pregătitor este perioada de acomodare cu toate aspectele LR, dar nu putem vorbi despre o deprindere total formată. Anii de studii îi vor pune în fața unor texte noi ce conțin cuvinte lungi și necunoscute. Considerăm că formarea deprinderii de a citi depășește anul pregătitor din punct de vedere temporal.

### Abrevieri

- LR – limba română  
LS – limbă străină

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