

“DIMITRIE CANTEMIR” CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY

FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

ANNALS OF “DIMITRIE CANTEMIR” CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY

LINGUISTICS, LITERATURE AND METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING

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Notes on the Volume from the Editors

As language teaching strategies, programs, and procedures are continually experiencing reassessment, new ideas keep surfacing. This issue of Annals of “Dimitrie Cantemir” Christian University. Linguistics, Literature and Methodology of Teaching is meant both to disseminate the Erasmus+ Project VIR_TEACH: A VIRTUAL Solution for a comprehensive and coordinated training for foreign language TEACHERs in Europe (Ref. 2018-1-ES01-KA203-050045) and to carry the modern teaching methods’ review forward to address the contemporary age of digital communication in the twenty-first century. The expanding complexity of the means of communication and the openings created by technology put language skills to new applications. In addition, the challenges of intercultural communication have opened new perspectives on the central role that foreign languages have come to play in the advancement of contemporary societies and thus impact on foreign language learning and teaching. The Erasmus+ Project VIR_TEACH project is devoted to the creation of a digital tool to improve the postgraduate certificates on Masters on Education (Foreign Languages) and provide teachers and researchers with open-source tools and resources. In bringing together contributions on the ESP teaching in various fields and Multicultural Approaches in teaching foreign languages in the current era of globalized creation, we seek to stress the importance of improving and adapting teaching methods to nowadays challenges.

**Teaching, Innovating and Researching
General Language *vs* Specialized Language**

A Contribution to ESP Teachers' Training

Ana CUNHA¹, Amanda Maraschin BRUSCATO²

Abstract. *English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teachers plan their classes based on their students' needs. This paper focuses on what should be taught to future ESP teachers. It is based on an ESP teaching module written for the VIR-teach - A Virtual Solution for a comprehensive and coordinated training for foreign language TEACHERs in Europe project. This paper analyses different aspects related to ESP, which include the differences between teaching English for Specific Purposes and English for General Purposes, and how teaching ESP is related to teaching methods and approaches. Hopefully, this paper will contribute to ESP teachers' training.*

Keywords: English for Specific Purposes; Methods and Approaches; Teachers' Training.

1. Introduction

Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) means teaching students how to use the English language in specific contexts. These contexts may be academic, occupational or individual. Once teachers understand the importance of planning their classes based on students' needs, we must discuss how to teach future teachers. What should we consider? What should be taught? These are the questions that we intend to answer here.

This paper is based on a teaching module of English for Specific Purposes created for the VIR-teach project, subtitled "A Virtual Solution for a comprehensive and coordinated training for Foreign Language

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Teachers in Europe”. Thus, we are going to examine different aspects related to ESP and what should be taught to future language teachers.

First, we will discuss the emergence of ESP, the differences between teaching English for Specific Purposes and English for General Purposes, and the specificities of ESP teaching. Then, we will focus on course design and on ESP needs analysis, the main topics of ESP. Finally, we will see how teaching ESP is related to teaching methods and approaches. Hopefully, this paper will contribute to the education of future ESP teachers.

2. English for Specific Purposes

2.1. The Emergence of ESP

The end of the Second World War brought about new perspectives and changes in scientific, technical and economic activity at an international level. These changes resulted in the creation of a unified world ruled by two major forces: technology and commerce.

To best meet the demands of these forces, there was an increasing demand for an international language, the aim of which was to ease communication between partners all over the world. As emphasised by Crystal (1997: 13) “English was at the right place at the right time”. Actually, the economic supremacy of the United States in the post-war era facilitated the emergence of English as the first international language used for most scientific and economic publications, becoming as such the necessary medium of communication, if not the only one.

This was an age of massive changes in all spheres, which translated into the need for an international language, or, to be more precise, as Mackey and Mountford (1978) called it, a “restricted repertoire” selected from the whole language that meets learners' needs within a well-defined context.

A revolution in linguistics has led to a change of focus, from presenting language as a set of forms and defining the features of language usage, to discovering the ways in which language is in fact used in real-life communication scenarios. The idea is that if the language varies from one situation to another, so it is possible to design language courses that suit different and specific contexts.

New developments in educational psychology contributed to the growth of ESP by emphasizing the central role of learners, their motivations and needs from the language course; therefore, designing specific courses to better meet learners' needs was a natural extension of this rationale.

In today's globalized world English has become the *lingua franca* for communications in such key areas as politics and international relations, business and finance, culture, technology, science, etc. As a result, for many years now language learning has been considered crucial (Jenkins, 2018). So, the pressure to make individuals proficient in English has increased exponentially, giving rise to a growing demand for 'English as a foreign language' learning and teaching: "English now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers" (Hutchinson and Water, 1987: 7).

The fact that English has become the key to international trends of science, technology and business has created a new generation of learners who need to learn English and, most importantly, know why they needed it. Consequently, a new trend in English Language Teaching, ESP, emerged to suit different teaching situations, that is, to provide students of business, economics, medicine, biology, among others, with the knowledge of English they need to perform activities in their specific fields (Cunha, 2019).

2.2. ESP vs EGP Teaching

Hutchinson and Water (1987:53) describe, in a quite simple manner, the difference between the ESP and GE approaches: "in theory nothing, in practice a great deal."

ESP is a focused-English learning and teaching situation, in which teaching techniques and the learning environment are different from teaching general English, as the former was stimulated to a great extent by the need to communicate across languages in areas such as business. Scrivener (2005) defends that "ESP contrasts with the rather mischievous acronym LENOR (Learning English for No Obvious Reason); it implies that we are going to take the client's needs and goals more seriously when planning the course, and rather than teach general English, we are going to tailor everything to his or her character and particular requirements."

While teaching English for general purposes focuses on teaching the general language to all different learners, teaching English for specific purposes focuses on learners' training- or work-related needs. Widdowson (1983) characterizes EGP as having an educational aim and ESP as having a training aim, since the former is concerned with students' overall competence in the language, and the latter is concerned with students' restricted competence in the language. Restricted competence can be understood as the competence to use language in specific situations of their areas of expertise:

“... the language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as ‘special,’ in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not grammar. Knowing a restricted ‘language’ would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment.”

Mackay and Mountford (1978: 4-5)

EGP teaches learners conversational and social genres of the language, while ESP teaches academic or occupational genres; in other words, in the latter learners are taught the language skills required for their immediate purpose, by means of selection of specific vocabulary and grammar. Some authors identify ESP as the teaching of English for Academic studies, or for vocational or professional purposes, as opposed to EGP (Brunton, 2009; Carver, 1983, and Hyland, 2006). Accordingly, the main differences between ESP and EGP are learners and their purposes.

We can say that EGP is likely to be taught in basic education, because students are supposed to learn overall English, and for many of them their main goal is to finish school. However, while the EGP learners in the previous context aren't all engaged in learning a foreign language, adults often are, since they tend to have a specific purpose. It is important to say that, although ESP is mostly taught to adults, it can be taught to people of all ages and with different levels of proficiency as well.

2.3. Specificities in ESP Teaching

Mackay and Mountford (1978: 2) claim that “ESP is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose.” Strevens (1988) identifies a set of ESP's absolute and variable characteristics, which were revised by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), and can be summarized as follows:

Table 1 – ESP’s absolute and variable characteristics

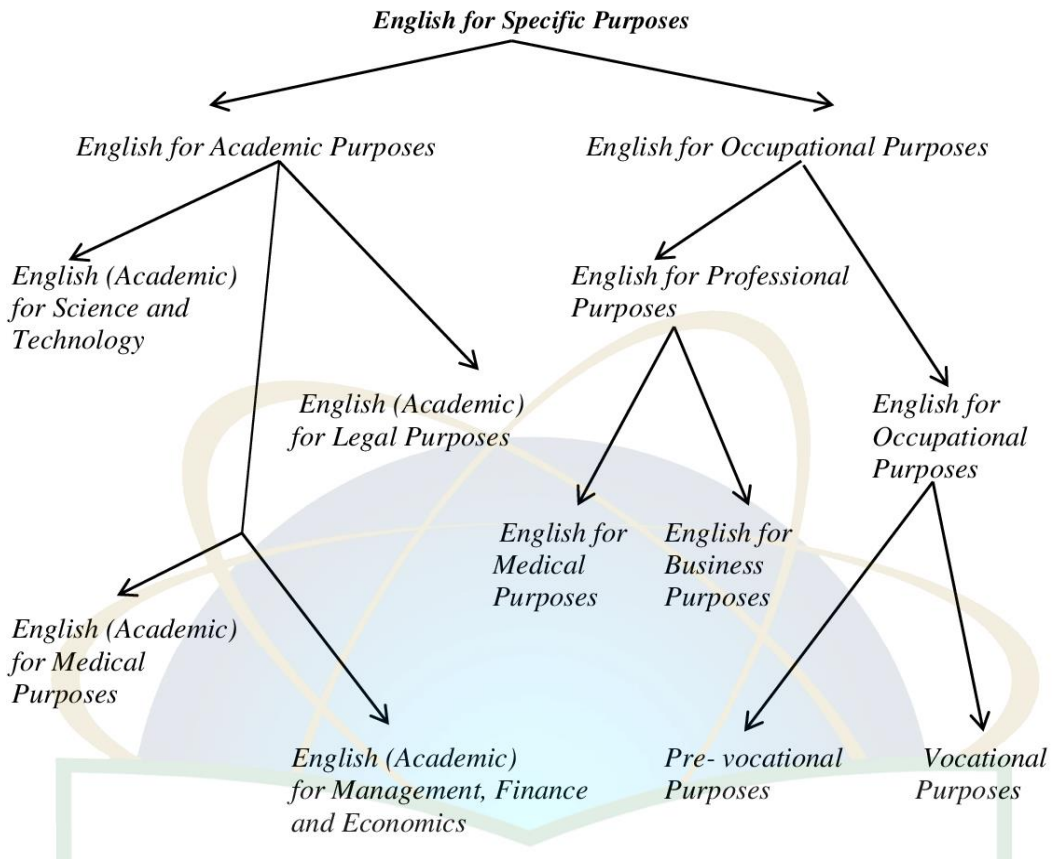
Absolute Characteristics	Variable characteristics
ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner	ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines
ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves	ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English
ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities	ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation; it could be used for learners at secondary school level
	ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced learners
	Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but this approach can be used with beginners

Adapted from Dudley-Evans, Tony & St. John, Maggie. 1998.
Developments in English for Specific Purposes.
 Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

The above absolute and variable characteristics of ESP have gathered consensus amongst ESP researchers and apply to the different types of ESP. David Carter (1983) identifies three main types of ESP: English as a restricted language (i.e. English for waiters); English for Academic and Occupational Purposes (EAP, EOP); and English with specific topics. Within each of these purposes, there are many subject areas, and the same area can often be taught for both occupational and academic purposes, these two being the most generally and traditionally categorized purposes (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991), at least for university level instruction.

The figure below describes the classification of ESP in detail:

Figure 1 – ELT Tree



(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:6)

2.4. Course Design

“The process by which the raw data about a learning need is interpreted in order to produce an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge”
(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Since there are different purposes, course design will also differ. Course design refers to the planning and structuring of a course to achieve the pursued goals. Robinson (1991) describes it as the outcome of a number of elements, namely, the result of needs analysis, the course designer's approach to syllabus and methodology, and existing materials. In turn, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 65) describe it as “an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners

to a particular state of knowledge.” Thus, medical students may have to learn English to read and write academic genres, while doctors may have to learn the language to talk to foreign patients.

According to Bakhtin (1986), humans interact through speech genres. If we want to teach our students how to use the language, we must teach them specific genres, such as dialogues, emails, abstracts, etc. For each purpose, there will be different genres to teach. For example: learning how to write an email in English may be essential for businessmen, while learning how to write a paper will be vital for scientists.

Teaching English for specific purposes means planning each course based on learners’ specific needs. This is very practical and concrete, because each course is designed to meet students’ practical needs, that is, to teach them how to use English in specific situations of their areas of expertise. Course design includes syllabus development, instructional methodology or approach, and assessment procedures. Decisions in connection with these segments of course design are made in response to the learners’ needs. Teachers need to determine which aspects of ESP learning will be included, emphasized, integrated and used as the core of the course. This is very strenuous, because English teachers aren’t experts in all areas, and, to teach ESP properly, they may have to perform multiple roles, as identified by Dudley- Evans and St John (1998): that of teacher, collaborator, course designer and materials provider, researcher and evaluator.

The performance of these roles requires considerable knowledge of a linguistic, socio-cultural and pedagogical nature, necessary to inform the teacher’s cognitive processes, particularly those involved in course decision making. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 163) state that the “ESP teacher should not become a teacher of the subject matter, but rather an interested student of the subject of the subject matter.”

The necessary professional knowledge of the ESP teacher, which is gained through professional schooling, teacher training, and teaching experience, comprises both relevant theoretical concepts and performance skills, in other words, knowing what and knowing how. It directly impacts on all stages of the ESP process, namely the planning, design, teaching, assessment and evaluation of a course, largely determining its quality and consequent success.

Dudley-Evans (1998) defines ESP based on three aspects: needs analysis, which ascertains who the learners are and why they want to learn the language; the analysis of genres and language related to these needs, which shows what they need to learn; and the analysis of the best suited methods for each area, which is concerned with how students learn.

2.5. ESP needs Analysis

Needs' analysis is a crucial characteristic in ESP course design as Mc Donough (1984: 29) writes: "The idea of analysing the language needs of the learner as a basis for course development has become almost synonymous with ESP." Thus, to understand the situations that learners may experience in their area of expertise and its specific genres and vocabulary, ESP teachers usually apply questionnaires and interview their students, as well as analyse authentic speech genres in the field. Based on these findings, it is possible to design the course and to create or choose the best class materials.

Needs are defined as being the requirements that the students must meet in order to be able to communicate effectively in the target situation. They are also defined as what the students need to learn to acquire the language. There are two types of needs: target needs, which refer to what the learners need to do in order to be able to communicate effectively in the target situation; and learning needs, which refer to how the students will be able to move from the starting point (lacks) to the final destination (necessities).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) claim that it is not possible to base a course design simply on the target objectives, and that the learning situation must also be considered. They add that the target situation alone is not a reliable indicator, and that the conditions of the learning situation, learners' knowledge, skills, strategies, motivation for learning, the setting and the time allowed are of prime importance.

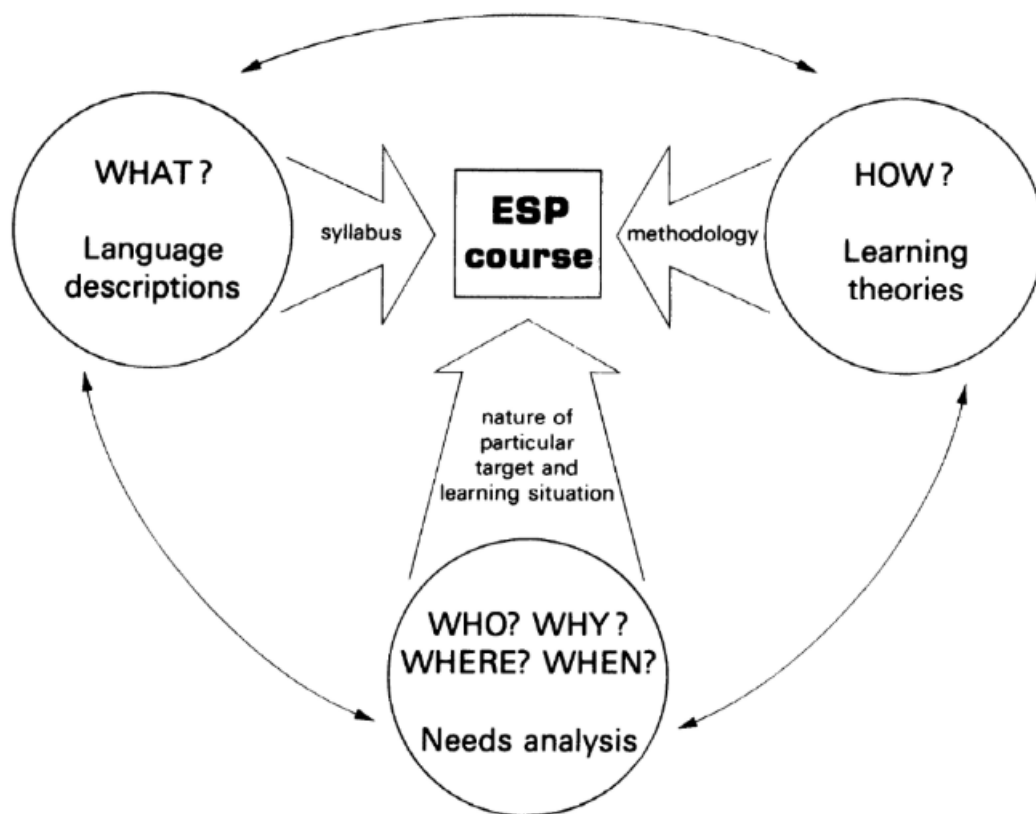
Thus, ESP focuses on learners' needs and on course design, which includes not only the content to be taught, but the teaching methods to be used as well. One can, therefore, support Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 19), to whom "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learners' reasons for learning"; and Widodo and Pusporini (2010: 150), who add that needs analysis aims to "bridge a gap between insider's perspective/assumption and outsider's perspective/assumption."

3. Teaching Methods and Approaches

As we saw in the previous section, the moment of needs analysis is essential in English for Specific Purposes. We should reinforce that it doesn't analyse only the learners' academic, occupational or individual needs, but also the most appropriate teaching methods and approach for the student group.

Dudley-Evans (1998: 5) explains that “ESP is most effective when it makes use of the methodology that learners are familiar with in their educational studies or professional work”. In keeping with what was discussed above, he argues that there are three main aspects that differentiate English for Specific Purposes from English for General Purposes: needs analysis, the analysis of genres and language related to these needs, and the use of the best suited methodology for the class. These three factors were organized by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) in the following figure:

Figure 1 – Factor affecting ESP course design



(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:22)

Although the authors define English for Specific Purposes as a learner-centred approach, “what they mean is that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology” (Rahman, 2015: 26), but focuses on learners’ needs. Thus, every ESP teacher must be “well-trained in professional skills and flexible in approach in order to cope with the specific needs of his/her students” (Islam, 2011: 68).

English for Specific Purposes may be an approach to course design, but, regarding classroom teaching, ESP teachers should be able to choose the best teaching approach and methods based on their students' needs. This is why needs analysis is so important for ESP, it is responsible for the whole course planning.

According to Larsen-Freeman (2003: 8), “versatility allows teachers to deal more effectively with the unique constellation of students with whom they are working at any one time”. Therefore, we are going to describe some of the possible methods and approaches for teaching ESP.

3.1. Technique, Method and Approach

First, it is necessary to clarify the difference between technique, method and approach. There is a terminological confusion in the literature, and it goes back a long way. Anthony (1963) already noticed this problem in the past century and proposed a clear definition of the terms, which we present below:

The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach. [...] An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. [...] Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods. [...] A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well. (Anthony, 1963: 63-67)

Language teachers may apply various techniques and methods within one approach. Based on the audiolingual approach, for example, a teacher can opt for mimic and imitation methods and, within these methods, use the techniques of recorders and stereos, so that students can repeat structures and hear themselves.

Since the approach dimension is the broader one, the one that defines methods and techniques, we will focus on its description. There are four main language teaching approaches: the grammar-translation

approach; the audiolingual approach; the natural approach; and the communicative approach. While the grammar-translation approach wasn't theory-based, in the twentieth century linguistic and psychological theories were developed and, consequently, new methods of and approaches to language teaching emerged.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 1), "common to each method is the belief that the teaching practices it supports provide a more effective and theoretically sound basis for teaching than the methods that preceded it". Based on this statement, we can argue that all methods and approaches are valid and important. However, they do not have the same effectiveness in all contexts. Depending on the learners' specific purposes, some methods and approaches may be more appropriate than others.

Brown (2007: 48) explains that a new approach has emerged about every quarter of a century, "breaking from the old but at the same time taking with it some of the positive aspects of the previous [one]". While Marckwardt (1972: 5) saw these "changing winds and shifting sands" as a cyclical pattern, Mitchell and Vidal (2001) described it as the movement of a pendulum. This metaphor will become clearer soon when we define the characteristics of the four main approaches.

Though in the past century people believed that there was one best method or approach, nowadays we understand that none of them will be effective in all situations. As Brown argues (2007: 48), they are "too narrow and too constrictive to apply to a wide range of learners in an enormous number of situational contexts. There are no instant recipes. No quick and easy method is guaranteed to provide success". Since every student group and every context will be unique, teachers must ascertain their students' needs and, based on them, choose the best suited approach and methods.

3.2. The Approaches

Now that the terms method and approach were distinguished and we have stressed the importance of choosing them based on each specific context, we are going to consider the differences and similarities between the four main approaches identified above. We will discuss them in chronological order.

The oldest one is the grammar-translation approach. It was initially used to teach classical languages such as Latin. As the name already reveals, its main methods involve the translation of written texts and the grammatical analysis of sentences. It focuses on reading and writing skills, instructions are given in the students' native language, and grammar is

taught deductively. The teacher is the centre of the class and students play a passive role in the learning process.

During the Second World War, the audiolingual approach was developed. It was proposed by Bloomfield (1942) based on structuralism and behaviourism. While in the previous approach instructions were given in the students' native language, grammar was taught deductively and the focus was on reading and writing skills, this new approach focused on listening and speaking, grammar was taught inductively and instructions were given in the target language. Its main methods are mimicry and memorization, and it tried to prevent learners' errors. As with the grammar-translation approach, teachers' role is to transmit knowledge to students, but rather than translating written texts, students must repeat structures orally.

The third approach is the natural one. As with the audiolingual approach, only the target language is used in class, grammar is taught inductively, and the focus is first on listening and speaking skills. However, while in the previous approach students had to repeat structures, in this new approach they just speak when they feel ready to do so. This approach was proposed by Krashen and Terrel (1983) based on generativism and cognitivism, and it is called natural approach because the teaching method is also natural: learners should acquire a second language in the same way they have acquired their first one, that is, naturally.

Krashen and Terrel (1983) suggest five main hypotheses for second language acquisition: the acquisition-learning hypothesis; the monitor hypothesis; the input hypothesis; the affective filter hypothesis; and the natural order hypothesis. We will briefly define them.

The first one differentiates language learning, which is taught deductively, from language acquisition, which is taught inductively. According to this approach, second language acquisition must occur in the same way as first language acquisition: i.e., unconsciously. Therefore, teachers use the natural method: they only speak in the foreign language and wait until students naturally learn it, without repetitions or translations.

The second hypothesis suggests that every learner would have an internal monitor which corrects their own production in the target language. The third one says that teachers should expose their students to input in the target language which is comprehensible but also one step beyond learners' linguistic competence.

The fourth hypothesis proposes that learners have an affective filter, which may interfere in language acquisition if it is high. A high filter would mean a high level of anxiety, inhibition and insecurity. Finally, the

fifth hypothesis is about the existence of a natural order of language acquisition.

The last approach we are going to discuss is the communicative one. It was created in the late twentieth century, after Hymes (1972) wrote about the communicative competence as a reaction to Chomsky's distinction between linguistic competence and performance.

The communicative approach is based on functionalism and constructivism. According to Savignon and Berns (1984), Wilkins was one of the first contributors to this approach. It does not focus on one or two language skills but integrates them. Instructions are given in the target language, materials are authentic, and students are supposed to learn how to communicate fluently in real life situations through the communicative method, which is frequently applied in group activities.

Matamoros-González and other researchers (2017: 967) organized a table comparing seven features of the grammatical, audiolingual, natural and communicative approaches. The features compared were the theories that support each approach, the reason that motivated the creation of these approaches, the resources and techniques used for teaching a class using these approaches, as well as the role of teachers, students and the learners' mother tongue in the language teaching-learning process.

3.3. The Method

Now that we have defined the four main approaches and their homonymous methods, we are going to argue why there is no such thing as "the best" method or approach for all learners and situations. Before we defend our view, we would like to discuss Prabhu's arguments on why there is no best method.

Prabhu (1990) describes three possible arguments to support the claim that there is no best method. They are: it all depends on the teaching context; there is some truth to every method; and we need to rethink what "best" might mean.

The first one means that there is not one method or approach best suited to everyone but that different methods are better for different situations. Therefore, we would have to investigate what is the best approach and method for each context.

The second argument defends that different methods and approaches should be used in every context, because they are all helpful. Finally, the third argument suggests that, since there isn't as yet any adequate comparison of methods and their learning outcomes to enable a definition of "the best method", we should not discuss it. Instead, we

should discuss teachers' *sense of plausibility* to apply methods in real classrooms.

The author does not agree with the first two arguments. Prabhu argues that it would be too difficult to determine the best method for each context. However, this is exactly what English for Specific Purposes is about.

3.4. Considerations

As we have already discussed, English for Specific Purposes focuses on learners' needs. Thus, the whole course design is based on them, including the choice of the best suited teaching methods and approach. "The choice will depend on the professor's theoretical beliefs and the learners' needs. Although the professor would prefer to use the same approach in all cases, it may not serve for the group's aims" (Bruscato, 2019: 21).

ESP teachers should be able to put their personal preferences aside and use different methods and different approaches to meet students' needs. For example, the imitation method from the audiolingual approach may be necessary for speech therapy students who will one day need to teach foreign patients how to pronounce sounds correctly. On the other hand, the translation method, from the grammar-translation approach, may be important for anthropology students who will need to read and translate historical texts. For business students, the communicative method, from the communicative approach, is likely to be more effective as their occupation is based on communicating with stakeholders.

Our aim was to define the main teaching approaches and to justify why it is important for ESP teachers to analyse not only what, but also how to teach their students. All teachers want their students to learn, and, if they base their practice on learners' specific needs, they stand a better chance of achieving their goal.

4. Conclusions

In this paper, we have considered many aspects related to English for Specific Purposes. As we have seen, ESP is extremely important in today's world, because English is one of the most widely spoken languages around the globe and learners have specific needs, which may be academic, occupational or individual.

Since ESP teachers should base the design and planning of the language course on their students' needs, we must reflect on how to teach future ESP teachers. This paper was written based on the ESP teaching

module created for the VIR-teach project, and we have discussed ESP itself and how it is related to teaching methods and approaches.

Although some authors consider ESP a teaching method or approach in itself, we have seen that ESP teachers must be able to choose the best teaching methods (based on an approach) to their specific group of students. The content to be taught to each group will be different, and the methods to teach them should also be adapted based on students' needs.

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English for Specific Purposes in the Military Field

Ana-Maria CHISEGA-NEGRILĂ¹

Abstract. *English for Specific Purposes (ESP) came into being as an answer to the need to tailor English training to the growing demand of scientific and technical fields. As the businesses needed more people specialized in certain terminology in order to function and communicate with people from a more globalized world, the teaching of English has also become more specialized. The 60s marked the first steps to the movement of overseas students and workforce to English-speaking countries, which resulted in the increasing demand not only for Standard English, but also for a more specialized one. It became important that people learn a common language with vocabulary from science and technology they could use with their peers. In fact, ESP has developed over many decades and has produced more ramifications following the uprising of certain branches of science and technology. ESP prepares learners with vocabulary and structures that will enable them to communicate their ideas in the technical fields and is more learner-oriented than General English. However, it does not substitute, but refines General English, using most of the time teaching techniques and materials that are also used by the latter. This paper looks into the establishment of ESP, providing examples from the military field.*

Keywords: English for Specific Purposes; Methods and Approaches; Military Language.

1. Introduction

The 60s represented a turning point in many respects being marked by the increasing influence of oil-producing countries, by the increase in

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economic, politic and military relationships among countries, and by the establishment of new markets and new business opportunities. All these resulted in the need to have specialists from different countries working together and using a common language. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) emerged out of this need and started to be used in enterprises to facilitate communication for scientific and technical purposes. In time, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has become broader referring to English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Professional Purposes (EPP) which can further be parted in English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), English for medical studies, Business English, Technical English, Scientific English, English for medical professionals, English for waiters, English for tourism, English for the Military, etc.

2. ESP in Literature

ESP benefitted from a number of definitions that transformed themselves over the years together with the changes recorded by ESP. In fact, ESP as a concept did not change tremendously, but it broadened to a certain extent by engulfing other types of scientific language or jargon. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that “what distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need. Needs analysis is done to find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, to identify a gap between what learners are able to do and what they need to be able to do, to find out their previous experience in learning English.”¹

ESP courses benefit from a specific course design that is student-centered and should act flexibly so that any change registered by needs-assessment will be soon reflected in the goals and objectives of the course. J.D. Brown observed in 1995 after teaching a program in China that the proficiency level changes in time so the objectives also need to reflect this change.²

According to Evans (1997), ESP is designed to meet learners' specific needs and uses the activities that belong to disciplines and the

¹ Hutchinson, T., Waters, 1987 A. English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-centered Approach, CUP, Cambridge.

² Brown, J.D. 1995, The Elements of Language Curriculum A Systematic Approach to Program Development. Boston, MA Heinle & Heinle.

appropriate language for this purpose.¹ Other specialists (John Swales, 2014) consider that in the last decades the field of ESP has become both deeper and broader. This has been triggered by the changes in society, on the one hand, and, on the other, by the advancement in science and technology. Due to the rapid development of ESP, this phenomenon has benefitted from less research having “a few expert specialists at the top, followed by a large number of relatively unadventurous and underprepared practitioners” (Swales, 2014: 271), and even a number of others that have not been published or translated in English.²

3. Designing an ESP Course

Course design is an on-going process that is permanently based on the assessment of the needs. It requires thorough preparation and knowledge on the subject and on other elements such as: how students learn, what problems they may encounter and what may lead to their demotivation. However, it is a common practice that teachers will consider that a well-designed course has to function no matter what so it does not have to suffer alterations for a while. In practice, it has been noticed that each group of students comes with its own problems or ways of dealing with the taught materials. To make matters worse, many course designers have this view on courses considering that the outcome of a systematic and thus infallible attempt has covered all the imperfections of human touch and the problems that might arise during the course. As a result, not only may students become frustrated because they have to fit in a frame that was not designed for them, but also teachers will have difficulties in dealing with situations which were not covered by the initial design of the course.

According to Kethleen Greves, the design of an ESP course is not a linear one, but one which involves a lot of moving onwards and backwards and modifying the parts that do not seem to function. Even if the design of an ESP course has clear steps, Graves points out that there should be no hierarchy in the process and no sequence in accomplishing it³. The course has to be modified starting with any element be it needs assessment,

¹ Dudley-Evans, T. 1998. *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge University Press.

² Swales J.M. 2014. *Envoi*. In D.D. Belcher, A.M. Johns, B. Paltridge (eds.). *New Directions in English for Specific Purposes Research* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, pp. 271-74.

³ Graves K. 2000. *Designing Language Courses*, Heinle and Heinle Publishers, pp.3-4.

objectives, evaluation, etc., but still having in mind what the beneficiary has required and the content resulted from the needs assessment.

The steps to designing an ESP course are standardized beginning with needs assessment, establishing goals and objectives, developing materials, articulating belief, designing an assessment plan, but in a nutshell, it resumes to the following elements:

- Planning the course
- Teaching the course
- Modifying the course and
- Reteaching it (if necessary).

Planning an ESP course usually commences with the needs assessment which involves a number of participants from teachers, and beneficiaries, institutions or private individuals. Assessing the needs provides information about the students' needs and preferences assisting the teaching staff in making decisions about the design of the course. It also makes students participate actively in their learning by making them aware of the content of the course, its methods and materials. As a result, they should be more interested and motivated because they play a more important role in their education and their opinion is taken into account. Needs assessment is a continuous process as needs and preferences will change with a new course so adjustments will have to be made. The beneficiary, in case of institutions, will also require that some abilities and skills should be obtained after the course. In addition, the institution that organizes the course has to play an important part in the course design as it provides the location, the equipment, and the personnel.

Needs assessment is usually done prior to the course so that it will inform the decision-makers about the content of the course, goals and objectives, activities and materials used. However, it can be performed even in the first week of the course or later as it will provide valuable information about the particularities of that group of students attending that specific course. In this case, questionnaires are useful tools in gathering information about the future students and their needs. An example for a military ESP course questionnaire is provided below containing information about:

1. students (field, age and rank, background, nationality, etc.),
2. students' proficiency level in English according to STANAG 6001,
3. students' level of intercultural competence,
4. students' interest hobbies, and professional experience,
5. students' preferences in terms of class/group activities,

6. students' attitudes towards learning, target language, target culture, etc.
7. students' needs and expectations,
8. students' use of the target language (when and where they will use it),
9. students' skills that need to be developed to meet requirements of the beneficiary (listening, reading, speaking, writing).

The answers will tell the teachers who the students are, what they need to learn, how much it will take and what type of materials they are going to need.

Goals and objectives are an important part of course design as they help teachers to clarify some aspects of the course and to put the information together so that the course will function as a whole. Goals are general and show the purpose of the course and the expected results, while objectives are more detailed and show the teacher how to achieve the goals. There are only a few goals for each course, but there are more objectives that serve each of them. However, even if the goals are general, they should be clearly linked to the purpose of the course in order to be effective and they will not serve more than one course. Still, some objectives may cover more than one goal even if this is not customary as it may result in confusing students.

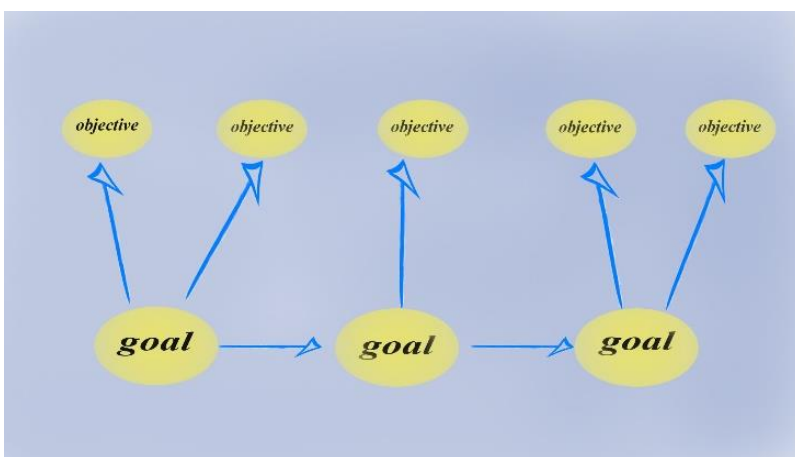


Fig. 1 Relationship between goals and objectives.

The next step to course design is the creation/selection of materials. Developing materials is the activity performed by the teachers to write lessons, units and any other materials that can be used during a course so that they will reflect its goals and objectives. As goals and objectives are

only theoretical, the materials will give a clear image of the course content. It is customary that a course will rely on a textbook that is selected from a list of available materials. However, in the case of ESP courses focused on military terminology, teachers will often find themselves short of materials as there are very few commercially produced ones to suit students' needs. There are no perfect textbooks that cover all students' needs and all the situations that will arise during classroom activities. Practice has shown that teachers will have to adapt the materials provided by a textbook in order to make them work for different groups since textbooks are designed based on ideal learners. In the case of military English courses, it is extremely difficult to write textbooks to suit such a large variety of needs. Military English courses are more of an umbrella than one course according to different criteria:

- students' proficiency level – military terminology requires at least intermediate level as it is technical language.
- students' skills – they may need to develop only one or two skills so the course has to be customized according to this.
- students' need for terminology and grammar – not only the proficiency level may be a problem, but also the fact that particular students may need access to different elements of language so a military terminology course will be more student-centered than others.

Teachers' main activity when it comes to materials is actually to adapt the ones provided by textbooks in order to meet the course objectives. As teachers usually have little time to develop materials, they will eventually rely on textbooks which can be useful partners if used in the right way. Basically, there are no completely useless textbooks, because teachers will eventually identify interesting activities that can be modified to suit their needs. Working with a textbook implies a numbers of activities:

- modifying activities so that they can focus on certain sub-skills and skills,
- supplementing the existing materials with others if the teacher considers that the materials from the textbook are not sufficient,
- eliminating the materials that do not meet the objectives, are confusing and need to be replaced with other activities,
- resequencing the materials so that they will serve the logical development of a particular course.

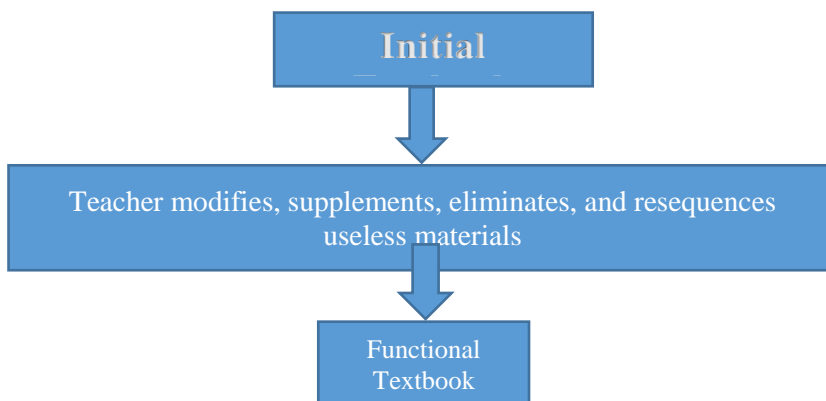


Fig. 2 Modifying materials.

As Military Terminology Textbooks are scarce, teachers will often supplement activities by adding more activities from various sources such as other textbooks or the Internet, modifying existing ones by combining them with others, eliminating some of the steps or replacing them. Textbooks can be modified at activity level by changing, supplementing and eliminating activities, but also at unit level, when the order of the activities is modified and the syllabus is adapted, and at book level when parts of the syllabus have changed, have been added or eliminated.

The next step of course design is articulating belief which refers to the choices the teachers make when teaching the course and taking into account students' needs, course goals and objectives and its purpose. After that, there will be necessary to design an assessment plan to evaluate students' proficiency level and the course itself. Assessment is formative when performed during the course and summative when performed at the end of the course. The course is also assessed as the teacher needs information about its effectiveness and eventually learn if and where to make the adjustments. If necessary, the whole process of course design can be modified starting with goals and objectives, but also with any other step. Courses need a comprehensive plan as well as a flexible teacher who will be able to adapt the design so that it will function for a specific group of students.

4. Conclusion

Then it comes to designing an ESP course, the teacher plays an important part as the one who possesses knowledge about the students, the

institution and the teaching methods, also being the one who designs goals and objectives. The result will be a number of goals, that are more general, and more specific objectives that are related to them. In order to fulfill the objectives of a course, the teacher uses materials provided by the institution, but also has the freedom to supplement them with other activities created for that purpose or selected from various sources (textbooks, the Internet, etc.). As any other field, teaching needs to be kept abreast with the latest developments and trends in terms of education and technology. As teaching involves people, ESP should also take into account students' needs and preferences, but also the restraints of the institution that organizes the course and the requirements of the beneficiary.

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English for Law Course Design. A Case Study

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Abstract. *The field of LSP encompasses certain domains that are characterized by very specific features that course designers have to carefully consider in order to achieve an appropriate balance between needs, constraints and stakeholders' expectations. One such field is that of English for Law, for which there are frequently major challenges to be met, such as: the existence of different legal systems at international level, hence different terminology being used in various places, with unavoidable fractures of meaning, as some terms may not cover the same realities, as well as a heterogeneous English language proficiency of the trainees at postgraduate level. Against such a background, and with a view to diminishing the constraints of time pressure, a case study depicting an innovative approach is given in the paper, presenting a three-layer modular flexible course. The three lines of action are represented by a selective input type of: (i) General English, (ii) Legal English in response to the students' needs, and (iii) further professional soft skills, specifically required by the organization under whose aegis the course takes place – in the educational context described here, viz. a post-graduate magistrate training organization. The main approach components and their rationale are discussed.*

Keywords: LSP; English for Law; Multilayer Approach; Case Study; Postgraduate Language Training.

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1. Paper background and aim

English for Law is a category belonging to a wider umbrella represented by ESP – English for Specific Purposes. In recent times, despite the economic recession of the last decade, the world has witnessed an increased use of English as the absolute *lingua franca* in most domains of human endeavour, under its generally acknowledged international variant, in a more and more globalized society.

It is, therefore, necessary, to redefine the main areas of scientific research interest in ESP, as an increasing number of students are involved in specialized training provided by either the employers, or indeed by (post)tertiary education level organizations.

How is such training designed and taught?! – this question is quite a complex one, with tentative answers to be found in the field literature, that aim to overcome constraints of the temporal type, variety of the trainees' backgrounds and the like.

The educational setting taken into consideration in this paper refers to an attempt to harmonize the *English for Law* three-level postgraduate courses provided to Law School graduates who are trained in order to become magistrates.

Briefly presented at this stage, several years ago the analysed context showed that there was no real *consistency* of content and methodological approach among the three existing levels: beginner (A2 – CEFR), intermediate (B1/2 - CEFR and advanced (B2/C1- CEFR) learners, as they were streamed as a result of a *placement test*.

Such a situation was conducive to a strongly resented, by the students, bias in terms of evaluation and weighting of the points cumulating in their final grades – and those really mattered for the final ranking of the trainees in view of getting employment.

As a possible solution to this problem, a *modular flexible approach* was designed by the author of this paper. It was presented to the group of teachers and the managerial group of stakeholders, and it was approved and implemented throughout three academic years.

The details of the approach are given in the third section below, but its main lines are presented here, to facilitate a better understanding of the principles underlying its design and implementation.

The need of creating a homogeneous view of the *English for Law* course in general, alongside its three levels, appeared as indeed necessary, basically as the graduates are supposed to cope with the same kind of challenges later, in their profession.

Therefore three *main components* were taken into account for the language modules, and a program of introducing them gradually in function of each group's needs, initial level and evolution was designed and applied by the instructors for each level. The components comprised:

- *General English* content – with a core syllabus taking into consideration the kind of structures frequently required in the field of law,
- *English for Law* proper – again, covering lexical, notional and functional areas of interest for the trainees, and
- *Soft skills* required for the trainees in order to further participate, in an efficient successful manner, in training activities having English as the medium of tuition, for instance: presentations, team working, negotiating, providing arguments etc.

The manner in which the three layers above were to be introduced and taught, as well as the timing of introducing the focus on each of the three in turn, were supposed to vary from a level to the other, with the teacher being the factor of decision, certainly on the basis of permanent feedback from the learners, as well as from the fellow teachers.

The centre of the approach is on developing *fluency*, of course without neglecting accuracy, and one important point of the proposal is *not* to turn the *English for Law* course at any level, for obvious reasons that will be discussed in what follows, into teaching vocabulary as its main objective. On the other hand, the approach is indeed quite close to the CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) model, blending language input and legal matters as content input.

A *case study* approach was preferred here, as it can provide a comprehensive context within which all the significant details of such an experience can be analysed, should fellow teachers in similar contexts decide to adopt some suggestions, certainly with the necessary amendments dictated by each situation profile.

2. ESP today – Revisiting Literature

As already emphasized above, ESP is definitely taking new directions, with the occurrence and omnipresence of the Internet as a tool for both the teachers and the students. Its influence is major, as it facilitates equal and fast access to information, enlarging the range of resources, it allows for individual study and so on.

The long way of ESP, from its first occurrence in 1972, when the term was coined by Dell Hymes, through the major work of Hutchinson and Waters in 1987, who actually designed the main framework of

principles underlying the concept, and up to our days, with additions of eclectic nature, has always been a matter of interest for teachers assuming the 'hat' of empirical researchers.

Thus, the literature abounds in new directions of research, mostly based on well justified observation in the scientific laboratory represented by the classroom of language itself.

Some significant directions are to be found in relatively recent Williams' work [5], with two main lines of interest for us in our enterprise presented in this study, namely:

- the attention given to the aspect of 'multimodality' in relation to ESP studies, which confirms once more the fact that the complexity of the phenomenon requires, and even invites, a plurifaceted approach, and
- the emphasis on the huge potential of CLIL, which in the case of *English for Law* becomes indeed crucial.

The role of foreign (English, in most cases!) language knowledge is a factor that can make the difference in today's world, as far as the professional development of the graduates is concerned. Hence, the role of universities in providing courses meant to develop the graduates' communication skills in this language.

However, as pointed out in the literature by Belyaeva [1], in many fields, foreign language university teachers may not possess the specialized lexical and/or specific knowledge expected and/or required from them in order to become successful ESP teachers. In such cases, it is the role of the instructor to decide upon the methodology and to selectively design the course syllabus.

We maintain that, in the case of *English for Law*, the demand is a really considerable one, as the specific issues that raise the level of challenge include the existence of different legal systems in the world, with different concepts and, mainly, different terminology to cover similar meaning – or not at all similar one, for that matter, and the examples can be found plenty!

On the other hand, with the new electronic means of information and communication, the level of English, even for low intermediate students, has considerably changed. Moreover, there are numerous resources ready to be accessed by any student of law – and their *motivation* to use them is indeed quite high, as knowledge of English can contribute to their career success.

Consequently, as advised in an online ESL Directory [2] that provides guidelines which the teachers should point to in order to develop the students' *autonomous* approach to the study of English, *practice* under all its forms should be encouraged. A pseudo real linguistic bath can

thus be created, we believe, with the learners reading daily, writing daily, going online and engaging in communication with their peers and/or instructors, in other words developing their skills in English, with major focus on fluency, but also with accuracy being more and more improved by extensive exposure.

The debate over the *priority* that should be given to fluency or to accuracy has been holding attention, with voices pro and con, bringing interesting arguments. A brief review is carried out in what follows, with Xhaferi and Xhaferi [6] pleading as early as 2011 in Albania in favour of the need to focus on *vocabulary* development as the main objective of an ESP course. Nobody should, of course, disregard the importance of *grammar* and *lexis*, as pointed in Riley [4].

We consider, though, that this might be true only for lower levels of proficiency in the cases of *Legal English* courses, given the fact that today, according to our own observations, the students at postgraduate level *do* know most of current terminology, as they have accessed it quite easily for study and/or work purposes, they have made use of dictionaries in the case of confusing terms, or they have simply taken over some terms in what has become an adapted form of the English term into Romanian – and examples are quite numerous in the legal terminology, as well as in many other domains!

Therefore, although even some of the trainees' expectations from a course as the one described here may be to be provided with long glossaries of legal terms in English, they should be made to understand that the *real objective* of such a course should be more complex and more useful to them, viz. to develop their *communicative competence in a fluent manner* in their domain of activity.

In this vein, a different solution, which we consider quite productive, is given by Lee [3], in a forum, where it is maintained that 'law can be learned based on ...the law itself', a valuable plea for authenticity, skills development and the like.

3. The Proposed Approach – Case Study Presentation and Rationale

The proposal of designing and teaching an *English for Law* course to the postgraduate trainees in the educational setting described in this study is presented as a *case study*, with several kinds of *research instruments* being created and used in order to collect both quantitative and qualitative types of data.

The *instruments* used and the *triangulated data* obtained on their bases at the various stages of the approach were the following:

- the *common core syllabus* for the three modules/levels, in terms of *General English* input, *English for Law* components and, finally, the *training needs soft skills* part. This was agreed upon by the group of teachers, with each of them then deciding what exactly to sample from the main list, in function of each group level and profile;
- the *syllabus selected for each level* by the teacher out of the common core one;
- the *sets of tasks* originally designed by the author of this study for her intermediate level groups, all based on authentic texts recommended by the institution management;
- the *scheduler* for each level of groups, beginner, intermediate and advanced students, comprising the manner in which the three components (*General English*, *English for Law* and *Training Workshops Soft Skills*) were to be introduced in the course, with different focus for each of them, in function of the students' level, their progress and so on;
- results for both *summative and formative assessment* forms;
- *feedback* emerging from *course evaluation forms* completed by the trainees;
- *classroom observation* and *staff meetings notes*.

Due to obvious space limitations, in this paper only the data collected for the *intermediate* groups, comprising 45 students, organized in three 15-student groups, will be presented and discussed as a set of puzzle pieces, which, if well organized and carefully analysed, may have good chances to provide quite objective evaluation elements of the proposed approach usefulness.

Thus, to begin with, the *students' profile* can reveal the following main features:

- they are all graduates of the various Law Schools in the country, most of them aged 25 – 30, with few exceptions of people who had already acted and acquired several years of work experience as lawyers or legal counsellors;
- in general, they complain of an almost total lack of English practice opportunities at the post-faculty level, and a good majority had not attached enough importance to the language courses in faculty, for various reasons, in general as they used to focus on the legal disciplines mainly;
- as a result of an initial placement test, they were grouped into the three above mentioned levels, in either English or French classes,

with a two- or three-week allowance for further ‘migration’ from a level to the other, should they consider it appropriate, and certainly with the approval of the respective teachers – in order to prevent any unfitting attempt to get a place in an inferior level group, in view of increasing their chances of getting a higher grade for less work. (As a necessary comment in this respect, mention should be made of the fact that the students had been given clear details, before the beginning of the language course, on the manner in which the points generating their grades were to be calculated, in an as objective and coherent manner as possible).

The students are quite aware of their language *needs*, given the fact that, as magistrates, there are not very high chances that they really use English in their daily activity. However, as they are also aware of the fact that professional development requirements will include participation in training workshops in English, both at national and international level, they are quite motivated (over 90%) to give an amount of their time and effort to this activity. Therefore, they are ready to try to increase their English language communicative competence in their field of activity.

The *contextual challenges* refer to the following main aspects:

- a rather limited amount of time given to the language course,
- the status of the discipline, which is definitely not equal to that of legal disciplines proper, although for some academic years the grades for both categories mattered to an equal extent in establishing the final ranking,
- a relatively heterogeneous background of the group members, in terms of number of years of language study, exposure to real life experiences in using English and so on, which the placement test manages to solve only to a certain extent,
- various pressures upon the trainees, as far as their learning time, autonomous learning strategies development, quite loaded curriculum and many others are concerned.

Against the described context, and in order to counteract some of the *limitations* in it, the *proposed approach* comprised the following layers for all the three group levels, but with different starting times, as well as different sampling of content and skills:

- an initial *General English* focus, however with as much an amount of legal English lexis as possible comprised in it, for all of them. As a necessary comment, the duration of this stage was to be longer for beginners, average long for intermediate students and, obviously, quite reduced for the advanced ones;
- this was to be gradually followed by a smooth passage to the *Legal English* component, with tasks based on authentic input from the

materials recommended by the management and considered as necessary in order to fulfil the students' main needs and expectations. Clearly, for each level the moment of passage was to be decided upon by the teacher, taking into account all forms of feedback collected - and the same was valid for the third level, as well, i.e. *soft skills for training workshops* in English.

The main *advantages* of the approach are discussed in what follows, not necessarily in a prioritized order. Firstly, the approach has a *flexible, modular* character, insofar as it allows feedback dictated amendments from case to case.

Then, the *methodological principles* underlying its design and teaching are consistent for all levels, comprising elements of ESP and CLIL, in an eclectic manner, that accommodates even more 'traditional' components such as dictation and translation, certainly based on well justified, from the pedagogical viewpoint, reasons.

The main focus is on developing *communicative competence*, but accuracy is allowed some remedial work, selectively carried out in function of the rather limitative time frame.

The *skills* are introduced in an *integrated* chained series of activities, which replicates the real life sequence, with receptive reading and listening at first, naturally followed by the productive skills of speaking and, finally, writing.

There is a definite *incline of difficulty* in terms of task requirements, which fosters communication, even in apparently minor lifelike situations. The students work alternatively as a whole class, individually and/or in pairs and groups. There is a smooth transition from controlled forms of activity towards more free ones, generally focused on *fluency* development, with clearly announced *grading criteria* for each of them.

The *forms of evaluation* comprise not only end-of-module written tests and seminar activity evaluation, but also a portfolio of mini-projects, group and/or individual work and the like, meant to allow the learners to study and solve homework at their own pace in a very busy time frame.

Some examples of the *task types* originally designed for the course are provided below, together with the key rationale underlying each of them. Thus, *problem solving* tasks – in order to develop the students' creativity, power of imagination and correlating skills, at text, paragraph, sentence and word level, are included. *Communication gaps* are created, in order to foster fluency. On the other hand, the course material also includes various forms of *awareness raising questions*, either for accuracy development, by revising grammar and lexis, or for refining style and register knowledge of the learners.

4. Open Conclusions

Some conclusive remarks will have to start from the mention of the fact that the entire approach is based on a clear *needs analysis* basis, and it is made known from the very beginning to both the trainees and the stakeholders.

The approach permits a *blend of focus on fluency and accuracy*, in function of the contextual features of each series of groups.

Feedback generated by the students was in general unexpectedly good, as the trainees seemed to permanently join the teacher in their common effort of building/amending/adapting the module together.

Flexibility is one of the keys in terms of the teacher's attitude, as there has always been a – more or less subtle – change of profile from generation of students to generation, and the model proposed allows for ongoing change.

The aim of getting the students to communicate freely at an acceptable level of accuracy was generally achieved, and the choice of not focusing on providing glossaries of legal terms, but rather on encouraging *communication* was fulfilled.

The proposal is meant as just an example of what a teacher can do in order to adapt an ESP course to the specific needs of the students in an educated manner; needless to say, it is hoped that such a model could be transferred to other educational settings, with the necessary amendments that any teacher will have to make.

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Comprehension Methods on Teaching Terms as Special Lexical Units of Terminology

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Abstract. *The current explosive development of science and technology, the increase of the inter-cultural changes and the great deal of knowledge acquired in different activity fields determined the emergence and development of terminology. We can notice an obvious and mutual relation between terminology and lexicography as all the described objects are identical but the conceptual field of the mentioned system is the specific object of terminology; lexicography studies the words functions and “conducts” in society. Regardless the professional activity field, all terminologies are made up of colloquial words and strictly specialized ones, the terms, which individualize every special language.*

Keywords: Terminology; Lexicography; Terms; Multiple Concept.

1. Introduction

The current explosive development of science and technology, the ever more intense the inter-cultural changes and the huge amount of knowledge in different activity fields determined the emergence and development of terminology.

The concept terminology has two meanings: the interdisciplinary branch of knowledge and the number of terms specific to various terminologies (specialized languages) providing knowledge in different fields of professional activity.

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2. Some Accounts on Terminology

Terminology is a language discipline that studies, analyzes and describes a specialized area of the dictionary, that is, **the term**. The goal of “serological” studies is to standardize the terms so that they are used uniformly. In addition, the naming “terminology” is often used for vocabulary from a particular scientific or technical field. The unique position of terminology among other language studies is connected to the fact that it is based on the knowledge of linguistics as well as on different non-linguistic disciplines, the vocabulary of which is being studied. Terminology can be described as being related to the knowledge of linguistics, especially lexicology, lexicography and morphology, in relation to the basic elements of a particular non-fictional science. To put it differently, a linguist dealing with a specific field of terminology must understand its structure and meaning from a linguistic point of view. Beyond that, it is also necessary to have at least one basic non-linguistic knowledge of the subject under study. This is why the information about terms and its description are present in dictionaries of terminology as well as in general dictionaries, dictionaries of foreign words and dictionaries of slangs.

Terminology encompasses all the special terms used in a science, art, technique or other human activity: Scientific / Technical / Medical / Legal / Linguistic. A science that studies their concepts and markings and the structure, formation, development, use and management of terminologies in various thematic fields.

Examination of terminology as a science was carried out, concerning the international standardized definitions of the basic concepts currently in force, the principles and methods applied and, more detailed, the principles of term formation (transparency, consistency, appropriateness, linguistic economy, derivability and compound ability, linguistic correctness, preference for native language) as well as the term formation mechanisms (creation of new forms, use of existing forms, translingual borrowing, the Analogue Rule of naming).

There are many different definitions of terminology, but for the same purposes, one of the simplest is enough: “a word system used to name objects in a specific field of expertise.” In short, terminology is a new specialized “language,” which consists of specific lexical units called “terms.”

Taking into account the fast and multi-folded advancements in science and technology nowadays, there should be also noted the

importance of terminology. Regardless of industry and specialization, proper use of terminology is quite imperative. The scientific significance of terminology is obvious, but there are many areas where it is applied, even unconsciously. For this reason, terminology management is one of the key priorities in the field of translation and students should know that.

Terminology is closely related to lexicography and this term refers to the science dealing with the structure and general structure of the dictionaries. As a science, lexicography is divided into two disciplines: theoretical and practical. The field of lexicography practice refers to the technique of writing the dictionary, while the theoretical branch deals with the analysis and description of the meanings, the way they are written and the examples given for the understanding of the terms. Essentially lexicography focuses on the design, compilation, use, and evaluation of the general dictionaries that describe the words.

Lexicography and terminology are two topical scientific branches which are in a complementary relationship. The discrepancy of the experts as to their delimitation and to the relevant competences of the scientists cultivate, is up to a point expected, since in each dynamic industry the limits are fluid and controversial. It is important to locate it, in its changing landscape of common terminology and lexicography. The collaboration of the lexicographer with the terminologist becomes more and more important today, regardless the fact that the innovative research and discoveries are made within the bounds of science, in critical contact points of the scientific disciplines.

Lexicography and terminology use traditionally different methods and ways of working, while lexicographers cover general and often special one's words, terminologists deal exclusively with specific thematic fields. All but the specific languages of the thematic fields together with the general language are the whole language. It is understandable that a close and useful cooperation is demanded. This can be done through the diffusion of the two sciences, in particular through communication channels (e.g. via the internet) and through the creation of common organizations and events.

For the students interested in the field of translations, there should be emphasized that cooperation between lexicographers and terminologists should be widened. Once the terms are not formed arbitrarily (in other words, they are created for specific purposes or based on their characteristic concepts from which they are labeled), terminologists generally need the methodology of lexicography products and much more the same lexicographic products, which are the main sources of pumping those particular linguistic elements that will be used to create terms. And, conversely, lexicographers need the help of

terminology for fast and, more often than not, the development of dictionaries; in principle general dictionaries; particularly in the part where they cover special conditions widely disseminated in the general language, but much more specialized dictionaries, for their writing which is necessary to study and reference to its overall system of concepts each specific thematic field.

3. On Terms as Specialized Lexical Units

The term is a basic unit of terminology in the system of concepts of a scientific or technical discipline. There are some typical features of the term, which differentiate it from a colloquial word. They include clarity, accuracy, stability, word formation potential and lack of emotionality. These characteristics of the term are considered ideal, since they are not always present in all terms. As far as clarity is concerned, the term should refer to only one meaning. Therefore, it is more appropriate to talk about relative clarity if the term is clear in its field, not necessarily in the entire dictionary of a particular language. Secondly, accuracy means that the concept must reflect precisely its content. Therefore, important features of the concept should be taken into account when creating a new term. However, it is not always possible to include all the features in a term. In order to compensate for this limitation, they are synonymous with terminology, which, however, failing to meet the terminological requirement of a term for a concept. In addition, if the terms are to be fulfilled, they must be stable. They are therefore standardized and encoded. Despite this, the terms change as knowledge is broadened in a particular science.

The terms are specialized words and they can take any form from simple and complex words to complete phrases. Moreover, they may take the form of an acronym or an abbreviation. They may be related to products, services, technologies, processes, applications, materials, or used as alternative modes of expression in specific disciplines. In short, if a word or phrase describes something accurately and in a way that does not allow ambiguity, then it can be considered a term. It is also worth noting that a term widely used in a field may have different meanings or other meanings in another. There are also cases where the term does not make sense if used outside the natural environment.

The special terminologies specific to a professional activity or to certain fields like science and technique, philosophy, informatics, economy, arts have particular terms and rules to word the linguistic statement.

In the table below there are exemplified the concepts of the terms in general.

3.1. Main Examples of Multiple Concepts of “Term”

term (noun)	(word or phrase) word or phrase with special content, which is used in a specific field of science, art etc. ,used to describe a thing or to express an idea, especially in a particular language or field of study. <i>The term ‘basket case’ has an interesting origin.</i>
term (noun)	(part of the school year) <i>She enrolled in five classes for the spring term</i>
term (noun)	(prison) <i>The thief was sentenced to a four-year term of imprisonment.</i>
term (noun)	(tenure) <i>The president serves a four-year term.</i>
terms (noun plural)	(relationship) <i>I heard that they are not dating any more. Are they still on friendly terms?</i>
terms (noun plural)	(legal conditions or rules) <i>It all depends on the terms of the contract. Is there a warranty?</i>
term (noun)	(full pregnancy) <i>She carried the baby to term, and it was born healthy</i>
term (noun)	(mathematics: part of an equation) <i>The first term is unknown and denoted by an ‘x’.</i>
term (noun)	(mathematics: part of a series)

	<i>The first four terms of this geometric series are 1, 2, 4, 8.</i>
term (verb)	(express something) <i>It all depends on how you want to term it. Is it cheap or is it inexpensive?</i>

3.2. Complex Types of Terms

common term (noun)	(everyday word for [something])
common term (noun)	(mathematics- shared item)
four-year term (noun)	(official period of four years) <i>In the United States the President serves a four-year term.</i>
full term (noun)	(completion)
full-term (adjective)	(complete) <i>John F. Kennedy was not a full-term president as he was assassinated after less than three years in office.</i>
half-term (noun)	(school, etc.: mid-trimester break) <i>We're planning to spend a few days in Wales during half term.</i>
in the long-term (adverb)	(over an extended time in the future) <i>The investment in new machinery will cost a lot of money, but will be worthwhile in the long term.</i>
in the short-term (adverb)	(temporarily, for a brief time in the future)
long term (adjective)	(extended, over a long time) <i>How can I improve my long-term memory? Luckily the condition is not long term.</i>
long term care (noun)	(continuing help and attention)
long term damage (noun)	(harm extending into the future)
long term effect (noun)	(impact extending into the future)
long term memory (noun)	(permanent recall of facts) <i>My long-term memory is fine, but I have no idea what I did this morning.</i>
long term strategy (noun)	(extensive scheme or plan)

medium-term as (adjective)	(finances: of bonds, etc.) <i>These bonds are medium term and have an average maturity of 4.5 years.</i>
mid-term (adjective)	(during term) <i>The results of the mid-term vote surprised everyone.</i>
new term (noun)	(school, college: new trimester) <i>The children are all ready for the new school term</i>
prison term (noun)	(period of imprisonment) <i>She's serving a six-month prison term for assaulting her landlord.</i>
prison term (noun)	(punishment: prison sentence) <i>The judge sentenced him to a long prison term.</i>
set term (noun)	(fixed period) <i>Board members are elected for a set term of two years. Home mortgage loans are payable over a set term, usually fifteen or thirty years.</i>
set terms (Verb Tense Review + noun)	(establish conditions) <i>We weren't in a position to set terms so had to go along with what they decided.</i>
short-term (adjective)	(temporary, not long-lasting) <i>My short-term educational goal is to graduate college</i>
short term memory (noun)	(capacity for recall over a brief period) <i>His short-term memory began to fail when he reached 80 years of age.</i>
summer term (noun)	(school trimester from spring to summer)

4. Conclusios

The terminology, which has been “diffused” in everyday language, leaves a lot of room for the cooperation between the terminologist and the lexicographer, who ought to observe and record these dynamic linguistic developments. It is not simply a matter of “scientification”, but of the

dynamic presence of scientific language and of specialized terms in the individual's everyday life in the modern globalized society.

Terminologies represent a strictly specialized vocabulary, the amount of special words used by sciences, arts, research and all the professions as well as by scientists. As compared to the casual vocabulary, terminologies are relatively closed since very accurate knowledge in a certain field is sent through terms. Terminology is wholly integrated in linguistic structures and aims at finding perfect correspondences between conceptualization and the language system entailed by communication.

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The Communicative Status of Paronyms in Medical English for Academic Purposes

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Abstract. *The article examines the role of paronyms in Medical English for Academic Purposes. The authors developed the classification of paronyms in English medical terminology, which is designed to minimize the difficulties that may arise while using special terminology in the process of professional communication, as well as to expand active and passive vocabulary of undergraduates, PhD students and academic staff at medical universities. The study of the phenomenon of paronymy plays an important role in the development of terminological competence of specialists in the field of medicine and health care. The proposed approach is aimed at developing the communication skills necessary for successful international communication and cooperation.*

Keywords: Paronyms; English for Professional Purposes; Academic Staff; PhD Students.

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1. Introduction

Rapid development of integration processes necessitates placing more emphasis on teaching academic grammar and lexis, which will enable undergraduates, PhD students and academic staff to produce the English-language written discourse of competitive quality. Therefore, one of the most relevant tasks of teaching English for Professional Purposes is the study of potential writing challenges with a view to improve the academic writing skills. Paronyms are defined as words with similar sounding and a partial coincidence of morphemic composition (Bieliaieva et al. 2017). These lexical units are frequently found in specialized languages, and the language of medicine is no exception (Lysanets et al. 2018). Medical communication in an English-speaking setting can be often impeded by a range of translation and intercultural challenges (Bieliaieva et al. 2018; Lysanets and Bieliaieva 2018). Therefore, it is highly important to be aware of such potential difficulties. The objectives of our research are (1) to examine the prevalence of paronyms in the English sublanguage of medicine and healthcare, (2) to describe the major challenges which medical students may face in the process of mastering these lexical units, and (3) to develop their classification in order to eliminate mistakes and to avoid possible misunderstanding. The study of paronyms in the English sublanguage of medicine and healthcare is important for developing guidelines when writing research papers and case reports, to ensure the doctor's effective communication with patients and other medical professionals. Our research will be useful for translation studies, teaching English as a second language, and developing multilingual competence of doctors.

2. Demonstration

The research has demonstrated a number of paronyms which can be encountered in foreign-language medical and dental settings (Bieliaiev et al. 2018). We suggest the following classification of these lexical units: 1) paronyms in anatomical and histological terminology; 2) paronyms in clinical terminology; 3) paronyms with eponymic component; 4) intersystem paronyms. The results of the research have been integrated into the 1st edition of *Medical English for Academic Purposes* by Yu. Lysanets, O. Bieliaieva, M. Melaschenko (2018) (Lysanets et al. 2018), which focuses on improving the communication skills of medical professionals. Let us consider the subgroups of paronyms in detail.

The subgroup of paronyms in anatomical and histological terminology is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Paronyms in anatomical and histological terminology

<p>afferent neurons (convey the sensory stimulus to the brain, the efferent neurons)</p> <p>apophysis (a projecting part of a bone)</p>	<p>efferent (convey the motor stimulus to the muscles)</p> <p>epiphysis (the end of a long bone, usually wider than the long portion of the bone, either composed of cartilage or separated from the shaft by a disk of cartilage)</p>
<p>callus (noun)</p>	<p>callous (adjective)</p>
<p>humeral (pertaining to the humerus bone)</p>	<p>humoral (referring to a body fluid (such as a hormone)</p>
<p>ileum (the gut)</p>	<p>ilium (the bone)</p>
<p>mucus (noun)</p>	<p>mucous (adjective)</p>
<p>osteal (bony (osseous))</p>	<p>ostial (pertaining to an ostium or os (an opening)</p>
<p>perineal (pertaining to groin)</p>	<p>peroneal (pertaining to fibula)</p>
<p>pleural (refers to the pleura, the serous membrane lining each half of the thorax)</p>	<p>plural (more than one)</p>
<p>prostate (the prostate gland)</p>	<p>prostrate (lying prone)</p>
<p>vesicle (noun)</p>	<p>vesical (adjective)</p>
<p>villose, villous (shaggy with soft hairs; covered with villi)</p>	<p>villus (plural is villi: small vascular protrusion, particularly a protrusion from the surface of a membrane)</p>
<p>viscous (characterized by viscosity)</p>	<p>viscus (internal organ; singular form of viscera)</p>

Table 2 represents paronyms in clinical terminology.

Table 2

Paronyms in clinical terminology

<p>enuresis (inability to control urination)</p> <p>exacerbate (to increase the severity, bitterness, or violence of (disease, ill feeling, etc.))</p> <p>palpation (the act of feeling with the fingers)</p> <p>regime (a form of government)</p> <p>scatoma (a tumor-like mass in the rectum formed by an accumulation of fecal material)</p>	<p>anuresis (retention of urine in the urinary bladder)</p> <p>exasperate (to irritate; to annoy greatly; to make very angry or impatient)</p> <p>palpitation (the subjective feeling of an irregular or abnormally rapid heartbeat)</p> <p>regimen (a systematic approach to diet, medicine, or exercise)</p> <p>scotoma (an area of depressed vision; a dark or blind spot in the visual field, which is surrounded by an area of more normal vision).</p>
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Paronyms with eponymic component also constitute an important subgroup (Bieliaieva et al. 2017; Lysanets and Havrylieva 2017) (Table 3).

Table 3

Paronyms with eponymic component

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Meigs’ syndrome (ovarian fibroma with ascites and pleural effusion), Meige’s syndrome (blepharospasm with oromandibular dystonia) and Meige’s disease (lymphoedema praecox); – Meniere’s disease (cochlear hydrops) and Menetrier’s disease (hyperplastic hypersecretory gastrophyl); – Wermer’s syndrome (multiple endocrine neoplasms, type 1) and Werner’s syndrome (hereditary premature aging). |
|---|

The subgroup of intersystem paronyms is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

The subgroup of intersystem paronyms

- **access** (admittance) and **excess** (the degree or state of surplus, or beyond the usual);
- **allude** (to make indirect reference) and **elude** (to avoid);
- **appose** (to set one thing beside the other) and **oppose** (to be on the opposite side of an argument/debate);
- **apposition** (setting of one thing beside the other, as in suturing wounds) and **opposition** (act of being opposite).
- **complimentary / complementary: complimentary** – a) given as a free gift; b) favourable (expressing a compliment); **complementary** – a) fits/goes with/matches something; b) alternative (other acceptable therapy)
- **elicit** (to draw out) and **illicit** (unlawful, improper, not permitted);
- **ensure** (to make certain of) and **insure** (to guarantee protection; used mostly in a monetary sense);
- **perfuse** (to cause to flow or spread) and **profuse** (lavish, extravagant, bountiful);
- **principal** (the most important; the chief) and **principle** (a law or rule);
- **while / whilst**: Most Br and US English speakers use **while** and **whilst** in the opposite way: **Br**: “**While**” introduces or differentiates between two (or more) events happening at the same time. While the surgeon was making the incision, the anaesthetist was monitoring the patient’s vital signs. **US English** uses “**whilst**” for this situation. **Br**: “**Whilst**” introduces a “contrast” between two events, things etc.: Patient 1 experienced complete wound healing during the 4-week test period, whilst Patient 2’s wounds healed 24 days after the 4-week test period. **US English** uses “**while**” for this situation.

It is also necessary to draw attention to common mistakes in such words as **sagittal** (NOT *saggital*); **tonsil** (NOT *tonsill*), but **tonsillectomy** (NOT *tonsilectomy*); **occur** – **occurring** – **occurrence**; **persistent** (NOT *persistant*); **indispensable** (NOT *indispensible*).

3. Examples of Sample Tasks

We developed the linguo-didactic mechanisms for organizing the training material and delivering the course of Medical English for Academic Purposes. The proposed system of training tasks is intended to support courses in professional English for undergraduates, PhD students and academic staff at higher medical educational institutions. Sample tasks:

Ex. 1. Read the words, pay attention to their similarity in sounding and explain the difference in meaning:

- **ileum** and **ilium**
- **mucus** and **mucous**
- **osteal** and **ostial**;
- **perineal** and **peroneal**;
- **pleural** and **plural**;
- **prostate** and **prostrate**;
- **vesicle** and **vesical**.

The didactic purpose of the task: assessment of the level of mastering the lexical meaning of paronyms.

Ex. 2. Write down the paronyms with eponymic component. Arrange the terms into paronymic pairs:

- 1) ovarian fibroma with ascites and pleural effusion:

2) multiple endocrine neoplasms, type 1: _____

- 3) blepharospasm with oromandibular dystonia:

4) hereditary premature aging:

5) cochlear hydrops: _____

6) hyperplastic hypersecretory gastrophylia: _____

7) lymphoedema praecox: _____

The didactic purpose of the task: to review and draw attention to paronyms with eponymic component.

Ex. 3. Write down the clinical terms which apply to the following definitions. Arrange the terms into paronymic pairs, where appropriate:

- 1) retention of urine in the urinary bladder:

- 2) to increase the severity, bitterness, or violence of (disease, ill feeling, etc.) : _____
- 3) the subjective feeling of an irregular or abnormally rapid heartbeat: _____
- 4) a systematic approach to diet, medicine, or exercise:

- 5) inability to control urination: _____
- 6) the act of feeling with the fingers:

- 7) to irritate; to annoy greatly; to make very angry or impatient:

- 8) an area of depressed vision; a dark or blind spot in the visual field, which is surrounded by an area of more normal vision:

The didactic purpose of the task: to review and draw attention to clinical terms that are similar in sounding.

Ex. 4. Using the lexical units from Table 4, write a letter of patient's referral to your colleague.

The didactic purposes of the task: a) checking the level of mastering the graphic form of terminological paronyms and spelling skills; b) control of the level of mastering the morphological features of terms.

Yet another effective activity is the *Kahoot!* Quiz as a formative assessment tool. The lexical units for the quiz, i.e., the cases of correct and wrong spelling of paronyms, were taken from the PubMed database, published within the last three years:

Question 1 - True or False

This is the correct word usage: "...examination revealed no mucus membranes involvement"

Question 2 - True or False

This is the correct word usage: "The researcher wanted to illicit information from patients"

Question 3 - True or False

This is the correct word usage: "Open left humoral fracture could not be corrected"

Question 4 - True or False

This is the correct word usage: “Her vessels started to perfuse again”

Question 5 - True or False

This is the correct word usage: “We tested the sufficiency of pedal pulses after clamping her peroneal artery”

Question 6 - True or False

This is the correct word usage: “Amyotrophy remained the principle feature of his disease”

Question 7 - True or False

This is the correct word usage: “perfuse sweating after intense exercise”

Question 8 - True or False

This is the correct word usage: “palpitation, percussion, auscultation of the abdomen”

Question 9 - True or False

This is the correct word spelling: “isolated sagittal synostosis”

Question 10 - True or False

This is the correct word spelling: “Hypertrophy of palatine tonsils”

Question 11 - True or False

This is the correct word spelling: “Premature ovarian failure is a common occurrence”

Question 12 - True or False

This is the correct word spelling: “Meticulous attention is indispensable”

Question 13 - True or False

This is the correct word spelling: “...tissue homogenates were analyzed by Western blot”

Question 14 - True or False

This is the correct word spelling: “Persistant biliary fistula”

Question 15 - True or False

This is the correct word spelling: “An emergency tonsillectomy should be performed”

The didactic purposes of the task: a) checking the level of mastering the graphic form of terminological paronyms and spelling skills; b) control of the level of mastering the morphological features of terms; c) developing the ability to use correct terms depending on the context; d) developing understanding of the modern medical English discourse as exemplified by the PubMed database.

4. Conclusions

Thus, the suggested classification is expected to facilitate the process of mastering paronyms in medical English. This list is by no means exhaustive – it stipulates further development and elaboration. As one can easily observe, it is essential to remember the correct spelling of each lexical unit in order to avoid misunderstanding. It is highly important to be familiar with medical paronyms which can be met in the clinical setting in order to be ready to work in a foreign language professional environment. Thus, targeted and methodically thought-out work with paronyms at higher medical educational institutions is one of the effective ways of forming the terminological competence of undergraduates, PhD students and academic staff in the field of medicine and healthcare, which promotes the expansion and enrichment of the professional lexicon, provides practical implementation of interdisciplinary and cross-curriculum connections in the learning process. The prospects for research are in further in-depth study of the phenomenon of paronymy in sublanguage of medicine, as well as in the comprehensive study of other lexical and semantic relations, the practical result of which will be the development of Latin medical dictionary of synonyms, homonyms, and paronyms.

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Teaching Methods & Cultural Perceptions
Didactic Renewal and
Adaption for the 21st Century

The European Perception of Foreign Language Teacher Training. Findings on a Survey in 13 Countries¹

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Abstract. *Rapid changes in society, increase in teacher mobility, and digitalisation of training formats motivate an updated reading of current teacher training in foreign languages in Europe. Under the frame of the Erasmus+ Project VIRTEACH, a survey was tailored and disseminated among the different stakeholders within the field of language teaching in order to collect comparative data. Over 500 responses from 13 European countries define the current state of foreign language teacher training and suggest lines for improvement of methodological approaches, materials and resources. Among others, internationalisation and intercultural communication, digitalisation, and gender balance stand out as sensitive issues that require improvement.*

Keywords: Teacher Training; Foreign Languages; Europe.

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1. Introduction

Mobility has been a key and central concept for the Bologna Process (Zgaga, 2008). Labour mobility of the teaching and learning community within the European borders is in continuous growth, a fact well documented by Official European reports (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015: 12-13). Several factors contribute to this situation, namely, a constant increase in opportunities for university study abroad, combined with the increasing internationalisation of teacher training (Martínez Rodríguez, 2004: 238-240), and a static labour market resulting from consecutive years of economic crisis (ET2020, 2015: 10-11). Alongside, mobility entails the implementation of information and communication technologies (ICT) that facilitate communication across linguistic and cultural borders, and dissemination of and access to information (Schratz 2010).

However, so far, despite this dynamic reality, there is no unified format for teacher training at a European level, as national agencies tend to work in each country separately. In general terms, Initial Teacher Education (hereinafter ITE) in Europe, suffers from an excessively local projection that limits the future teaching practice exercise of teacher students beyond their borders. Therefore, when graduated students and senior teachers develop their teaching practice abroad, they suffer the absence of curricula convergence. A more unified and coherent set of principles shared in the teacher training programmes of the different European countries, particularly in terms of curricular content and experiences of internships, becomes urgent.

In the light of these evidences, the Erasmus+ VIRTEACH project, A VIRTual Solution for a comprehensive and coordinated training for foreign language TEACHERs in Europe,¹ seeks to create a digital tool to improve the postgraduate certificates on Masters on Education (Foreign Languages), and to provide teachers, researchers, student teachers and policy-makers with open-source tools and resources.

One of the first steps taken during the project was the design of a survey to detect current weak aspects regarding language teacher training, and to single out positive measures for the advancement of foreign language teacher education in Europe. This device would allow collection of comparative data, detection of critical issues in the training of foreign language teachers, and selection of methodological approaches, materials and resources for further implementation. In this article, we present the

¹ For more information on the VIRTEACH Project, please visit www.virteachproject.eu

nature of the consultation, discuss its results, draw up conclusions on the current situation of foreign language teacher training in Europe and suggest improvements.

2. Demonstration

For data collection within the frame of the VIRTEACH Erasmus+ project prior consultation was conceived as a necessary step to assess the current situation of foreign language teacher training in the European context. For this purpose, an online survey was designed and subsequently distributed among a diverse group of stakeholders. The target group included three distinctive profiles: teacher students and graduated as a teachers of foreign languages, foreign language teachers, researchers at secondary or high schools, language schools and universities, and education policy makers and public administrators. Depending on the chosen status of the survey participants, the consultation addressed appropriate issues.

The survey was launched in November 2019 and was open for 3 weeks. It reached a total of 508 participants from different gender, ages, countries of residence and profiles, which ensured the heterogeneity of the sample.

The proportion of female respondents (84,9%) was significantly higher than that of male participants (14,6%). Significantly, most of the male respondents belonged to the students' group (See Fig. 1). The average age of participants ranged from 39 to 58 years old, followed by the group ranging 29 to 38 years old (See Fig. 2).

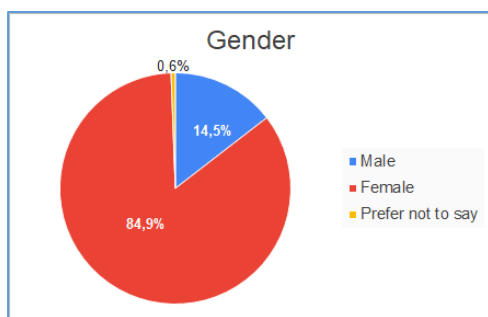


Fig. 1. Gender distribution

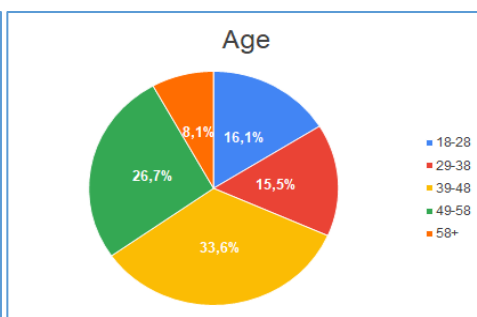


Fig. 2. Age distribution

With respect to the countries of residence of the participants, it is essential to bear in mind that VIRTEACH is an international project that counts with the collaboration of partners from five European countries, namely Portugal, Spain, Romania, Poland and Belgium. Hence, the countries of residence of the participants were closely related to this fact, with 42% of

respondents living in Portugal, 26,5% from Spain, 12,0% from Romania, 10,6% from Poland and 5,7% from Belgium. Other countries of residence such as Finland, Iceland, Germany and Turkey, also participated in the survey but with a much smaller percentage (less than 4% in total) (See Fig. 3).

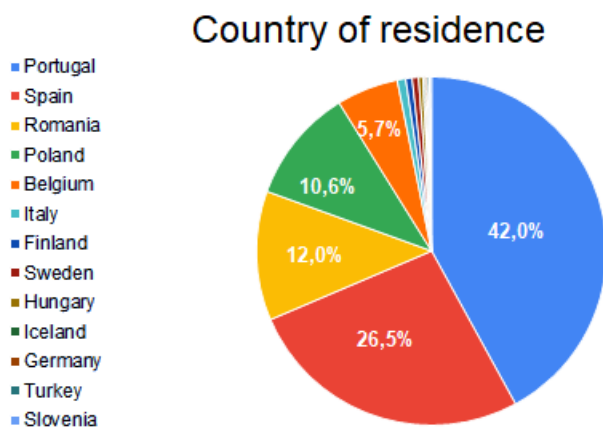


Fig. 3. Country of residence distribution

Finally, the survey sought to reach the diverse population that gathers under the foreign language teaching field umbrella. Hence, the participants were asked to identify their current status. The sample was formed by a majority of teachers of foreign languages (67%). Only one fourth of the respondents were teacher students (29%). Among them, almost three thirds (68,2%) held a Bachelor’s degree as foreign language teaching and over one third (31,8%) held a Master’s degree in foreign language teaching. Finally, only 4,3% of respondents identified themselves as policy makers (See Fig. 4).

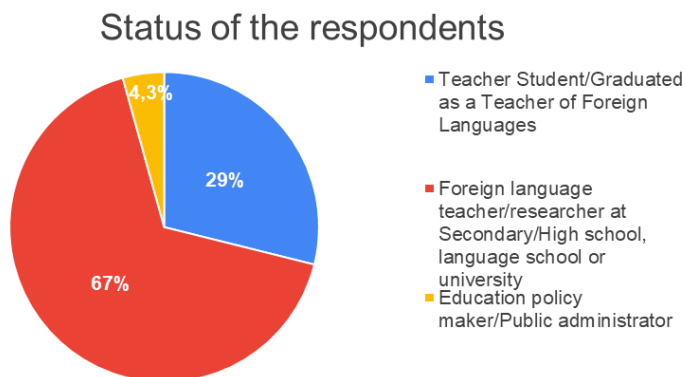


Fig. 4. Status of the respondents

Once these general data were collected, the survey split according to the different status previously selected. Detailed responses given by the different stakeholders can be found in the following sections.

2.1. Perception of foreign language teacher training among teacher students and graduates.

To start with, participants were asked about their motivations to become teachers of foreign languages. Loving languages (72,3%) and teaching vocation (59,5%) were the most selected options. At the other end of the scale were salary and the status of the profession with 11,5% and 5,4% of votes respectively.

Then, they were asked about the social perception of the teaching profession in their countries of residence. Respondents chose the following options: a specialised job (27%), an attractive career (24,3%), and a prestigious occupation (12,8%). Alongside, 25% indicated that teaching is perceived as an easy job, which matches with 24,3% of the respondents who selected the option “a job anybody can do”. Added to this, 23% selected the option “a woman’s job” and only 0,7% chose the option “a man’s job”.

The survey also sought to analyse the contents of the training received. When asked about the degree of satisfaction with the training they have received to become teachers of a foreign languages, the vast majority of the participants affirmed to be satisfied (40,8%) or very satisfied (32%) (See Fig. 5).

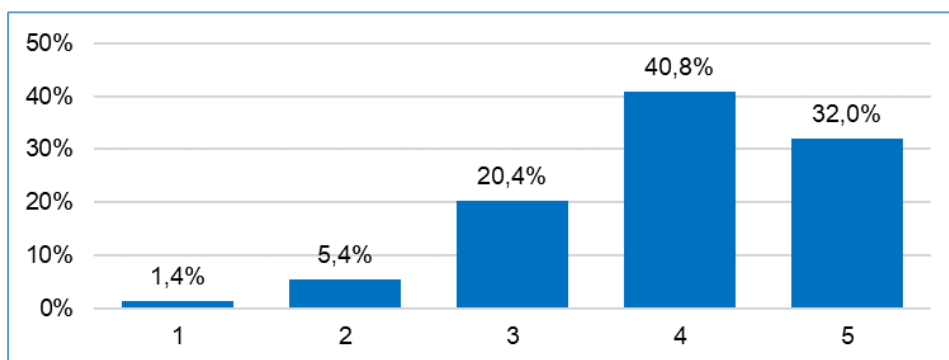


Fig. 5. Degree of satisfaction with the training you have received

Despite these positive results, the participants also provided qualitative rating for improvement in the training received. A more communicative approach, basic contents on pedagogy and language skills, and practical workshops on innovative methods were the prioritized items. On the contrary, issues such as information about the labour market and competitions to join the public sector, and knowledge about other European education systems were not seen as important.

Equally, participants were asked to rate a range of options to improve their guided teaching practice as novice teachers. “Freedom to implement activities and methodologies” and “An online system to connect student, school mentor and university tutor”, as well as “Time/space to exchange in-service experiences among teacher students”, were the most commonly selected options.

In this line of thought, according to students’ opinions, training programmes for foreign language teachers would improve with international exchange programs and financial support to visit schools abroad, a stronger support on the part of schools, and more visits of scholars and experts in the classroom, as well as more training on intercultural skills and digital tools.

When participants were asked about the idea of a European Master’s degree for teachers of foreign languages, responses showed a good reception.

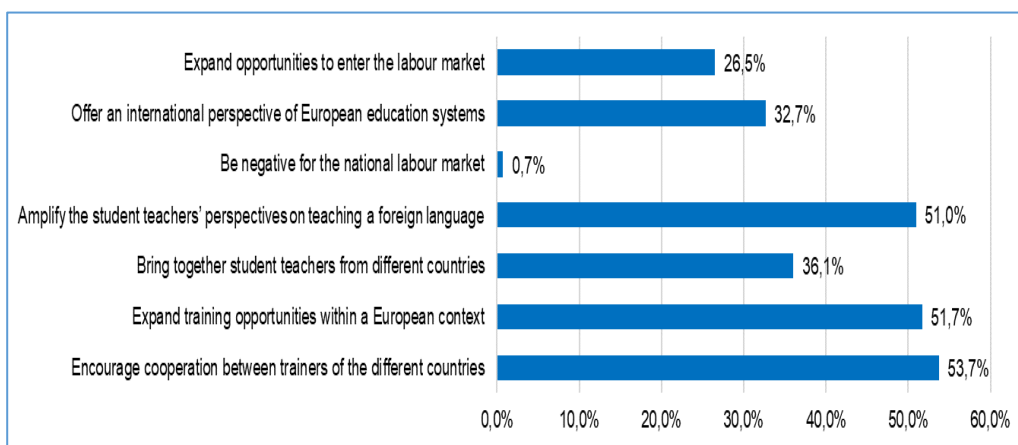


Fig. 6. Positive effects of a European Master’s Degree for Teachers of Foreign Languages

As figure 6 illustrates, a European Master’s degree would encourage cooperation between trainers from different cultures (53,7%), expand training opportunities (51,7%), and amplify students’ perspectives on

teaching a foreign language. Only 0,7% of the participants considered it negative for the labour market.

2.2. Perception of the Foreign Language Teacher Training on Foreign Language Teacher/Researcher at Secondary/High School, Language School or Universities.

Due to the varied forms of the foreign language teaching profession, participants were asked to select their working environment. As a result, the sample showed a majority of secondary or high school foreign language teachers, (51,5%), followed by those working at a university (35,9%) and in a language school (12,6%) (See Fig. 7).

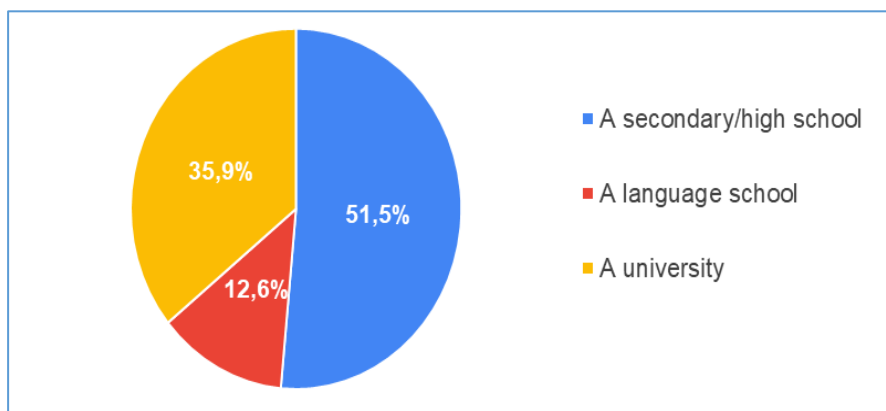


Fig. 7. Foreign language teacher distribution

In terms of professional experience, the vast majority selected a teaching experience of more than 11 years (79,1%), leaving only 11,6% with less than 5 years of working experience.

As in the case of teacher students and graduate students, their main motivations to become teachers or foreign languages were a teaching vocation (68,3%) and love for languages (73,0%), with economic reasons being relegated to the least important aspects on the list (0,9%).

Equally, when expressing the social perception of their profession in their countries of residence, the respondents selected the following options in order of preference: “It is a job that anybody can do” (33,1%), and “It is an easy job” (28,2%), but at the same time, they also affirmed that teaching is considered an essential profession for society (21,2%). Following previous trends, the choice “It is a women’s job” received a

significant amount of votes (21,8%), while no respondent voted for teaching as “a men’s job”.

When asked to select three measures to improve the social perception of the teaching profession, two options stood out above the rest, namely investment in teachers’ training (82,9%), and increase of teachers’ salary (68,8%). Other well received options were to implement a more rigorous procedure of teacher selection (43,2%), to extend initial teacher training (34,1%), and to reduce teachers’ working hours in the classroom (32,4%) (See Fig. 8).

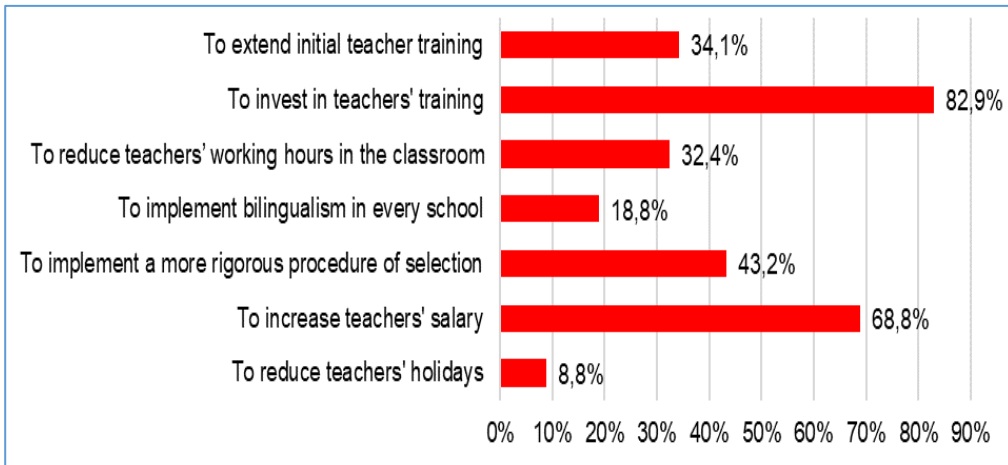


Fig. 8. Selected measures to improve social perception of the teaching profession

Most of the respondents in this group had experience in mentoring teacher students. In this respect, a significant amount of participants (58,7%) considered mentorship an important phase for teacher training, with 31,1% of respondents claiming its positive effect on all parties. Accordingly, none of the stakeholders argued that mentoring should disappear, and very few voted for shortening its duration (0,9%). Furthermore, opinions stated that mentoring should provide students with feedback and follow-up support (49,4%), help them to become autonomous teachers (45,1%), and include critical reflection and research orientation (40,1%).

According to the surveyed teachers’ experience, the selection of foreign language teachers should be based on their ability to teach and educate (83,4%), a proficiency level of the language they teach (76,2%), and vocation for teaching (48,0%), rather than on their previous

experience (11,3%), their university certificates (11,3%) or their having passed a public competition (8,4%).

Regarding contents, these participants voted for career-long training in communicative teaching strategies (58,4%). Intercultural awareness (38,4%), ICT for pedagogical use (38,2%), reflective and critical teaching strategies (36,0%), foreign language skills (29,7%) and classroom management (25,3%) were also considered essential elements in teachers' training.

Finally, experienced teachers deemed very positive the idea of a European Master's degree for foreign language teachers: 39,7% considered it very relevant and 35,% thought it was relevant.

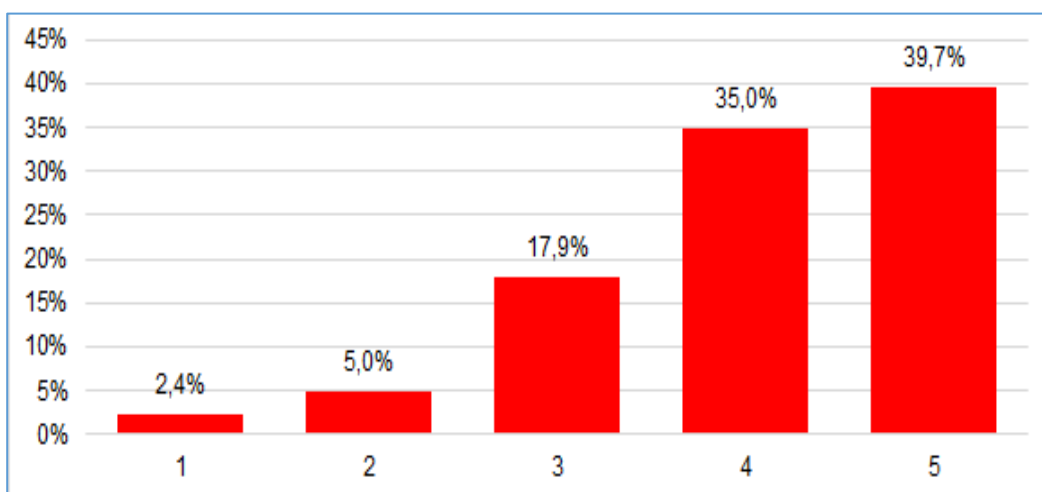


Fig. 9. Relevance of a European Master's Degree for teachers of foreign languages

Among the advantages this training could offer, teachers highlighted the upgrade of the social perception of the teaching profession (52,9%) and its benefits for the sake of European integration (36,3%), as well as an easier entrance in the labour market (32,8%). Together with these ideas, a high percentage of participants (39,2%) selected the need of appropriate funding and support from the EU, national and local bodies for high quality training.

2.3. Perception of the Foreign Language Teacher Training on Education Policy Makers/Public Administrators

Policy makers and public administrators also shared their point of view about foreign language teacher training in Europe. They made it clear that

training programmes can be improved if students, school mentors, and university tutors shared their learning and expertise (52,2%). Also if internships abroad were promoted (47,8%), especially in more than one school (43,5%), and if such training was focused on intercultural awareness (43,5%). In particular, exchange programmes (73,9%) and the exchange of expertise between school mentors and university tutors (52,2%) were considered paramount during pre-service teacher training.

Almost all participants voted for the creation of a European Master’s degree, considering it very relevant (52,2%) or relevant (34,8%). They deemed this initiative a positive measure to upgrade the social perception of the profession (59,1%), to open novice teacher’s minds (45,5%) and to facilitate European integration (40,9%). (See Fig.10).

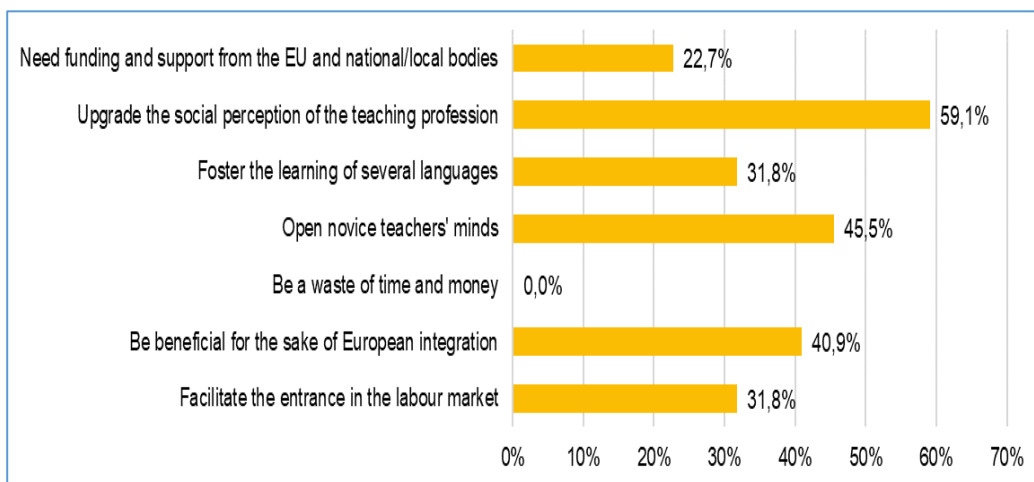


Fig. 10. Benefits of a European Master’s Degree for teachers of foreign languages

Added to it all, they also thought that such kind of degree would facilitate the entrance in the labour market of teacher students and would foster the learning of other languages in the European area (31,8%).

3. Discussion

The sample, which included teacher students and graduated students, teachers and policy makers, offers an updated picture of the social perception of foreign language teacher training, its voids and the

improvements it must undertake to meet the needs of the profession in the 21st century.

A significant feature of the sample is its bias in terms of gender. With a remarkable majority of female respondents, the survey indicates that the field of foreign language teaching in Europe is highly feminized.

With regards to motivation, teacher students and graduated students underlined their genuine love for languages and their teaching vocation. Consistently, their views on the social perception of their profession initially matched these ideals, as some of them referred to specialisation and prestige as two defining elements. Contrary to these ideas, they also acknowledged a general understanding of teaching as an easy task, and quite a feminine one. This mismatch may have responded to their mixed feelings towards their vocation. In other words, their personal inclination for a task they regard as inspiring, exciting and rewarding, seems to be colliding with a socially belittled profession they have not entered yet.

On their side, experienced teachers form a more complex set of participants. To start with, it is important to underline that foreign language teaching can take place in many different environments which range from primary secondary and high schools to language schools and universities. While this fact offers many possibilities for pedagogic exploration in the classrooms, the training that teachers receive is not always specific in terms of language level, purpose and educational stage. Furthermore, each country offers its own kind of training, both in form and content, regardless the increasing internationalisation of the profession.

We agree with several studies (Morgan and Clarke 2011; Gu and Benson 2014) that pre-service teacher training is a crucial stage in the construction of teacher identity. Hence, social perception of the teaching profession acquires a relevant role in the construction of that collective identity and improvement in pre-service training must take that issue into account. When asked about their motivations, most teacher participants indicated their natural love for languages and their vocation for the teaching practice. Economic reward was not a key factor for their choice. However, in the eyes of experienced teachers, the social perception of their profession was not too positive. Even though education is generally considered an important task that society must provide, in their opinion it was seen as a job with a low level of specialisation, an idea intimately biased in terms of gender. According to the data gathered in this survey, feminisation of the teaching profession was not only a fact, but also a conceptualisation that affected the status of teaching. As Sheelagh Drudy

has clearly stated: “This global phenomenon is firmly rooted in issues relating to economic development, urbanisation, the position of women in society, cultural definitions of masculinity and the value of children and childcare”(2008:309). The participants of this survey confirmed these ideas and suggested that the teaching practice and its social perception is gender biased. It is no wonder that the measures for improvement selected by the participants referred to greater investment in teacher training and salary increase. All in all, upgrading in the social perception of the teaching profession is needed, and both high quality training and funding are core aspects to tackle.

Regarding teacher training content, teacher students and graduated students showed a high degree of satisfaction, although they sensed that more communicative and innovative approaches could be beneficial for language teacher training. In particular, they suggested online systems for monitoring purposes. Added to that, they detected a need for peer exchange and freedom for innovation. Finally, a more international format of language teacher training was demanded, in tune with the need to acquire intercultural skills. These issues could be addressed in a European Master’s degree for teachers of foreign languages, a means that they thought could favour intercultural cooperation and expand their opportunities in the European area.

For experienced teachers, mentorship was rendered important during teacher training and they indicated that more effort should be invested in follow-up support and building up autonomy, critical reflection and research orientation. These choices project an ideal model for future teachers of languages who should be independent, autonomous and innovative. In order to pursue these goals, training programmes should orientate their contents towards communicative and reflective teaching strategies so that trainees are able to manage classrooms smoothly. In a changing, challenging and complex world, special attention to ICT for pedagogical use must be paid, and intercultural awareness has become a must for the future teachers of languages.

Finally, policy makers and public administrators were very much in favour of internationalisation in language teacher training programmes. They were aware of the importance of mobility and the need to implement intercultural approaches in the training of future language teachers. Added to that, policy makers acknowledged the benefits a common and international degree could provide: unification of the diverse formats of current language teacher training programmes, a greater degree of integration among Europeans, and a way to facilitate the entrance in the labour market to novice teachers.

4. Conclusions

According to the results gathered from this survey, several conclusions can be drawn and grouped in the following five items:

First, a move towards homogenization of teacher training is necessary. All stakeholders showed a positive attitude towards mobility and interculturality. But implementation of these possibilities beyond national frontiers implies a curricular convergence that favours international dialogue and training experiences.

Second, for internationalisation of foreign language teacher training, digital platforms seem to be particularly useful tools. They facilitate sharing and learning formulas that can be oriented to this specific field of higher education. Furthermore, cultural diversity and geographical distance are obstacles that can be overcome if a multi-national alliance of higher institutions materialises. Added to that, an online tool would facilitate cultural adaptation and favour international communication, two essential elements detected by teacher students, graduated students, senior teachers and policy makers.

Third, the contents of the training programmes need modernisation and upgrading. 21st century ITE programmes should provide tools, skills and resources to help professionals adapt to the continuous transformations taking place in a changing and dynamic society, with complex, multicultural, and socially diverse learning scenarios.

Fourth, it is necessary to invest economically in ITE, particularly in the financing of student and teacher mobility, as well as in a greater diversity and quality of human resources. Life-long learning is a defining element of 21st century education.

Fifth, feminisation of the teaching practice is related with a low status of the profession and unappealing salaries. As Drudy (“Gender” and “Professionalism”) has suggested, to combat this unfair situation gender needs to be embedded in policy thinking on teaching and teacher education. Governing bodies and universities should invest in attracting high quality people into the profession, irrespective of their sex/gender. In the medium term, these measures should impact on gender balance in teaching and learning.

In sum, ITE is an essential step for language education in Europe and it needs urgent improvement from several fronts. There is still a long way to go before a coherent, balanced, fair and excellent format for foreign language teacher training is built and displayed. Through the VIRTEACH project, some steps are being taken so that this relevant field of education

improves and outstands as a useful and necessary tool for the benefit of all Europeans.

5. Acknowledgements.

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Intercultural Communication Language: Euphemisms, Racism, Sexism, and Political Correctness

Ramona MIHĂILĂ¹

Abstract. *The present article is part of a course that intends to make the students familiar with differences and similarities of pluralism and individualism of the people belonging to a wide range of cultural backgrounds, taking into account the values provided by anthropology, high and popular culture, sociology, business, and international relations. The course is designed for teachers who teach in secondary schools and high schools and tries to identify the ways that people behave in terms of individualism and collectivism in multilingual and multicultural societies, the activities of the art, literature, music, theater created by culture versus the contemporary trends of popular culture. The present article focused on teaching euphemisms and political correctness represents one of the activities of the Vir_Teach (A virtual Solution for comprehensive and coordinated training for foreign language teachers in Europe) project, funded by the Erasmus+ programme; Parteners: Dimitrie Cantemir Christian University, University of Burgos, (Spain), UC Leuven Limburg (Belgium), Szczecińska Szkoła Wyższa (Poland) and Universidade Lusófona, (Portugal).*

Keywords: Euphemisms; Political Correctness; English for Specific Purposes; Teachers' Training.

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1. Theoretical Approaches

Globalization has changed the way people interact in different social and cultural environments. Technology has led to different codes of behavior for almost all the people in the world. The most important goal of intercultural communication is to make people aware of the cross-cultural boundaries and the similarities or the differences within these spaces. Marilyn Leask says that “traditionally, two definitions of culture are distinguished, one coming from the humanities, the other from the social sciences. In a discussion of culture, teaching in the context of modern foreign languages education at advanced level, I argue: that the (one) focuses on the way a social group represents itself and others through its material production, be they works of art, literature, social institutions, or artefacts of everyday life, and the mechanism for their reproduction and preservation through history” (Kramersch 1996: 2). The other refers to the attitudes and beliefs, ways of thinking, behaving and remembering shared by members of that community” (Kramersch 1996: 2). (...) Whichever definition of culture one might adopt, and the two definitions are not necessarily exclusive, it soon becomes clear, that given their characteristics (...), new technologies have a considerable impact on groups of people, how they present themselves, and communicate, and share ideas, thoughts, memories, attitudes, beliefs etc. with each other”(Leask 2012: 19).

Norbert Pachler has written studies and books concerning teaching foreign languages at beginner and advanced levels and concludes that in “the wake of culture being viewed as a socially diverse phenomenon, observation and data collection, particularly through first hand experiences with target language speakers and the target cultures have come to the fore in modern foreign language teaching and learning. Indeed, the endeavor of imparting a modern foreign language is increasingly becoming modern foreign language *education* rather than merely knowledge or skill acquisition (Pachler 2002: 77).

Thus, communication in a cultural environment is directly connected with education and Johan le Roux analyzes the effective formal education that should be about values, assumptions, feelings, perceptions and relationships and “no education can take place without interpersonal communication. Effective teaching can thus be qualified in terms of relating effectively in the classroom. Effective education thus also presupposes effective communication skills. Communication as the means and indeed the medium of education is therefore crucial to school success in culturally diverse education. Teachers should therefore be sensitive to

the potentially problematic outcomes of intercultural communication in the culturally diverse class. Communication may be a useful source of intercultural knowledge and mutual enrichment between culturally diverse students if managed proactively by the teacher (le Roux 2010: 37).

Recently, Michael Byram and Manuela Wagner argue that “language teaching has long been associated with teaching in a country or countries where a target language is spoken, but this approach is inadequate. In the contemporary world, language teaching has a responsibility to prepare learners for interaction with people of other cultural backgrounds, teaching them skills and attitudes as well as knowledge” (Byram, Wagner 2018: 140).

The American Heritage Dictionary defines euphemism as “the act or an example of substituting a mild, indirect or vague term for one considered harsh, blunt, or offensive.” Edward Hirsch goes further and explains that euphemism has its roots in a Greek word meaning the “use of auspicious words”. The poetic use of euphemism, substituting one word for another, using words of good omen, probably has its origins in magical practice. (...) Euphemisms sometimes provide away of voicing something – erotic, religious, political – that cannot be said or written directly. Euphemism gets around the censors, which can be personal, social, or political sometimes internal, sometimes external” (Hirsch 2014: 222).

Pass away and *depart this life* are well-known euphemisms for *die*, *loo* is a modern euphemism for *toilet* and many of the milder oaths are euphemisms for swear words, or to avoid the profane use of the names of God and Christ. People use a euphemism again, instead of saying *Go to hell*, they say *Go to blazes* (hell fire). Morris, in the *Harper Dictionary of Contemporary Usage*, quotes this letter that illustrates the changing ways in which **poverty** has been publicly referred to: “*I used to think I was poor. Then they told me I wasn’t poor. I was **needy**. Then they told me it was self-defeating to think of myself as needy. I was **deprived**. Then they told me deprived was a bad image, I was **underprivileged**. Then they told me underprivileged was overused, I was **disadvantaged**. I still don’t have a dime. But I sure have a great vocabulary.*” (Jules Feifer)

Another example provided by Lynn Schneider concerns the fired employee: “If you are offered a **career change** or an **early retirement opportunity**, a **career** or **employee transition**, or you are being **involuntarily separated**, or if personnel **is being realigned** or there is a **surplus reduction in personnel**, or the staff **is being re-engineered or right sized**, or if there is a **workforce imbalance** correction then: You’re fired!” (*Boomer Lit Author and Reviewer*).

Merriam Webster Dictionary offers an explanation for the etymology of the word *Euphemism* that derives from the Greek word

euphēmos, which means “auspicious” or “sounding good.” The first part of “*euphēmos*” is the Greek prefix *eu*, meaning “well.” The second part is “*phēmē*,” a Greek word for “speech” that is itself a derivative of the verb *phanai*, meaning “to speak.” Among the numerous linguistic cousins of “euphemism” on the “eu-” side of the family are “eulogy,” “euphoria,” and “euthanasia”; on the “phanai” side, its kin include “prophet” and “aphasia” (“loss of the power to understand words”).

The use of a particular kind of euphemism is currently referred to as **political correctness** or being **PC**. These are expressions, which relate to people and society, and political correctness is a concern not to use language that might be perceived as offensive by particular members of society. Thus the term *people with learning difficulties* was felt to be better than *mentally handicapped* and the phrase *senior citizens* was preferred to *old age pensioners*.

Becky R. Ford argues that the term “*political correctness* (PC) has been used since the 1930s in Maoist China, where it meant fall in line with the Communist Party’s politics. In the 1980s, there was a revival of the use of the term. For some, PC now primes the prohibition of speech that is seen as derogatory toward historically marginalized groups, and well as the encouragement of more multicultural perspectives. Others see PC in a pejorative sense, thinking of liberal extremism. Since the start of the liberal PC movement in the 1980s, people ranging from sensationalist conservative politicians to serious and thoughtful academics have raised concerns about the negative consequences of PC. Those in support of PC claim that using more inclusive language representing more diverse voices in college classrooms helps improve the lives of members of marginalized groups. On the other hand, many professors and university health professionals have raised concerns that PC culture is too extreme, and the norms are preventing students from developing critical thinking skills. Despite the fact that the debate has been going on for nearly 30 years, little has been resolved” (Ford 2017: 19).

In *Forbidden Words: Taboo and the Censoring of Language* (2006), Keith Allan and Kate Burridge analyze the “visual euphemisms that replace objects or concepts that are considered unpleasant. They say that visual euphemisms are commonplace; for example, low-calorie salad dressing (usually oil-free) is presented in shapely, slender-waisted bottles. The shape, the cleverly altered spelling and reversed coloring on some of the packaging sends out the message *non-fattening* loud and clear.”

“While teaching politically correct language,” says Maryna Tsehelska, “a teacher should clearly differentiate between sexist language, pejorative language and taboo language.” Sexist language is a term that labels the use of male-dominated phrases suggesting that members of one

sex are less able, intelligent, and skillful (...); pejorative language is the use of words or phrases disapproving or suggesting that something is no good or of no importance (labeling nationalities, aged people, etc.); taboo language includes words or phrases which are likely to offend somebody—certain words referring to sex or sexual organs, excretion, and people's nationality or race can be particularly offensive. (Cambridge International Dictionary of English 1995). Avoiding these words and phrases means using politically correct language.

2. Euphemisms. Examples and Exercises*

2.1. Underline the euphemisms in the following sentences. Then rewrite the sentences in more direct language

1. This house is a handyman's dream/ideal for the DIY enthusiast.
2. Tom bought a pre-driven car for two hundred dollars.
3. After the laboratory experiments, the scientists sacrificed the mice.
4. The sanitary engineers will form a union next year.
5. His supervisor said he had been terminated because of too many absences.
6. The press secretary admitted that he had made an erroneous report.
7. There is a mirror in the little girl's powder room.
8. The steelworkers were considering a work stoppage in two days.
9. The infantry executed a withdrawal after the surprise attack.
10. "We'll have to let you go, Tom", said the managing director.
11. "The kindest thing to do would be to put Blackie to sleep", said the vet.
12. There is no chance that a revenue enhancement measure will pass during this session of Congress.
13. A man is helping police with their enquires.
14. New Prices!
15. The police seized a quantity of adult films.
16. He admitted he is between jobs.
17. The consultant urged the company to make a downward revision in production costs.
18. The car was not up to scratch.
19. The new coffee machine left a lot to be desired.
20. His neighbor has just met his maker.

2.2. Here are some difficult topics which English people often use euphemisms for. Match them to the sentences and decide what the sentences really mean in straightforward English

a) alcohol, b) birth, c) crime, d) lying, e) obesity, f) prison, g) strike, h) toilet, i) unemployment, j) warfare, k) stupid, l) old

1. Would you like to wash your hands?
2. At the end of the evening, the minister seemed to be tired and emotional.
3. John Davis has been resting since his widely-acclaimed performance as Prince Hamlet.
4. When the lawyer questioned him closely, his client was economical with the truth.
5. There were two hundred casualties in the battle for control of the pass.
6. The union of teachers is organizing a day of action tomorrow.
7. His uncle's a guest of Her Majesty for two years.
8. Their cassette recorder fell off the back of a lorry.
9. When is the happy event going to be?
10. The actress is getting on.
11. Jenny's got a bit of a spare tire these months, hasn't she?
12. Unfortunately, he is not the sharpest pencil in the box.

2.3. Match the euphemism on the left with what it stands for on the right

- | | |
|---------------------------|--|
| 1. an approved school | a) to get drunk |
| 2. cash flow problems | b) to lock someone up (in prison or a mental hospital) |
| 3. cuddly | c) prostitution |
| 4. to drown one's sorrow | d) in the habit of stealing |
| 5. to have a liquid lunch | e) underwear |
| 6. intelligence agencies | f) a penal institution for minors |
| 7. light fingered | g) financial trouble |
| 8. the oldest profession | h) fat |
| 9. to put away | i) spying organizations |
| 10. smalls | j) to drink a lot of alcohol in the middle of the day |

2.4. Some expressions introduced for PC reasons have become a part of standard English now. Underline that one you think is the more PC expression in each case? Why?

1. African American – Black American
2. children with special needs – educationally subnormal children
3. a fireman – a firefighter
4. hearing-impaired – deaf

5. a housewife – homemaker
6. a refuse collector – dustman
7. slum – substandard housing
8. an unmarried mother – single parent
9. Third World countries – developing countries
10. gratuity – tip
11. secretary – assistant, personal assistant
12. suspect – person of interest
13. problem – issue
14. illegal immigrants – undocumented workers
15. enhanced interrogation – torture
16. four letter words - swear words)
17. Pre-owned - used, second-hand)
18. Environmental assistant - sweeper or janitor)

3. Racism and Sexism. Examples and Exercises

- use ‘black’ (of a person’s skin color as opposed to ‘Black’ or ‘Asian’ or ‘negro’ or ‘colored’)
- such words as ‘*businessman*’ (prefer ‘*business executive*’), ‘*foreman*’ (prefer ‘*supervisor*’) and ‘*policeman*’ (prefer ‘*police officer*’).
- opposition to sexism is also one reason for the widespread adoption of the plural pronoun ‘**they/them**’ in the place of ‘**he/him**’. This is both easy to say and **politically correct**
- **Suffixes marking gender - er (-or)/-ess:** traditionally used to mark male and female (actor/actress)
- These two words are still often used in both forms, but forms such as *authoress*, *poetess*, *murderess*, and *manageress* are considered old-fashioned. If you want to be neutral, you can use the **er (-or)** suffix for male or female. *Schoolmistress/master* sound old-fashioned, use *teacher* instead; for *air hostess* use *flight attendant* (neutral) or *stewardess*
- **man, -woman** and **-person**
- Traditional social roles often meant that **-man** was used even for roles performed by **women**. Now many people prefer a neutral form for both sexes, if there is one available.

<i>neutral</i>	<i>traditional male</i>	<i>traditional female</i>
bartender businessperson	barman businessman	barmaid businesswoman

chair(person)	chairman	chairwoman
flight attendant	steward	stewardess/airhostess
firefighter	fireman	-
	fisherman	-
head (teacher)	headmaster	headmistress
police officer	policeman	policewoman
	postman	postwoman
spokesperson	spokesman	spokeswoman

- but opposition to sexism is also responsible for the ‘Ms’ complication. To avoid having to call people ‘Miss’ or ‘Mrs’ anti-sexists use the American ‘Ms’.
- in English, a lot of words are marked as masculine or feminine by suffixes, but many other words have “female” or “male” associations and should be used carefully.

4. “Social” marking of words. Examples and Exercises

Some words, particularly the names of jobs (*barber, burglar, butcher, cheerleader, conductor, detective, dressmaker, farmer, general, hairdresser, secretary, station master, tailor, typist*), are socially marked as belonging to one gender even though the words are neutral in form, e.g. in English, *nurse* was considered so female that if a man was a nurse, he was often referred to a *male nurse*.

Bachelor and *spinster* can both have negative or undesirable associations. Use *unmarried or single (man/woman)* instead. You can use *partner* instead of *fiancé(e)*, especially for someone you live with as a couple but are not married to.

4.1. Avoiding gender specific language. In the following sentences change the words in italics to neutral “political correctness” words with the same meaning. Make any other grammatical changes that then become necessary

1. These young people need to have been physically trained if they apply to be *policemen*.
2. Dear *Miss/ Mrs.* Johnson, I’m writing to you in order to help me with the Sale & Purchase contract.
3. The evolution of *man* was a contentious issue for the 19th century.
4. The *air hostesses* will shortly be moving through the cabin serving drinks and food.

5. In 1969 **man** first set foot on the moon. Neil Armstrong's famous words were: "That is one small step for a **man**, one giant leap for **mankind**".
6. Every **salesman** in the company is required to meet a monthly target. The best of **him** will be nominee for the best **salesman** of the year.
7. Nylon is a **man-made** fiber.
8. The members of the committee agreed to a **man** to elect a new **chairman**.
9. Who was the first **man** to fly in across the Pacific?
10. The **firemen** have been fighting with the blazes for two hours.

4.2. Sometimes political correctness goes to such extremes to avoid hurting others' feelings that it verges on the ridiculous, creating expressions that are excessively convoluted. Can you match the PC expressions on the left with their translations on the right?

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. charm-free | a) ugly |
| 2. chronologically gifted | b) tall |
| 3. cosmetically different | c) disorganized |
| 4. hair disadvantaged | d) boring |
| 5. mentally challenged | e) old |
| 6. nontraditionally ordered | f) bald |
| 7. big boned | g) stupid |
| 8. vertically inconvenienced | h) fat |

4.3. Now can you work out what the rather extreme PC speaker is saying about the different people below? Underline and explain the PC expressions.

1. In his autobiographical book he recalls his experiences as a gentleman of the road.
2. Nell achieved a deficiency on her driving needs assessment.
3. The manager complains that his secretary is temporally challenged.
4. Samantha is larger than the average citizen.
5. The teacher said that John is a child with an attention deficit disorder
6. The employer warned the doorman with sacking if he doesn't stop being a person of differing sobriety.
7. The politician admitted that his mother was an unwaged domestic artist.
8. You should be very careful because he doesn't suffer fools gladly.
9. Unfortunately, his old neighbour is on the streets.
10. The manager asked his secretary if she had considered early retirement.

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* *Note.* Some of the exercises in the article were included in my book *Current Issue. Communication in English*. Bucharest: FRM. 2006

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Teaching Korean Language and Culture in the Romanian Space. Challenges and Approaches

Han CHOONG HEE ¹

Abstract. *Learning a foreign language means knowing the culture while knowing the culture means understanding the style and concept of the people. From this point of view, Romanian people are compared to others more willing to learn and understand other languages and have an enthusiastic attitude to learn foreign languages. Geographically and culturally, Korea is a faraway country from Romania; however, this is not a big issue if we see how many events and activities exist in these days between these two countries. Some 20, 30 years ago, the Korean language was not well known in Romania but starting with the K-Pop and Korean dramas on TV, many young generations have fostered interests in this country and a group of organizations relating and regarding Korean culture has appeared. Concerning the current situation in Romania, I think it is important to guide and teach young people about Korea and its culture properly. For this, knowing the Korean language is very important.*

Keywords: Korean Language; Korean Culture; Cultural Approach.

1. Introduction

The 21st century is typically called the era of information and technologies. In other words, the whole world gathers information and creates a community connecting groups, regions or countries. This even makes the world feel as if it is in one common ground: from political, economic and social points of view. Almost 30 years have passed since Romania got rid

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of Communist regime in 1990. The relations between Romania and South Korea have been significantly improved.

Economic and trade exchanges between the two countries continued to grow, rising from \$ 18.6 million at the time of diplomatic relations in 1990 to \$ 8.8 billion in 2018. Romania's exports to Korea are \$ 400 million in 2018 and imports of \$ 480 million. In this paper, I study the traditional social culture of Romania in comparison with the Korean culture and feelings, which I have personally experienced for the last 28 years. I will discuss some similarities and differences between the two countries and argue that the institutions or universities need to prepare themselves for teaching Korean language and culture in order to be successful, and also for students studying Korean language and culture to have a clearer and more accurate picture of them.

2. General Conditions for Teaching the Korean Language and Culture in Romania

In 1996, in October, I opened a Korean language course at the University of Bucharest at the Faculty of Foreign Languages section, receiving support from the Korean Embassy in Bucharest by communicating with officials from the respective faculty and with the financial support from the Korea Research Foundation (KRF, nowadays it is called the National Research Foundation of Korea and it was established in 2009). This Korean language course was first opened after the diplomatic collaboration between the two countries that has now developed in several institutions and places all over the country.

Several universities in Romania offer a Korean language course:

- The University of Bucharest at the Faculty of Foreign Languages introduced the course in 1996 and developed a department with Korean program in 2006.

- Babeş Bolyai University, Faculty of Letters, in the Department of Asian Languages and Literatures, has offered Korean courses since 1997 and established a department in 2008.

- The Romanian-American University has been offering Korean courses at the Study Center of Foreign Languages since 2012.

- The Faculty of Letters, "Alexandru Ioan Cuza" University in Iasi introduced the course in 2015.

- Korean Language and Culture Center *Se Jong*, Iasi Branch, was opened in 2015.

3. Korean Program Curriculum

The subjects comprising a course of study of the Korean language must be systematically arranged and organized in order to achieve the educational objectives in accordance with the development stages of the learner. It is very important to establish the strategy of the program not only from the point of view of teaching but also from the perspective of learning a second language. Compared to other known foreign languages, English, French, or Spanish that already benefit from a lot of background and experience of teachers that might adapt and correctly inform students, for a Korean language course, there is not easy to find resources in Romania. The Korean language academic undergraduate curricula should be configured differently depending on the learning process, learners' level and learning objectives.

Daniel L. Stufflebeam says in his book *Theory, models and applications of evaluation* that the four CIPP (Context, Input, Process, și Product) processes that are designed for evaluators and students who must develop a knowledge of control of the evaluation field are: history, theory and standards, models and staff approaches, procedures and inclusion, as well as program evaluation. For this, a few aspects or important bases are needed:

- a) Material (Manual)
- b) To know the purpose of the learner learning
- c) Qualified teachers

4. Motivation and Guidance to Learn Korean

After all, the main purpose of teaching this language within – different cultural institutions or universities is to offer students or learners the interest to learn about Korean culture, preparing for further studies in Korea, even the purpose of getting a job or a position in a Korean company. It is true that there are still not many chances in the country to find graduates for jobs with the advantage of knowing the Korean language, but the possibilities at this moment and in the near future are more prominent.

The Korean language is an agglutinant language and the Romanian language is a flexible language, in which there is the flexion of words, while the Korean language forms the words by adding to the root of the word endings, affixes, and derivative elements.

Example 1. If we look at the pronouns in the case of the Romanian language, there are pronouns as a form derived from the main form or

there are simply different forms, such as *Eu, Mine, Mie, Mea*. In the Korean language, it is formed by adding a nominative, accusative, dative, possessive mark. *Eu-* 나는, *Mine-* 나를, *Mie-* 나에게, *Mea-* 나의.

Example 2. In Romanian, the verbs are conjugated according to the person, number, time, mode and diathesis, but in Korean, the verbs are fixed without morphological changes but a mark is added which helps the case, the time and the number. *A merge* [to walk]/ 가다 (*Ga da*), infinitive of the verb.

In the Romanian language, the verb ‘to go’ is subscribed to the category 3 of conjugation and for each person; the verb has a different ending in terms of morphology.

Eu merg / Tu mergi / El (Ea) merge / Noi mergem / Voi mergeți / Ei (Ele) merg.

In Korean, the verb ‘*Ga da*’ meaning ‘to go,’ is not conjugated and stays with all pronouns the same. That is why the pronouns must be written for each person.

Na nîn ga-n-da¹ / Nă nîn ga-n-da / Ghî (Ghî nyă) nîn ga-n-da / Uri nîn ga-n-da / Nă hîi nîn ga-n-da / Ghî dâl (Ghî nyă dâl) îi nîn ga-n-da.

In the case of the simple past tense (*perfect compus* in Romanian), each person is identified by adding the auxiliary verb ‘to have’ in front of the participle of the verb which is marked by the suffix -s in the initial verb.

Eu am mers / Tu ai mers / El (Ea) a mers / Noi am mers / Voi ați mers / Ei (Ele) au mers.

As in the case of the present tense, in Korean, in the past tense, the verb form remains the same and to express the the past tense, all the pronouns must be written for each person.

Na nîn ga- t- da² / Nă nîn ga-t-da / Ghî (Ghî nyă) nîn ga-t-da / Uri nîn ga-t-da / Nă hîi nîn ga-t-da / Ghî dâl (Ghî nyă dâl) îi nîn ga-t-da

¹ The suffix “n” represents the present tense.

² Suffix “t” represents the past tense.

5. Conclusions

Understanding of Korean language and culture on the Romanian territory is not at the beginning. The explosion occurred in 2009, with the expansion of the K-Wave in Europe and has grown in Romania due to k-drama, OSTs and, especially, the K-pop stream. If 10 years ago the fans of Korea were between 14 and 26 years old, now their number has increased dramatically, and the age level has dropped, reaching somewhere between 7 and 8 years and covering both the above-mentioned age segments, but slowly expanding to the adult, mature, high-end consumer of k-pop, k-drama, and Korean cuisine. From the estimates made following the participation of events organized by the South Korean Embassy in Bucharest, Asian-themed festivals and K-pop concerts, we can definitely say that the number of Korean fans has reached several thousand throughout the country. The fans of Korea are found in the largest and, at the same time, the most important cities of the country, respectively in Bucharest, Cluj, Iasi, Braşov, Oradea, Timisoara, and Craiova. In addition to Korean music, drama and cuisine, Korean culture lovers are also interested in Korean language, traditions and national costume (Hanbok), gadgets (mobile phones, laptops, Samsung branded tablets, LG), appliances (TVs, vacuum cleaners, refrigerator combines etc), cars (Kia, Hyundai, SsangYong) and beauty and make-up products (Etude House, Tony Moly, Hera, Holika Holika, Missha, Skin 79, Dr. Jart, COSRX, the Saem, Jluna etc).

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Las Dificultades De Los Estudiantes Rumanos En El Aprendizaje Del Español Como Lengua Extranjera

Mihaela MATEESCU ¹

Abstract. *In this study, we approach the most common difficulties experienced by Romanian students when learning Spanish as a foreign language. We shall examine some of the main mistakes they make and we shall explain where they come from, based on Romanian examples, wherever possible. If one refers to the linguistic aspect, there is a great interest in learning Spanish, especially the oral language over the written one. The most common grammatical and lexical difficulties are: errors in gender use between article and name, improper use of the indefinite article one in front of the indefinite adjective other, incorrect uses of the verbs ser (to be = to exist) and estar (to be, to be found), of the verbs recordar (to remember) and acordarse (to remember), incorrect use of the future and conditional in subordinate clauses, and the incorrect use of prepositions.*

Keywords: Spanish Language; Second Language Acquisition; Cultural Approach; Romanian Students.

1. Introducción

El español es una lengua rica y compleja, sobre todo en vocabulario y gramática, por ello no es de extrañar que los extranjeros que desean aprenderla tengan algunas dificultades. Los estudiantes que quieren aprender español se sienten atraídos por uno de los idiomas más hablados del mundo, pero su aprendizaje conlleva esfuerzo y gratificación.

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En los últimos años, el interés por el español en Rumanía ha aumentado enormemente. Este fenómeno se refleja de manera especialmente visible en el sistema educativo, también, en muchas otras esferas de la sociedad. Se trata del tercer idioma más demandado en las universidades rumanas por detrás del inglés y el alemán. La enseñanza del idioma español en nuestra universidad y en nuestro país ha ido en aumento en el marco de mayor cooperación con la Unión Europea.

En cuanto a la motivación principal que tienen los estudiantes rumanos para animarse a estudiar español, podemos mencionar dos posibles motivaciones. Por un lado, hay alumnos que aprenden español por puro placer porque dicen que es una lengua que les suena bien, por otro lado se encuentran los estudiantes que eligen aprender español por motivos laborales. Desde finales de los años 90 surgieron distintas empresas españolas que buscaban personas que hablaran español.

Por otro lado, el español llega a través de diferentes formas culturales, en general, muy atractivas para los rumanos, como por ejemplo, la música latina, el fútbol y por último, pero no menos importante, el fenómeno de las telenovelas.

2. Objetivo y análisis

En este artículo nos proponemos analizar los errores que cometen con frecuencias los estudiantes rumanos en el proceso de aprendizaje del idioma español. En mi experiencia como profesora de lenguas he notado que hay ciertos aspectos de la gramática española que conducen a errores en la producción del español en no nativos como por ejemplo: errores en concordancia de género entre artículo y nombre, errores en el uso de las preposiciones, usos incorrectos de los verbos *ser* y *estar*, usos incorrectos de los tiempos verbales.

Los estudios relativos a la influencia de una lengua sobre el aprendizaje de otra nueva han tomado como punto de referencia los fenómenos lingüísticos que se transfieren de la lengua materna o L1 ampliado a una L2. Estas huellas de la lengua materna se conciben como transferencias, que, a su vez, pueden dividirse en:

a) Transferencia positiva que “facilita el aprendizaje, y puede darse cuando la lengua nativa y la lengua meta tienen la misma forma” (Richards et al., 1997: 420)

b) Transferencia negativa, fenómeno más conocido como interferencia, se define como “el uso de una construcción o regla de la lengua nativa que conduce a un error o forma inapropiada de la lengua meta” (Richards et al., 1997:419).

Robert Lado, haciendo referencia a la similitud entre la lengua materna y la primera y segunda lenguas extranjeras, señala que “aquellas estructuras que sean parecidas serán fáciles de aprender porque podrán transferirse y funcionar satisfactoriamente en la lengua extranjera. Aquellas estructuras que sean diferentes serán difíciles de aprender” (Lado 1957:64). Según Lado, por tanto, el aprendizaje de los rasgos que se parezcan a los de la lengua propia del estudiante le resultarán a éste fácil y, por el contrario, los elementos que sean diferentes le serán difíciles de aprender.

Al buscar las causas de la interferencia y sus resultados, es decir los errores, podemos observar creaciones peculiares fruto del cruce con estructuras próximas, generalizaciones de paradigmas muy frecuentes en la lengua extranjera. Las dificultades más comunes de carácter gramatical son:

1. los errores en concordancia de género entre artículo y nombre
2. uso indebido del artículo indefinido *un* ante el adjetivo indefinido *otro* *otro
3. usos incorrectos de los verbos *ser* y *estar*, de los verbos *recordar* y *acordarse*
4. uso incorrecto del futuro de indicativo y del condicional en oraciones subordinadas
5. errores en el uso de las preposiciones

A) Errores en concordancia de género entre artículo y nombre:

En español existen sólo dos géneros (masculino y femenino), a diferencia del rumano que posee tres (masculino, femenino y neutro), por lo que hay muchas diferencias, incluso si el sustantivo es fácilmente reconocible en ambas lenguas.

La búsqueda de equivalencias con la lengua materna provoca algunas equivocaciones de los estudiantes en el género de los artículos que preceden a los sustantivos del español:

Uno de los errores más comunes es la confusión de género, sobre todo en palabras masculinas que terminan en *-a* y palabras sustantivos que terminan en *-e*. Por ejemplo: *problema*, *telegrama*, *pijama*, *delta*, *planeta*, *día*, *valle* son sustantivos de género femenino en rumano y masculino en español. Es posible que oigamos en el caso de los estudiantes principiantes **la problema*, **la telegrama*, **la pijama*, **la valle* en vez de las formas correctas *el problema*, *el telegrama*, *el pijama*.

También encontramos confusiones en el caso de los sustantivos que afectan al doble artículo y cambian de significado, sobre todo en el caso del sustantivo *el orden* y *la orden*, ya que en rumano el correspondiente del sustantivo *el orden* es *ordine* (sustantivo femenino) y del sustantivo *la orden* es *ordin* (sustantivo neutro).

B) Uso indebido del artículo indefinido *un* ante el adjetivo indefinido *otro*

Otro error muy repetido entre los estudiantes rumanos de español lengua extranjera es el empleo del artículo delante del indefinido:

**una otra persona* (rum. *o altă persoană*) correcto: *otra persona*

**un otro hombre* (rum. *un alt bărbat*) correcto: *otro hombre*

C) Usos incorrectos de los verbos *ser* y *estar*, de los verbos *recordar* y *acordarse*

En cuanto a la morfología verbal, el caballo de batalla de los estudiantes rumanos suele ser la diferenciación entre *ser* y *estar*, puesto que en rumano se utiliza *a fi* para traducir los dos verbos del español.

Entre los errores más generalizados, encontramos el uso incorrecto de *ser* en lugar de *estar* en construcciones del tipo

**es muy bien* (rum. *e foarte bine*)

**somos contentos* (rum. *suntem mulțumiți*)

**María es muy bonita con el vestido rojo.*

En vez de *María está muy bonita con el vestido rojo.*

Estar describe la situación de la persona y no a la persona.

También hay incorrecciones en sentido inverso, al usar *estar* en lugar de *ser*: **la boda está en la iglesia* en lugar de *la boda es en la iglesia.*

Otros dos verbos que confunden los estudiantes rumanos son *acordarse* y *recordar* que en rumano se traducen igual a *aminti*, a *aduce aminte*. Estos verbos prácticamente significan lo mismo: *traer a la memoria*. Pero tienen estructuras distintas y el error está en mezclar esas estructuras: **No me recuerdo de eso* en vez de *No me acuerdo de eso* o *No recuerdo eso.*

Recordar es un verbo transitivo, requiere un complemento directo (*recordar algo*). *No recordaba el número de teléfono.*

Acordarse es un verbo intransitivo pronominal que no puede usarse sin el *se*, y suele ir acompañado de la preposición *de*. *No me acordaba del número de teléfono.*

D) Uso incorrecto del futuro de indicativo y del condicional en oraciones subordinadas

Además de los problemas habituales de los extranjeros para conjugar los verbos irregulares del español en pretérito indefinido de indicativo y en pretérito imperfecto de subjuntivo, algunos estudiantes rumanos se equivocan al introducir el futuro de indicativo en lugar del presente de subjuntivo en oraciones subordinadas temporales o en las oraciones sustantivas completivas directas:

**Cuando llegaré a casa, te llamaré*

(rum. *când voi ajunge acasă, te voi suna*)

**Espero que vendrás.* (rum. *sper că vei veni*)

**No creo que podrán.* (rum. *nu cred că vor putea*)

Igualmente, el influjo del rumano como lengua materna o la transferencia negativa se advierte en el uso

- del futuro de indicativo en lugar del condicional para expresar una acción futura en relación con el pasado: **Me dijo que me llamará.* rum. *mi-aspus că mă va suna*, en vez de *Me dijo que me llamaría.*
- del condicional en una oración condicional en vez del pretérito imperfecto de subjuntivo: **Si tendría dinero, te ayudaría* (rum. *Dacă aş avea bani, te-aş ajuta*, correcto *Si tuviera dinero, te ayudaría.*

E) Errores en el uso de las preposiciones

A nivel morfosintáctico, destacan las confusiones en el régimen preposicional de los verbos por el influjo analógico con las estructuras de la lengua rumana. Los estudiantes rumanos se equivocan a veces a la hora de elegir la preposición adecuada. Eso normalmente ocurre cuando la preposición española no corresponde a la que se usaría en ese mismo contexto en rumano.

Entre los errores más frecuentes de los hablantes de rumano se encuentran los relacionados con las preposiciones *a* y *en*: resulta habitual corregir ejercicios de producción escrita o escuchar en las interacciones orales expresiones incorrectas tales como:

**venir en Rumanía* (rum. *a veni în România*),

correcto: *venir a Rumanía*

**bienvenido en Bucarest* (rum. *Bine ați venit în București*),

correcto: *bienvenido a Bucarest*.

**llegar en España* (rum. *a ajunge în Spania*),

correcto: *llegar a España*.

**regresar en Rumanía* (rum. *a se întoarce în România*)

correcto: *regresar a Rumanía*

Igualmente, encontramos la preposición *con* en lugar de *en*, en estructuras tomadas del rumano como:

**viajar con tren* (rum. *a călătoria cu trenul*), correcto: *viajar en tren*

* *ir con el metro* (rum. *a merge cu metroul*), correcto: *ir en metro*

3. Conclusión

Los errores que hemos analizado son causados por la interferencia de la lengua materna. Pero en el proceso de enseñanza lo importante es poder determinar cuáles son los errores que caracterizan cada etapa del aprendizaje y cuáles son los errores que surgen por la interferencia de la lengua materna y que aparecen incluso en hablantes que han desarrollado una competencia lingüística considerable. Si un error se transforma en un problema permanente, se tratará de un error fosilizado y, en este caso, habrá que reflexionar sobre las estrategias de aprendizaje que han de ponerse en práctica.

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Various Approaches in Teaching Vocabulary

Onorina BOTEZAT¹

Abstract. *The paper aims at reviewing the most utilized techniques of teaching vocabulary and explores the definition of vocabulary and its role in foreign language acquisition.*

Keywords: Vocabulary; Lexicon; Terms; Teaching methods; Foreign Languages.

1. Introduction

Language teaching fosters a lot of challenges and embodies a constant research concern among linguists and educators. In 1979, Meriting pointed out “for over 20 years applied linguistics has especially been engaged in problems connected with foreign language acquisition and learning.” (Livingston and Assunção Flores, 2017: 559). He suggested it appeared as an inter-discipline of psychology, pedagogics, sociology, and linguistics. Over the past forty years, the field of applied linguistics became a pivotal discipline in language teachers’ education and training and furthermore has been interconnected with communication approaches, intercultural and multicultural awareness. Though nowadays, visual culture seems to reduce the communication to images and short texts, the importance of acquiring new words remains the core of learning a foreign language. Hierarchizing the diverse aspects and competencies of a language, scholars underlined the role of the lexicon suggesting that “while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary *nothing* can be conveyed” (Wilkins, 1972: 111-112) and stated that “lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition

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of a second language” (Schmitt, 2000: 55) or even characterized it as the “heart of language comprehension and use is the lexicon.” (Hunt and Beglar, 2005) In a recent study, it was shown that both teachers and students approve the importance of vocabulary teaching and learning, as it enhances “the students’ cognitive skills relating to how students remember, understand, and to apply the vocabulary in daily communication.” (Asyiah, 2017: 312) The significance of the vocabulary’s items enlarging is undoubtedly based upon the premise that grammar rules are much more limited than the range of human expressions in terms of new phrases and vocabulary adaptation or enrichment. (Crystal, 1987: 243; Schmitt, 2000: 4) All things considered, the foreign language learning process customarily requires a large number of varied “literacy activities and practices, and without some breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge these are difficult to grasp/do!” (Lessard-Clouston, 2012: 1)

2. Literature Review

The general opinion is that teachers must develop words and vocabulary aimed lessons as a network of words and phrases collectively joint by multiple relationships, not as isolated units (Lavoie, 2015: 3). These connections may be synonymy, anonymity, lexical field, word families, or even another language’s vocabulary (Szubko-Sitarek , 2015: 174). Aimed at answering the fundamental question related to the vocabulary learning, how and when do we learn the words, where do we store them and how do we retrieve them from storage, Jean Aitchison compares the “human word-store” to Milton’s planets’ description:

“Milton’s description of the planets in *Paradise Lost* could apply equally well to the human word-store. Planets might appear to the untrained observer to wander randomly round the night sky, yet in fact their movements are under the control of natural laws which are not obvious to the naked eye. Similarly, words are not just stacked higgledy-piggledy in our minds, like leaves on an autumn bonfire. Instead, they are organized into an intricate, interlocking system whose underlying principles can be discovered.” (Aitchison, 2012: 5)

Others propose a simple relations’ based method, from simple words to complex words, explaining separately each of them and working with prefixes or suffixes, adding new meanings and contexts (Picoche, 3).

Bogaards (1994), for his part, exactly maintained that vocabulary instruction must aim to build various intersections between new items and the student's prior knowledge. In other words, we may imagine one's personal luggage of words as a huge puzzle, began in early years of study and under continuous process of completion, as a large site of construction, adding new words everywhere, not in linear domino line. Joe Barcroft describes the vocabulary or the lexicon as large network and "[w]ithin the network, every lexical item (word, word part, or lexical phrase) is connected to other lexical items in a manner that reflects statistical properties that dictate how lexical items should and should not be used." (Barcroft, 2016: 2)

Adapted from Schmitt 1997, Yudintseva summarizes vocabulary acquisition strategies and related activities for the second language learners in two types of strategies, discovery and consolidation (Yudintseva, 2015). Discovery strategies in acquiring new vocabulary comprise determination strategies, based on retrieving the meaning from contextual clues, with the help of a dictionary and word lists and social strategies that rely on instructions, mutual projects, and communication with native speakers. On the other hand, consolidation strategies include memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. While the first one explores the word's meaning through personal experience, introducing the new vocabulary in context, adding its synonyms and antonyms, the second one develops the lexicon through verbal and written reproduction. The last one is the most explored nowadays, taking into account all the new teaching techniques that use social media and media, in general. Nation (1990: 31) introduces several types of word knowledge in the process of learning new words: the meaning(s) of the word, the written form of the word, the spoken form of the word, the grammatical behavior of the word, the collocations of the word, the register of the word, the associations of the word and the frequency of the word. Schmitt (2000: 5) suggests that those types may be learned randomly and as the case may be ones may have priority while others can be developed in time. Based on the language level and the general purpose of the course/ lesson, teachers must take into account the frequency of the words proposed for learning, possibilities of family words' construction, collocations and phrasing in order to develop exercises and to put new words into context.

3. Terminology, Definition and Teaching Approach

As explained by Cambridge Dictionary, “vocabulary” means all the words known and used by a particular person (A2) or all the words that exist in a particular language or subject (C1). Essentially, it signifies the understanding of words and their meanings. Nevertheless, the vocabulary is more complex than the definition might suggest. One can learn its complexity from a deeper look and research of the word itself, if we look at the main collocations proposed by the dictionary “basic vocabulary,” “common vocabulary,” and “core vocabulary,” we understand that from words to vocabulary or lexicon are different steps and categories to reach. The main related words and synonyms provided by the dictionary are “alphabetic, Anglicism, antonym, antonymous, archaism, binomial, buzzword, hyponym, inappropriacy, inflectional, initialism, keyword, lexis, malapropism, nomenclature, term of art, terminological, terminologically, toponym, vocab.”

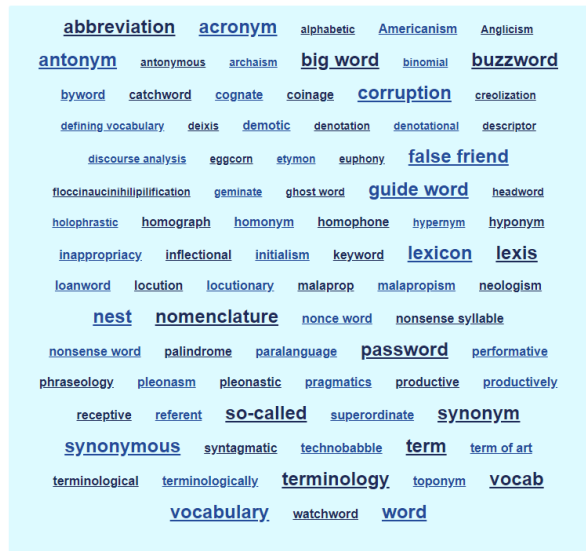


Fig. 1. Word networking. *Print screen* from <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/topics/language/terminology-and-vocabulary/>

Furthermore, if one wants to explore, there is word networking from SMART Thesaurus that projects all the words and meanings’ connections, creating a word map that helps better to appreciate the complexity and the value of words and vocabulary items for a language.

Second language vocabulary learners need to master different obstacles, connecting the meaning of a word to its form, avoiding false-friends, producing a correct message, using a sufficient amount of words and developing skills to deal successfully with unknown words, as the receptive vocabulary is traditionally larger than the productive vocabulary that counts more words, but not all of them are listed in our memory with exact definitions and all contextual or phrasal connotations.

In general, if we focus on the vocabulary teaching, we have in mind a list of words that we want to propose to our students and begin from there to set up our goals and design the exercises. Nation (2007) supports a well-balanced course that allows approximately equal amounts to each of the four strands of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning and fluency development. Lessard-Clouston (2012) dispatches that the prevailing attitude towards vocabulary teaching is the frequency perspective that results from a considerable amount of vocabulary in English. He proposes the following classification: high frequency, general academic, technical/specialized vocabulary, and low-frequency words. Lessard-Clouston (2012) argues that another critical aspect of vocabulary teaching is to be conscious of students' abilities, vocabulary knowledge (receptive and productive), and their goals and proposes using contexts, corpora, selection of words' lists, vocabulary practice and regular feedback.

The most used method of introducing vocabulary focus into a course is by means of translations. Alternatively, the Direct Method was developed, which adds visuals to the definitions or translations. Nowadays, visuals are everywhere and this method is largely used in social media. Of course, all techniques are completed with explanations and contexts that help describe better the meanings of the new proposed words.

4. Various Types of Exercises¹

Choose the words in the box that best complete the gapped sentences in the following text:

cutting-edge / disciplines / environment / interconnected / leadership / making / management / multidisciplinary / policy / Public Administration / skills

The USC Master of _____ (1) program is a unique and _____ (2) environment within the Price School that integrates all the major _____ (3) bearing on _____ (4) and _____ (5) in the modern, _____ (6) socioeconomic _____

¹ The following exercises are retrieved from the coursebook Ana Munteanu, Adina Rădulescu (coord.), Onorina Botezat, Eugenia Ștefănescu. 2014. *Professional English. Public administration and law enforcement. High-intermediate Level*. București: Editura Fundației României de Mâine, Part III, pp: 155-230.

and political _____ (7). The program connects _____ (8) research to the practice of public _____ (9) and management, equipping students with the _____ (10) required for all the challenges and opportunities of the ever-changing nature of public administration—sound management, analytical, and policy-_____ (11) skills.

Match the half-sentences in column A with the half-sentences in column B to make complete and logical sentences:

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1. The studies focus on basic institutes of public and private law and</p> | <p>a. public administration programs must pay attention to the needs of their stakeholders or risk legitimacy as an independent field of study.</p> |
| <p>2. Historically, public administration scholars and practitioners have struggled to</p> | <p>b. the school for whom the assessment is completed and public administration academia.</p> |
| <p>3. In a constantly changing world with debates over the role of government, government agencies, and the administration of government,</p> | <p>c. public administration in relation to the legal specialism</p> |
| <p>4. The knowledge gained by any public administration program assessment aids both</p> | <p>d. saw public administration as having an active role characterized by leadership and energy.</p> |
| <p>5. Alexander Hamilton was a strong supporter of nationalism and</p> | <p>e. define and understand the field's unique place and purpose in both practice and academia</p> |

Match the words in column A with their definitions in column B:

- | | |
|-----------------------|--|
| <p>a. management</p> | <p>1. Government aid to the poor, disabled, or aged, as financial assistance or food stamps.</p> |
| <p>b. marketplace</p> | <p>2. The position of a person who guides or directs a group.</p> |

c. leadership	3. The act or manner of handling and directing affairs/ business/ institutions.
d. public administration	4. An official of a city, country, or state government.
e. public assistance	5. The implementation of public policy, largely by the executive branch.
f. public administrator	6. The commercial world, a realm of business, trade and economics.

Find the intruder:

1. Administration – management – directorship – control – governorship – hegemony – internship.
2. Authoritativeness – influence – command – effectiveness – leaderless.
3. Financial – fiscal – services –pecuniary – commercial – economic – business – monetary.

Match the words in column A with their definitions in column B:

A	B
1. Base pay	a. Non-monetary rewards such as health insurance, transportation, housing, meals, and travel.
2. In-kind benefits	b. Base pay plus monetary allowances such as transportation, housing, meals, telephone, travel, cost-of-living.
3. Personal disposable income	c. Personal emoluments minus any employer deductions such as those for income tax, provident fund/pension contributions, etc.
4. Personal emoluments	d. The salary or wages that every civil servant receives regularly (usually fortnightly or monthly) from the government by virtue of being on the payroll.

Complete the following sentences using the words in the box. Each word will be used only once:

base wage, civil servants, rewards, employee, public, private, Base pay,

_____ (1) is usually linked to an _____ (2)'s position and is uniform across similar positions. The _____ (3) is often cited to compare wages in the _____ (4) and _____ (5) sectors. It is, however, only one component of _____' (6) total _____ (7).

Choose the correct meaning of the following expressions:

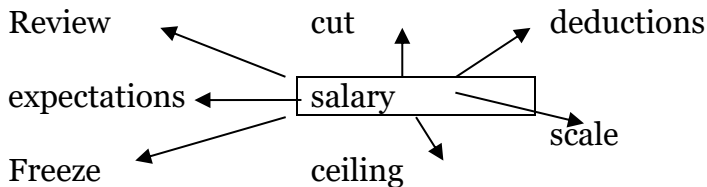
1. _____ is an employees' organization which represents its members in discussion with employers about wages and conditions of employment.
a. a job union b. an occupation union
c. a vocation union d. a work union e. a trade union
2. A company which you can only join if you are a member of a particular trade union is called _____.
a. a limited shop b. a full shop
c. a closed shop d. a barred shop e. a sweet shop
3. The practice through which unions put pressure on management to keep their members in their jobs or employ more workers, even if the organization doesn't need them any more is called _____.
a. feather weighting b. feather fanning c. feather braining
d. feather bedding e. feather dusting
4. An elected union official who represents employees in day-to-day negotiations with the management is known as _____.
a. a shop steward b. a store steward
c. a factory steward d. a workers' steward e. a department steward
5. Ordinary members of a union or organization are known as _____ members.
a. safe and sound b. rank and file c. cloak and dagger
d. collar and tie e. moan and groan
6. A union may stop workers from doing certain jobs, especially if they are not a member of that union, this is called _____.
a. restrictive practices b. recumbent practices
c. reductive practices d. reactionary practices e. reality practices
7. Negotiations between employers and workers' representatives over increases and conditions is called _____:
a. collective bargaining b. correctional bargaining c. connected bargaining
d. corruptive bargaining e. collapsing bargaining
8. If workers are unhappy with the way management is treating them, they may work strictly according to the rules of the company as a protest. Such a method of protest is called _____.
a. rule with a rod of iron b. work-to-rule

- c. ruling the roost d. ruling in favor e. work-by-rules

Collocate correctly the words when completing the definitions, by selecting the correct word:

1. Changes made to wages are known as wage *differences/ adjustments/ restraint*.
2. The basis on which an employee is paid called wage *formula/ formation/ floor*.
3. Wage *difference/ formula/ wage-price spiral* is a macroeconomic theory to explain the cause-and-effect relationship between rising wages and rising prices, or inflation.
4. The act of keeping increases in wages under control is called a wage *restraint/ freeze/ floor*.
5. Wage *adjustments/ restraint/ freeze* is an attempt by a government to restrain wage-push inflation by holding wages at their existing level by force of law.
6. The differences in wages between employees in similar types of jobs are called wage *differences/ differentials/ incentive*.
7. A wage *freeze/ floor/ formula* is the minimum wage that can be paid and may be established by legislation, union negotiations, or corporate policy.
8. A financial benefit offered as a reward to employees who perform very well is called a wage *incentive/ adjustment/ differentials*.

Collocate correctly the words when completing the definitions, by selecting the correct word:



1. The amount withheld by an employer from the employee's earning, including income taxes, national insurance or social security contributions are called
2. We call a hierarchy of wage levels, typically varying according to job title, salary or length of service.
3. are the hopes of an employee that their salary will increase.
4. A is an occasion when an employee's salary is reconsidered and usually increased.

5. A situation in which a company temporarily stops giving raises to employees because of financial difficulties is called
6. A is the highest level on a pay scale that an employee can achieve under his or contract.
7. is the act of reducing a salary.

Match the phrasal verbs in column A with their definitions in column B and complete the following phrases, discovering new meanings:

A

1. Put across
2. Put back
3. Put down
4. Put forward
5. Put in
6. Put off

B

- a. to move something to a later time or date
- b. to suggest an idea
- c. to make an official request or claim
- d. to cancel or delay something
- e. to write something down or make notes about something
- f. to communicate to somebody

1. He his thoughts clearly and forcefully to the audience.
2. The meeting has been to 20 March.
3. I've a request for a pay rise.
4. You should a paragraph explaining the indemnity provisions to the client.
5. We'll have to discussion of that issue until our next meeting.
6. I had to a deposit on the purchase of the property.
7. I've a few ideas which we can discuss during our meeting
8. The meeting's been a few hours.
9. Four colleagues themselves as candidates.
10. She a lot of hours on that case.

Decide if the definitions given for the idioms and other expressions in bold are true or false.

1. Someone or something that is **a cut above** other people or things is much better than those people or things.
2. If you are having a conversation with someone and you **cut them short**, you stop talking so that they can say something.
3. If you are **cut up** about something (for example, you are cut up about the way you are treated by someone), you are very happy and surprised.
4. If somebody **cuts you dead**, they shout at you because they are very angry.

5. A new employee in your company **doesn't cut the mustard**. In other words, he / she is not good enough.
6. Something in a shop that is described as **cut-price** is more expensive than it should be.
7. If your friend has a plan, and you **cut the ground out from under his feet**, you offer to support him, usually by lending him money.
8. A business that is described as **cutthroat** is a one that has a disadvantage because it is smaller than other businesses making the same product or offering the same service.
9. When someone **cuts loose** (for example, they cut loose from their family), they stop being influenced or controlled by them.
10. If you **cut off your nose to spite your face**, you work so hard and for so long that you become ill.
11. You have a train to catch and you are **cutting it fine**. This means that you have arrived at the station very early and have plenty of time before the train leaves.
12. If something is described as **cut and dried** (for example, "The issue of pay rises is cut and dried."), it is being talked about very carefully.
13. If something is described as **cutting-edge** (for example, cutting edge technology), it is very dangerous.
14. If you say to someone "**Cut it out!**", you are telling them to stop doing something that you do not like.
15. If, in a meeting, you **cut to the chase**, you waste time by talking about small, unimportant issues rather than issues which are more urgent.
16. A **cutting remark** is a remark that is cruel and intended to upset someone.
17. If you are in a difficult or unpleasant situation and you decide to **cut and run**, you pretend that the situation is not so difficult or unpleasant and continue behaving as normal.
18. If somebody tells you something important or impressive, and you say "**That doesn't cut any ice with me**", you are telling them that you have had the same experience yourself.
19. If you are doing a job and you **cut corners**, you do not do the job as thoroughly as you should, especially because you want to finish it as quickly as possible.
20. If you **cut somebody down to size**, you talk kindly to them and help them because they are very upset.
21. If somebody says something to you that **cuts you to the quick**, they offer you a suggestion or an idea which would help you a lot.
22. Somebody **cuts a dash** in the new clothes they are wearing. In other words, the clothes make them look stupid.

23. If you **cut something short** (for example, you cut a visit short), you arrive early.

24. If something **cuts both ways**, it has both good and bad aspects.

25. You and your friend own a car together, and your friend wants to sell it. You tell him that you want **your cut**. This means that you want to decide whether or not the car is sold.

Rearrange the letters of words in the box and use them to complete the text below:

concaut	trdaveamtiinis	ingfadfor	tcosur	pudistes	tinoogf
elitiesbr	pevarit	meprolaicd	edresime	sguaafdiegrn	ssitu

In 1885, the English scholar Albert Venn Dicey famously _____ (1) that in England, unlike France, there was no such thing called _____ (2) law. Government officers could be held to _____ (3) for their actions, like _____ (4) individuals, before the ordinary _____ (5) of law. The same judges, applying the same rules and _____ (6) the same rights and _____ (7), had the power to decide both _____ (8) against the government and purely private _____ (9). Dicey argued that by treating public administration and private individuals on the same _____ (10), the English system did a better job of _____ (11) basic _____ (12) and therefore was superior to the French one.

Match the half-sentences in column A with the half-sentences in column B to make complete and logical sentences.

A

1. Today, with the elaboration of numerous legal doctrines specific to administration,
2. The main vestiges of the original model that have survived
3. Because of the focus on the objective lawfulness of rules,
4. The fact that an administrative decision takes the form of a generally applicable regulation,

B

- a. are to be found in the area of government torts and public contracts.
- b. it is evident that even in England, administrative law is a field apart from private law.
- c. any individual affected by a rule can come forward to contest its correctness.
- d. until recently, a fairly meek system of judicial remedies.

5. Another consequence of this stylization of administrative adjudication was,
6. The notion of public service was invented to cover any state activity performed in the general interest,
7. To ensure continuity and adaptability, the administration is permitted
8. In contrast with common law systems like the United States,
9. The theoretical apparatus of government privileges and duties at the core of administrative law
10. Public law is coming to borrow more and more from private law and therefore,
- e. not simply the core functions of policing and defense.
- f. is not a barrier to getting into court.
- g. in the French tradition, state liability and government contracts are integral to the discipline.
- h. extends to all forms of administrative action and all attempts to obtain individual redress from government wrongs.
- i. to unilaterally modify government contracts with private providers.
- j. public contracts and governmental liability are losing some of their distinctiveness.

Replace the phrasal verbs in italics with an appropriate verb or verbal construction; the first one has been done as an example:

I have neither the time nor the courage *to go into*/**to investigate** this controversial case.

Who will *stand in for*/_____ Jane while she is away?

Who do you think *I ran into*/_____ yesterday?

I have a job now, so I no longer *live on*/_____ my parents.

The novel which I have been working on for such a long time will eventually *come out*_____ next month.

His *coming into*/_____ a big fortune *turned out*/_____ to be a blessing in disguise.

I won't *give* your secrets *away*/_____ provided that you *are through with*/_____ that man once and for ever.

He will never *come up to*/_____ her expectations.

Go ahead! I'll *catch up*/_____ with you in no time.

He has *gone through*/ _____ a lot lately; but with some effort you will get over/ _____ it.

Choose the right version to form phrasal verbs that fit in the context; check the list of the main phrasal verbs selected in the alphabetical order of the adverbial particle present at the end of the book before making your choice:

1. I don't know how you can put such an unbearable situation.
a) by with b) up of c) up with
2. The good sales brought an increase in the employee's salaries.
a) in b) around c) about
3. I guess the printer has either run paper or has broken
a) away with, down b) out of, down c) off with, off
4. Several companies have decided to lay ... employees and call all investment projects.
a) off, off b) out, off c) up, down
5. You have to learn how to if you are suffering from high stress levels.
a) draw back b) wind down c) hold up
6. My lawyer can bear the truth of my story with substantial evidence.
a) in b) away c) out
7. I called at the restaurant, but all the tables were up.
a) cleaned b) booked c) reserved
8. We tried to bring the unconscious woman but without any success.
a) round b) up c) over
9. Despite all difficulty, he finally managed to carry the orders he had been given.
a) about b) off c) out
10. His joke caught right away and the public was very excited.
a) on b) through c) out

Choose the right word, by eliminating the wrong one:

1. The defence *accepted/ excepted* the evidence no. 4.
2. Certain types of damage are *accepted/ excepted* from coverage in this insurance policy
3. The solicitor gave good *advice/ advise* regarding the case file.
4. Please *advice/ advise* me on what steps to undertake in order to file in the action.
5. Do not let the loss *affect/ effect* you.

6. The loss did not have an *affect/ effect* on me.
7. We *are all/ already* ready to move.
8. We *are all/ already* moved our things yesterday.
9. I intend to *emigrate/ immigrate* from Hong Kong.
10. I intend to *emigrate/ immigrate* to Canada.
11. My uncle is a *miner/ minor*.
12. This is a *miner/ minor* problem.
13. It is illegal for a *miner/ minor* to drink alcohol.
14. The *principal/ principle* spoke to us today.
15. The *principal/ principle* of democracy is important to Canadians.

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L'educazione linguistica e l'educazione letteraria, nella didattica dell'italiano insegnato come L2

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Abstract. *Italian Literature as a subject of study occupies a relevant place in the field of Glottodidactics, in general, and of Didactics of Italian language, in particular. The teaching of literature is more than a sub-discipline of Didactics itself, isolated and perfectly autonomous; it takes the shape of a fundamental deepening of the L2 language. Making the difference between teaching language and teaching literature during a didactic unit of literature, the Italian Didactics theorist P.E. Balboni explains that there may be applied six stages: motivation, globality, analysis, reflection, synthesis, verification (test).*

Keywords: Didactics (Glottodidactics); Study of Literature; Linguistic Education; Literary Education; Didactic Unit.

1. L'educazione linguistica e le sue mete

La didattica della lingua italiana per gli stranieri è parte dell'“insegnamento dell'insegnamento” delle lingue straniere. Essa esplora i processi di insegnamento e apprendimento delle lingue straniere in contesti istituzionali situati all'interno e all'esterno della scuola; si occupa degli obiettivi dell'insegnamento della lingua (comunicativo, interculturale, metodico, dell'apprendimento estetico e dello sviluppo personale) e, di conseguenza, di materiale, metodi e mezzi adatti a raggiungere simili obiettivi.

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Descrivere l'insegnamento e l'apprendimento delle lingue straniere costituisce il compito principale della didattica della lingua italiana come L2, così come lo sviluppo di suggerimenti per migliorare i processi di insegnamento/ apprendimento delle lingue straniere attraverso il contenuto, i metodi e l'organizzazione della lezione. Mentre la didattica delle lingue straniere era precedentemente intesa come una sorta di ricetta per l'insegnamento, in gran parte derivata dalla propria esperienza, essa ha subito un profondo cambiamento dagli anni '70 del secolo scorso. In primo luogo, la ricerca empirica sta diventando sempre più importante e, in secondo luogo, la didattica delle lingue straniere si riferisce molto più alla ricerca sull'insegnamento e l'apprendimento delle lingue di oggi e ad altre discipline accademiche come la linguistica, la letteratura e gli studi culturali, la psicologia e la pedagogia.

Le lingue umane che permettono alle persone di comunicare tra loro hanno strutture molto sistematiche. La linguistica è un campo che studia questi aspetti strutturali di una lingua. Quindi, essa può essere definita come lo studio sistematico e scientifico di una lingua e comprende lo studio del linguaggio in relazione alla sua natura, organizzazione, origine, impatto contestuale, formazione cognitiva e dialettica. I linguisti sono interessati alla natura delle lingue, alla loro componente sistematica, ai punti in comune e alle differenze che esistono tra le lingue umane e i processi cognitivi che entrano in gioco.

2. Lo specifico dell'educazione letteraria

La linguistica e gli studi letterari, come la maggior parte delle altre arti liberali, hanno subito notevoli cambiamenti dagli anni '60 del secolo scorso - cambiamenti che hanno influenzato i metodi usati e che hanno portato anche a una nuova determinazione degli oggetti di studio. Una delle conseguenze di questi cambiamenti è la crescente autonomia della linguistica e degli studi letterari, che si sono sviluppati in campi ampiamente separati e molto precisamente differenziati. La causa principale di questi cambiamenti fu una marcata teorizzazione che in linguistica portò a un interesse primario nelle domande sincroniche. Negli studi letterari, dal momento, al più tardi, degli anni '70, è in corso un vivace dibattito sulle possibilità e le variazioni di una "scienza letteraria". Tali tentativi di realizzare una teorizzazione della disciplina hanno generato una serie di campi come l'estetica, la sociologia della letteratura, la semiotica della letteratura, che ora esistono parallelamente alla storia letteraria tradizionalmente dominante.

La teorizzazione della glottodidattica e degli studi letterari è stata accompagnata da cambiamenti negli oggetti di studio reali. Non solo la forma scritta standard delle lingue e il canone tradizionale dei testi sono gli oggetti di studio, ma sempre più l'attenzione si concentra su un'ampia varietà di espressioni linguistiche e letterarie. Recentemente nell'area degli studi letterari una discussione sulla natura e la funzione dei media ha portato ancora una volta a una revisione considerevole dei temi da trattare; sempre più spesso le relazioni tra letteratura, film, nuovi media ecc. sono diventate di interesse centrale.

L'educazione linguistica e l'educazione letteraria formano il quadro teorico di due discipline distinte: lingua e letteratura. Però le due discipline sono anche complementari. Questo succede soprattutto nel caso della didattica di una letteratura "straniera" (italiana) insegnata "a stranieri". È il caso specifico che noi trattiamo qua, cioè il caso della letteratura italiana insegnata a stranieri (alunni/ studenti romeni).

Per definire l'educazione letteraria potremmo dire che essa, secondo Balboni, rappresenta la cornice teorica in cui si colloca l'insegnamento della letteratura; va considerata come una "iniziazione alla letteratura", in quanto attraverso essa "lo studente deve essere portato a scoprire l'esistenza della letteratura [...], a scoprirne i valori di verità, di testimonianza storico-culturale, di espressione estetica ottenuta tramite un uso particolare della lingua, talvolta da sola, talvolta in associazione con gesti, scene, musica, danza ecc."¹

L'insegnamento della lingua italiana richiede una struttura adeguata di educazione linguistica collocando l'insegnamento della letteratura italiana in una dimensione teorica dell'educazione letteraria. Secondo Balboni, l'educazione letteraria significa "un'insegnamento della storia culturale, al cui interno si accentua la storia letteraria", proponendovi l'analisi dei movimenti letterari e degli autori.

In una possibile definizione della letteratura, Balboni, come abbiamo già accennato in un'altra parte, si riferiva alla concordanza fra "*utile et dulce*", come una felice unione fra **bisogni e piacere**".² Creare la consapevolezza della doppia motivazione "bisogno/piacere" nel lettore-alunno è infatti il primo passo verso la comparsa dello "spirito critico" in questo. Secondo F. Caon e C. Spaliviero, "l'educazione letteraria è un processo formativo volto a insegnare a *leggere* i testi letterari, a coglierne

¹ Paolo E. Balboni, *Didattica dell'italiano a stranieri*, Università per Stranieri di Siena – Bonacci Editore, Siena, 1994, p. 120.

² *Ibid.*, p.122.

gli aspetti di letterarietà che li possono caratterizzare e a saperli analizzare e commentare per esprimere, infine un giudizio critico su di essi.”¹

Prima di tutto dobbiamo individuare le tecniche e le procedure didattiche nell’educazione linguistica, cioè quali sono i modelli operativi che si possono usare e anzitutto come procedere all’operazione di individuare le attività didattiche.

Balboni definisce un modello operativo come “una struttura che include tutte le possibili realizzazioni del fenomeno studiato essendo in grado di generare comportamenti, che deve essere semplice da usare”². Questi modelli, quello di *interazione didattica* e quello di *competenza e padronanza comunicativa* saranno fondamentali. Secondo Balboni, gli schemi operativi devono essere tali per cui le persone che insegnano possano portare le persone che apprendono a padroneggiare le varie lingue che entrano nell’educazione linguistica.

Uno dei principali contributori della glottodidattica italiana, Lombardo Radice, parla a riguardo dell’educazione linguistica definendola come una formazione profonda e non semplice *istruzione*, che include tutte le lingue che concorrono tutte insieme a perfezionare un concetto di competenza linguistica, di apprendimento linguistico.³

La didattica della letteratura italiana in lingua straniera viene fondata sul quadro didattico della rispettiva lingua straniera. Ne risulta l’importanza dell’acquisizione, da parte degli alunni/studenti, degli elementi fondamentali dell’educazione linguistica, al fine di accedere ai fondamenti dell’educazione letteraria che, a suo turno, fornisce lo sfondo della didattica e dello studio della letteratura straniera (il caso della letteratura italiana insegnata ad alunni romeni).

L’ottima padronanza della lingua italiana contemporanea, oggetto della materia linguistica, da parte dell’allievo, soggetto del processo didattico, agevola essenzialmente a quest’ultimo l’acquisizione delle competenze necessarie all’approccio ai testi letterari. La prospettiva di un tale approccio, dal punto di vista dello studio della letteratura, va nel senso di un approfondimento delle competenze linguistiche: stilistiche, le figure di stile, retoriche, ecc..

¹ Fabio Caon, Camilla Spaliviero, *Educazione letteraria, linguistica, interculturale*, Loescher Editore, Torino, 2015; (sito web: <http://docplayer.it/17468962-Linguistica-fabio-caon-camilla-spaliviero-educazione-letteraria-interculturale-intersezioni-bonacci-editore.html>).

² P. Balboni, op.cit., p. 119.

³ P. E. Balboni, *Fare educazione linguistica. Insegnare italiano, lingue straniere, lingue classiche*, 2^a ed., UTET, Torino, 2013, p. 9.

Durante lo studio della lingua e della letteratura l'obiettivo principale è rafforzare le capacità comunicative dello studente, indispensabili nel mondo contemporaneo, per qualsiasi tipo di attività professionale. Una nota specifica di questo studio è lo sviluppo della competenza culturale, che implica un processo di contestualizzazione storica e culturale del fenomeno letterario. Inoltre, attraverso lo studio della letteratura italiana, vengono perseguiti valori e attitudini, che contribuiscono alla formazione di un set linguistico diversificato, dotato con una sensibilità estetica. È risaputo che il linguaggio è uno strumento comunicativo fondamentale che definisce ed esprime egualmente l'essere che lo usa. Esso dà alla persona la capacità di rivelare la propria identità, mentre la conoscenza di una lingua e di una letteratura straniera apporta un contributo significativo alla conoscenza culturale di quella persona. In un ambiente appropriato, lo studente può comprendere la necessità di padroneggiare i mezzi di espressione nel miglior modo possibile, di analizzare altri modi specifici di progettare l'universo, ogni testo letterario che capisce essendo responsabile della formazione della capacità di espressione. Come esprimerti correttamente, come capire, come interpretare e imparare dalla letteratura italiana sono i tipi di interrogatorio che lo studente deve riflettere, sul complesso addestramento del quale essi stanno perseguendo. Il nuovo paradigma educativo di studiare una lingua straniera attraverso la letteratura implica lo studio completo di tre moduli: lingua, comunicazione, cultura. Lo scopo è la pratica razionale e funzionale del linguaggio, trasformata in un corso di nozioni linguistiche senza una risonanza speciale per lo studente che intuisce il significato delle parole, in un universo dinamico e funzionale, flessibile, in un organismo vivente con una moltitudine di significati e funzioni. La letteratura dovrebbe essere intesa come mezzo per trasmettere il linguaggio letterario pieno di significati profondi, ma anche come un modo specifico di mettere in valore modelli validi e sensibili di comprensione e articolazione della concezione linguistica.

3. La comprensione nell'ambito dell'educazione letteraria

L'obiettivo dell'utilizzo dei testi letterari è sviluppare la capacità di ricevere il messaggio orale, la capacità di parlare oralmente, di ricevere il messaggio scritto, di esprimere la lingua scritta, di utilizzare la lingua corretta e appropriata della lingua italiana nel ricevere e produrre messaggi in diverse situazioni di comunicazione, modalità di analisi tematiche, strutturali e stilistiche nella ricezione di diversi testi letterari e

non letterari, argomentazioni orali o scritte di opinioni in varie situazioni di comunicazione.

Gli studi linguistici e letterari potrebbero anche cooperare nel campo della tipologia testuale. Sia l'attuale comprensione linguistica di testo, molto più ampia rispetto a quelle più antiche, sia l'approccio di studi culturali ai fenomeni di tipo testuale, implicano che il tipo di testo possa essere compreso non solo da una prospettiva interna alla lingua, ma anche come modelli comunicativi e artefatti culturali. Possono essere intesi come strumenti di azione collettiva, che i membri di una comunità culturale producono insieme, in modo da vivere e agire insieme nella loro realtà vissuta e impegnarsi in modo riflessivo e pratico. I tipi di testo sono tanto coinvolti nella forma delle culture quanto da esse sono formate. Il loro condizionamento culturale è strettamente correlato alla loro caratteristica di agire come "pacchetti" di conoscenze cristallizzati. Gli schemi (intesi in senso cognitivo), che sono alla base degli usi linguistico-comunicativi di particolari tipi di testo, sono le intersezioni tra aree rilevanti di conoscenza, alle quali appartengono, insieme alla conoscenza enciclopedica del mondo, la conoscenza delle norme comportamentali e la conoscenza linguistica, come anche la conoscenza culturale.

La comprensione del testo letterario si basa sui tre elementi su cui si basa anche la comprensione di un testo esteticamente generico (neutro). Nel caso del testo letterario, però, gli elementi su cui viene fondata la comprensione sono, secondo Balboni:

- *“La conoscenza del mondo*, organizzata in schemi che ci consentono di classificare la nostra esperienza di vita, a differenza dello schema statico in cui le situazioni tipiche della vita vengono viste come il frutto di grammatiche pragmatico comportamentali; in altre parole, capiamo l'informazione di un testo quando questa è limitata quantitativamente e collocata in certe posizioni ed è in qualche modo prevedibile all'interno di un paradigma abbastanza limitato di possibilità;

- *Alcuni processi cognitivi* che contribuiscono alla comprensione. Tali processi legano la fonte esterna di informazioni con la realtà psichica di chi comprende. Il meccanismo principale è quello *proposizionale*, secondo il quale la proposizione da comprendere deve necessariamente includere un *predicato* e degli *argomenti* che la mente va a cercare nelle proposizioni che deve comprendere. [...] Un altro processo è legato alla ridondanza *sintattica*, di *coerenza* e *coesione testuale*, di natura *interferenziale*;

- *La competenza nella lingua* in cui è steso il testo: attività che si possono fare per lingue ancora in fase di acquisizione di base e attività per

lingue di cui si ha padronanza, per cui l'attività è volta a migliorare le strategie di comprensione e non ad acquisire lingua."¹

Come ne risulta, la comprensione di un testo letterario è infatti un processo complesso, la cui ultima meta è risultato di un percorso che in principio parte da una buona padronanza del codice linguistico nel quale il rispettivo testo è stato concepito e ulteriormente scritto.

4. L'unità didattica applicata nell'insegnamento della letteratura

Possiamo evidentemente affermare, da quanto ne abbiamo già trattato fino a questo punto, che la didattica della letteratura ha un tema specifico, a cui dev'essere assegnato un determinato percorso e determinate tappe, con fini specifici da raggiungere. P. E. Balboni descrive un modello di percorso didattico formato da sei fasi o tappe successive: *la motivazione, la globalità, l'analisi, la riflessione, la sintesi, la verifica (test)*.² Già in partenza dobbiamo evidenziare una differenza rispetto a quello che succede nell'insegnamento della lingua: l'esistenza di una fase iniziale specifica alla didattica della letteratura, diversa da quella della didattica linguistica. Tale fase (insieme alla necessità della sua presenza nel percorso didattico menzionato) è descritta da P. E. Balboni, con il nome di *motivazione*.

4.1. Motivazione

L'utilità dell'esistenza di una fase iniziale della *motivazione* nell'insegnamento letterario ha una prima spiegazione nell'età abbastanza bassa dell'alunno liceale, secondo Balboni,³ quindi nella sua necessità di essere formato a tutti i livelli dello sviluppo della propria personalità. L'alunno liceale si ritrova in uno stato evolutivo che richiama all'imperiosa necessità di essere guidato, educato, controllato, quindi incluso in un complesso processo formativo.

D'altra parte, diremmo, tale fase sembrerebbe non ugualmente necessaria, nel caso dello studente, la cui presenza nel processo dell'insegnamento letterario (universitario) è il risultato di una sua libera scelta, dovut alla sua passione ed al suo diretto interesse per lo studio della

¹ Ibid., pp. 103-104.

² Paolo E. Balboni, *Didattica dell'italiano a stranieri*, 3^a edizione, Università per Stranieri di Siena – Bonacci editore, Roma, 1994, p. 73.

³ Ibid.

letteratura. Invece persino in questo caso, l'utilità della motivazione esiste, siccome non sempre la scelta dello studente per gli studi universitari letterari non è sempre una molto chiara ed esplicita, intervenendovi spesso anche altri tipi di circostanze e ragionamenti del giovane studioso (comunque ad una età della formazione individuale e professionale non ancora matura).

Infatti, Balboni considera tale fase nella sua prospettiva formativa fondamentale nell'insegnamento letterario: "aiutare lo studente a scoprire che la letteratura è un piacere linguistico e che risponde a dei bisogni esistenziali è insieme motivazione didattica e meta educativa del percorso."¹

Questa fase motivazionale ha la funzione di avviare il discorso sui concetti specifici del campo, sulle distinzioni fra i generi letterari, sulla varietà tematica testuale, sull'inquadramento di un autore in un'epoca, una corrente, uno stile, una filosofia, su distinzioni concettuali basilari (come sarebbe, per esempio, quella fra "tradizionale" e "moderno"). A questo punto, si anticipa già il passaggio verso una ramificazione orientata su varie esperienze di lettura, soggetto infatti della fase ulteriore.

4.2. Globalità

La *globalità* è, quindi, una fase a carattere plurimo. Una diversificazione tipologica testuale da seguire determina quello che Balboni chiama "lettura estensiva". Questo tipo di lettura porta l'alunno al fine di una "comprensione globale" dei fatti che il testo gli trasmette: il narrare di eventi, la descrizione di paesaggi, posti, costumi, l'argomentazione di atteggiamenti, pensieri, azioni.

L'approccio a qualsiasi testo letterario segue – come osserva Balboni – la direzionalità neurolinguistica² (dall'emisfero destro del cervello, all'emisfero sinistro), che proprio nella materia della letteratura raggiunge "il massimo di interazione tra i due emisferi". Una precisazione interessante di Balboni fa capire che tale fase potrebbe essere organizzata dall'insegnante a piccoli gruppi, per una ragione di tipo linguistico: in tal

¹ Ibid.

² *Neurolinguistica* in *Vocabolario Treccani, Treccani.it*. N.p., 2018. Web. 24 Genn. 2017: **neurolinguistica** s. f. [comp. di *neuro-* e *linguistica*]. – Corrente di pensiero che, associando alcuni metodi della linguistica ai dati prevalentemente morfologici delle ricerche anatomo-cliniche e neurofisiologiche, studia la connessione fra disturbi del linguaggio (soprattutto le afasie) e lesioni cerebrali.

modo, gli alunni possono individuare e superare con maggiore facilità le possibili difficoltà di lingua.¹

Siccome un'unità didattica di letteratura è costituita da una rete di percorsi paralleli destinati ad una serie di testi della stessa epoca o corrente letteraria, dello stesso tema o autore, la seconda fase nell'insegnamento letterario dovrebbe essere rappresentata dalla *globalità* della visione sull'oggetto di studio: la "lettura globale ed estensiva", che sia in grado di assicurare la generale comprensione dei contenuti del testo.²

4.3. Analisi

La terza fase della didattica della letteratura sarebbe rappresentata dall'*analisi* letteraria. Questa – fa notare lo stesso Balboni – è orientata "a far emergere gli aspetti formali che costituiscono la letterarietà del testo"³, cioè quella rete di segni, marchi, tratti o significanti che indicano il carattere di "letterario" di un determinato testo ed il suo valore estetico.

La fase dell'analisi, nell'ambito dell'unità didattica, ha (come anche la fase anteriore) la caratteristica della molteplicità: la sequenza analitica orientata su un determinato testo viene ripresa per ogni nuovo testo indicato nel "corpus" bibliografico della rispettiva unità didattica. In tal modo, l'alunno viene guidato verso due fini paralleli. Il primo – immediato – sarebbe dato da un allargamento della sua prospettiva sul tema centrale studiato (autore / corrente / tematica). Il secondo – orientato a lungo termine – dovrebbe portare l'alunno a formarsi una routine di approccio testuale, che col tempo gli potrà determinare una stabile *esperienza analitica*.

Se per la globalità abbiamo parlato di "lettura estensiva", la fase dell'analisi cambia orientamento verso una "lettura intensiva,"⁴ guidata dall'insegnante verso gli aspetti specifici della letterarietà del testo soggetto dell'analisi.

4.4. Riflessione

Percorsa e conclusa la tappa dell'analisi, Balboni indica la fase successiva: la *riflessione*.⁵ Con l'aiuto della guida dell'insegnante, gli alunni / studenti

¹ Cf. P. E. Balboni, *Didattica dell'italiano a stranieri*, ed.cit, p. 128.

² Cf. P. E. Balboni, op.cit., p. 73.

³ Ibid.

⁴ Ibid, p. 128.

⁵ Ibid., p. 73.

sono invitati a riflettere (aggiungeremmo la precisazione: con l'aiuto di vari metodi e strumenti didattici) sui punti comuni dei testi anteriormente analizzati: lo stile e la poetica dell'autore (per i testi di un unico autore); la filosofia riflessa nei testi e le varie forme di presentarsi di tale filosofia, oppure di filosofie contrarie, punti comuni o simili e punti di divergenza (per testi della stessa corrente letteraria, oppure di due correnti in opposizione); i diversi modi di trattare un argomento simile (nel caso dei testi con un tema comune); le tecniche di costruzione e le caratteristiche strutturali di testi diversi (nello studio di un genere letterario) ecc..

Come si vede, torniamo ad una fase di "estensione", che ha lo scopo di stabilire punti di connessione tra il testo oggetto dell'analisi ed altri testi anteriormente analizzati nell'ambito dell'unità didattica. Simili connessioni si possono fare, anticipando, anche con testi che saranno analizzati ulteriormente, creando nell'alunno uno stato che chiameremmo *tensione di aspettativa*. Tale stato, consideriamo sia anch'esso generatore di *esperienza analitica*, stavolta possibile anche a breve termine.

Osserviamo che si insiste, nella tappa della riflessione, su un "triangolo" concettuale rappresentato dalle sue tre punte, che determineremmo con la seguente terminologia:

- *testo* (contenuto ideatico, realizzazione stilistica e formale);
- *autore* (poetica assunta, filosofia, elementi biografici);
- *contesto* (periodo storico-culturale, corrente letteraria, ecc.).

Un simile modo di contestualizzare le conoscenze acquisite è di massima importanza per una migliore l'impostazione del discorso specifico della tappa che segue nell'unità didattica.

4.5. Sintesi

La fase seguente è considerata da Balboni quella della *sintesi*. Essa "prende la forma di un apprezzamento critico (centrato sull'emisfero sinistro) e un apprezzamento emotivo (emisfero destro): in altre parole l'allievo dichiara <<mi piace / non mi piace>> e giustifica la sua scelta (sintesi tra gli emisferi cerebrali)."¹

Ci troviamo quindi nel momento in cui il testo oggetto dell'analisi "viene sottoposto alla critica dell'allievo, che deve *esprimere* e, soprattutto, *giustificare* il proprio giudizio."² Appropriarsi il testo analizzato diventa il fine fondamentale per l'alunno sottoposto al processo didattico: a seconda dell'emotività e dei principi suoi, l'alunno viene

¹ Ibid.

² Ibid., p. 128.

stimolato dall'insegnante ad esprimere un giudizio proprio e, in seguito, anche a giustificarlo.

L'esaurimento dei testi prescelti a far parte dell'unità porta "alla *sintesi* ed alla *riflessione* conclusive,"¹ orientate sull'oggetto prefissato della rispettiva unità didattica: un autore (Ariosto, Dante, Calvino), una corrente letteraria (il Dolce stil novo, il Romanticismo, l'ermetismo), un tema (l'amor cortese, la guerra e la pace, il viaggio).

4.6. Verifica e feedback qualitativo

La fase che conclude l'unità didattica per l'approccio al testo letterario è costituita dal momento della *verifica*, rappresentata dal *controllo* del percorso generale seguito e del *feedback* qualitativo, attraverso lo strumento didattico del *test*.

Perciò, considerando la sequenza delle fasi presentate nella descrizione dell'unità d'insegnamento della letteratura, Balboni riassume con uno schema:²



Sintetizza Balboni stesso le azioni specifiche alle fasi nella loro consecuzione nel percorso: "per ogni testo si ha:

- lettura estensiva;
- lettura intensiva;
- contestualizzazione;
- estensione e collegamento con altri testi;
- giudizio critico e appropriazione personale."³

Nella ripresa di tali azioni, dobbiamo ricordare la necessità dell'insegnante di assicurarsi del feedback sulle abilità che gli alunni stanno sviluppando durante ogni tappa. La verifica deve situarsi in concordanza con i fini del processo didattico prestabiliti dall'insegnante. Quindi, l'attività di verifica e controllo deve avere al centro un testo letterario simile a quelli analizzati nel percorso (appartenente allo stesso autore, tema, genere, corrente). Su esso, verrà impostata la verifica orientata verso la lettura, la comprensione, l'analisi. Balboni riporta l'esempio dell'unità didattica

¹ Ibid.

² Ibid., p. 73.

³ Ibid., p.129.

incentrata sull'argomento "Romanticismo italiano": stabilita all'inizio dell'unità la finalità (determinare l'alunno ad appropriarsi dei tratti specifici del Romanticismo), la verifica verrà concepita a partire da un testo romantico, in cui l'alunno dovrà identificare ed argomentare, tramite strumenti di opportuna analisi acquisiti durante il percorso didattico, una serie di elementi romantici.

Per "opportuna analisi", dovremmo intendere un'analisi argomentata su elementi di contenuto del testo da analizzare, con l'uso di tecniche specifiche tanto all'educazione linguistica, quanto all'educazione letteraria.

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Norms of Assessment and Easing Inhibition in Learners

Paula Alice BĂLOIU ¹

Abstract. *The evaluation of the accomplished work by each student represents the understanding reached with the teaching method used by the teacher. School performance is underlined by the success or failure of the learners concerned. These two elements are balanced with quality teaching methods, training of teachers, teaching and learning resources, and the structure of a lesson, learner's motivation or quality assessment of acquired knowledge. Functions of evaluation are ranked by several criteria defining: performing in preparing students classification in terms of value in a group study, highlighting the level of each student with graphics, optimizing the teaching-learning experience and learning efficiency in a social context. In this study, I will rely on using Traditional Didactics, which is represented by various evaluation techniques such as: listening or testing for each lesson taught, semester final testing or testing at the end of the academic year. As a perfecting direction, it is necessary to grant them a higher degree in formative assessment, the educational exchange between teacher-student in class and the ability to be further improved. In the end, there needs to be a technique to reduce the effects that harm or hinder the development of the educational process and increased the ability for self-learning including students of all ages.*

Keywords: Teacher-Student Ratio; Education; Formative Assessment; Traditional Teaching.

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1. Introduction

It is clear that in a teacher's job the most important issue is how to assess the students' work or progress in learning.

Firstly, in order to deliberate the conditions, it depends on the teachers' knowledge: if they studied Child Psychology, they would know that every student learns and understands things in different ways, thus it is their duty as reliable guides in the world of literature and sciences to find a suitable approach method for each individual.

There is specified in various papers, regarding the previous statement, that *"grades aren't everything"* and that there are two classifications of this spectrum:

- The ones that did not reach the requirements for passing, thus it is a great opportunity for them to learn from this experience to achieve success in the future.
- The ones that did well accomplishing their goal, thus having no problems in the near future as they continue to grow and flourish in the professional aspect.

But both categories need to accept the fact that marks are not to be the ones that represent a person's true capabilities. They are not to be seen as a reflection of one's intelligence, but the mirror image of hard work.

For example, 2017 VCE¹ student Daniel Hu received an ATAR² of 99.85 and he insists on the fact that this mark was not easy to achieve.

"One important lesson I learnt through these 13 years of schooling is that success doesn't necessarily belong to those who are naturally talented, or those from wealthy family backgrounds. It belongs to those who work hard."

¹ The Victorian Certificate of Education or VCE is one credential available to secondary school students who successfully complete year 11 and 12 in the Australian state of Victoria. The VCE is the predominant choice for students wishing to pursue tertiary education.

² Australian Tertiary Admission Rank is the primary criterion for entry into most undergraduate-entry university programs in Australia. It is a percentile score given between "less than 30" up to 99.95 (in a minimum increment of 0.05) which denotes a student's ranking relative to their peers upon completion of their secondary education.

I took it upon myself to study as hard as possible for the HSC¹... I worked assiduously, trying to maximize my potential in every subject. I am not an intelligent kid. In terms of intelligence, I'm probably below average. Yet, that never fazed me."

2. Balancing Intelligence and Testing Students

Referring primarily to students, any grade (mark) they receive is everything in terms of their position in front of colleagues and in front of their parents. The teacher is the one who must take into account the mental state of the student, the degree of timidity, the happenings in their life or the living conditions of their family.

The mark should not be influenced by other factors that are not strictly related to the knowledge material itself and it should reflect only the result of knowledge acquired by each individual.

Generally on the wide web there is a quote which can be traced to a well-established parable involving animals and their ability to do a series of impossible actions – the main highlighted idea is the misconception of judging someone for something that they are incapable of doing or do not acquire the skill to perform it: *"Everyone is a genius. But if you judge a fish by its ability to climb a tree, it will live its whole life believing that it is stupid."*

Howard Earl Gardner² discussed in his book "Frames of Mind. The theory of multiple intelligences," that the term intelligence is a finite entity that derives from only one factor and can only be measured via IQ tests.

There is a list of seven different notions of astuteness which can be further grouped into three main categories: the first two are representative and dealt with extra care in the educational system; the next three are usually linked with children that have the genius genes of the arts and abstract; the last two however are correspondent with the "personal intelligence" classification known as Emotional Intelligence (EQ).

The initial multiple intelligence theory assessment is as follows:

¹ The Higher Secondary Certificate, also known as HSC or Intermediate or +2 examination, is a public examination taken by students of intermediate college.

² An American developmental psychologist and the John H. and Elisabeth A. Hobbs Research Professor of Cognition and Education at the Harvard Graduate School of Education at Harvard University.

- a. **Linguistic** – extra sensitivity to spoken and written language, fluency and ease in learning a new dialect then using that notion to accomplish certain goals.
- b. **Logical-mathematical** - the capacity to analyse problems logically, given the task they may mainly solve it mathematical operations, and investigate issues that might arise from a scientifically point of view.
- c. **Musical** – it involves having definite skills ranging between performance, composition, and appreciation of musical patterns.
- d. **Bodily-kinaesthetic** - entails the possibility of making use of one’s whole body or parts of the body to solve problems.
- e. **Spatial** - involves the recognition and use of different patterns of the wide space or a more confined area that they find themselves into.
- f. **Interpersonal** - is mainly concerned with the ability to understand or sense the intentions, motivations and desires of other people.
- g. **Intrapersonal** - entails the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one’s feelings, fears and motivations.

So if institutes decide to test students only by the first two criteria out of seven other possible elements, then they are declaring a huge number of people mentally challenged. In addition, if by assessing a certain group of children to this narrow way of testing they may spend their whole life thinking that their mental capabilities are not enough for the general imposed standards that is expected of them by society, friends or family.

“Education is that which remains, if one has forgotten everything he learned in school.” This precise quote was clarified by Editor Alice Calaprice in “The Ultimate Quotable Einstein,” saying that the great physicist Einstein agreed with this statement, but did not actually say it. In fact, he was citing an excerpt by an anonymous “wit” in a chapter he wrote on education, included in his book *Out of My Later Years*.

In a 2014 article, “The High-Stakes Testing Culture: How We Got Here, How We Get Out,” Monty Neill, the executive director of FairTest, the National Center for Fair and Open Testing, spoke to NEA Today about today’s testing culture:

“A recent survey of the Colorado Education Association found that teachers spend 30 percent of their time on prep and testing,” Neill said. “It’s not uncommon for districts to test their students ten times a year. Some districts have more than 30 tests a year in one grade. Pittsburgh has 35 tests in grade four, with nearly as many in some other grades. Chicago

had 14 mandated tests for kindergarteners, and nearly as many in grades one and two.”

When presented with this situation of statistics and alarming results many fellow teachers including parents were left speechless. Because of the sheer volume of information the situation today in many school is focusing on learning and the testing the acquired knowledge, something that differs from the time when: there were snack breaks or story time included in the lesson, leisure with fellow classmates in order for them to strengthen their social skills (which are even today necessary for a correct emotional development).

In the article there is specified that there are 14 different authorized tests for kindergarteners which arises indignation between educators - Ginger Rose Fox, an art teacher based in Los Angeles, said in another NEA Today article “*Shouldn’t these early grades be a time to discover, play, and explore?*” and she is definitely right about that even going further in expressing her point of view “*We talk all the time about making our kids ‘college and career ready’ – even at such a young age. Let’s make them ‘life ready’ first. But I guess that doesn’t fit into our testing obsession.*”

Furthermore, **The No Child Left behind Act**¹ (NCLB) spawned more teaching using a very specific plan, more testing of new data so that it can be analyzed and later on processed and if the end results are not satisfactory, strict punishments are put in place for those students that did not meet certain standards of proficiency. An update on this law concerns the aspect of rising up the federal role in holding schools accountable for students’ outcome.

Basically each institution that is under this law states children should be tested in *reading skills and mathematics* in grade 3 throughout 8, then another time when in high school. Results are delivered in final reports and structured in such a way that divides students into particular groups or subgroups, for example English-learners and special education pupils; racial minorities or children that have a low-family income background.

Schools are kept in line and rigorously supervised through a mechanism known as “*adequate yearly progress*” or AYP. If that educational establishment does not reach the annual achievement bar then it will result in various prohibitions according to their level of testing:

¹ The No Child Left behind Act of 2002 (NCLB) was a U.S. Act of Congress that reauthorized the Elementary and Secondary Education Act; it included Title I provisions applying to disadvantaged students. Its replacement, the Every Student Succeeds Act, turned the remnants over to the states.

a. A school that misses AYP two years in a row has to allow students to transfer to a better-performing public school in the same district.

b. A school misses AYP for three years in a row, it must offer free tutoring.

c. If schools continue to miss achievement targets, it could face state intervention. Meaning that the state can choose to shut down or turn them into charter schools, rearrange their inner structure or use another, significant turnaround strategy.

d. Schools that don't make AYP have to set aside a portion of their federal Title I dollars for tutoring and school choice. By reaching this point on at the school's choice must hold back 10 percent of their Title I¹ money.

States are required to bring all of their students to the "proficient level," although each one of them can make the decision individually what level of proficiency are we taking into account. As example, in 2015, the imposed deadline was passed by not one of the states mentioned, because they could not get all 100 percent of its students over the proficiency bar.

Also the teachers need to be "*highly qualified*," which means that they must have a bachelor's degree in the subject they are teaching and state certification. For example, in the school year 2002-2003, all instructors hired with federal Title I money had to be highly qualified and by the end of 2005-2006 school year, they must have a complete 2 years of college, an obtained associate's degree or higher or they had to have a passing score in evaluation of demonstrating their teaching skills.

As a conclusion, by 2010 a great number of schools were not going to achieve the NCLB's requirements - 38 percent of schools were failing to make adequate yearly progress, up from 29 percent in 2006. In the year 2011, U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan, as part of his campaign to get Congress to rewrite the law, issued and I quote "*dire warnings that 82 percent of schools would be labeled "failing" that year.*" In the end the numbers were not that high, but several states had a more than 50 percent failing rate.

Neill also highlighted the fact that "States and districts conducted more tests to use as test preparation and predictors. If students didn't do well on the predictor local tests, schools would intervene with more prep

¹ The section of the law providing federal funding to school districts to educate disadvantaged children. The Title I program was initially created under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and is now part of the No Child Left behind Act, the most recent reauthorization of that law.

and more practice tests to raise the scores of mandated federal test. Test prep has become a very large part of the school year, especially in low-income communities where many students perform poorly on the tests.”

Generally speaking, in a more basic situation the teacher must have a notebook where all the names of the students are written and they record the classes daily participation in discussions or highlighted topics of that day, their opinion on a certain subject, if they can make plausible remarks regarding class discussions, or if they can keep up a conversation not only with the teacher but also with the whole classroom.

The oral evaluation mark should be granted after several tests are done because the teacher has to take into account that one day a student might not feel well, or he/she might have trouble in the family and cannot concentrate fully on the task at hand.

Some children are very bold and sometimes it can happen that they do not allow other people to speak (question/response rule of discourse), in this case the teacher must keep their calm and try to explain to that student that they must respect those around him and when someone speaks they should not interrupt them. In this way the teacher can remind the class basic rules of dialogue between people and even develop a better relationship between peers in that respective class.

There are children that are shy and hardly dare to “speak out” answers; they should be encouraged by the teacher using “*the small steps method*”: the student will always be asked to participate in the conversation, bringing up certain things to express their honest opinion on certain issues, which require further elaboration.

This interaction between teacher - student, student - groups in its classroom is the foundation for the child's future attitude and their beliefs about their own success or failure, which lead to a healthy self-image.

Adopting a positive attitude towards children will bring them success in the future, as they are often responsible for it. In addition, success brings a sense of self-confidence, so by encouraging, teachers give the students a higher school performance, giving a future socio-professional integration, an opportunity for a productive personality – in order for them to be able to take quick decisions and adapt to complex and new situations.

Over testing, can affect the children on psychological level, in the same article, Neill said that “Parents see kids who are bored, frustrated, and stressed. At the dinner table, they ask their kids what they did that day, and hear, ‘We had another test. It was really boring.’ Parents don’t want their kids educated in this manner.”

Also Chad Donohue’s 2015 article, entitled “Our Children Are Being Tampered With’: A Teacher Speaks Out on Emotional Effects of High-

Stakes Testing,” it is emphasized on the fact that abusing the child with tests has a negative effect on their emotional state.

As a middle school English and social studies teacher, Donohue observes the impact over testing has on the classroom (high level of strain, stress and exhaustion): “As a teacher of twelve and thirteen year olds, I am far more interested in my students’ well-being than their national ranking, and their body language alone tells me something is wrong. They look overwhelmed and exhausted. More than ever, I see this disappointment in students. More than ever, I see kids showing signs of depression and anxiety in school.”

According to Donohue, children are showing signs of depression and repressed anxiety. These extreme testing methods affect 20 percent of school-aged children and 18 percent may experience milder forms of it.

Moreover, The Anxiety and Depression Association of America¹ states that “*feelings of disappointment, anger, helplessness and fear are typical reactions to test anxiety.*”

“Standardized tests seem to ignore the reality that kids are at various stages in their emotional development and maturity,” Donohue said. “They are sensitive to what happens in school. Middle school students, for example, experience an epidemic of psychological and emotional changes that manifest themselves in a wide range of behaviors and thoughts. Things often do not feel ‘normal’ to them. More than anything else, kids want to feel accepted; they want to belong.”

By aspiring to have perfect grades, children are decreasing the optimal level for their mental state; this is shown in a US study which implies that “80 per cent of surveyed students based their sense of self-worth on their grades.” Meaning that if the grades are low so is their level of self-esteem and the grading system keeps on changing for a better representation of the learning assessments not their psychological state of mind.

An Australian study “revealed that 70 per cent of respondents rated their health as ‘fair’ or ‘poor’.”

- i. 79 per cent of students suffered from anxiety
- ii. 75.8 per cent suffered from low moods
- iii. 59.2 per cent experienced feelings of hopelessness and worthlessness

¹ The Anxiety and Depression Association of America (ADAA) is a U.S. nonprofit organization dedicated to increasing awareness and improving the diagnosis, treatment, and cure of anxiety disorders in children and adults.

Adding to their unbalanced emotional state and the stress of growing up, the students are facing each and every day negative media response where *failure* is a term that must not exist in the process of evolving into a successful member of the society, but it can be a heavy label that should be worn by those who fail to succeed. We can see this idea being represented in such phrases that children say: “I suck at all these tests” or “I always fail these tests.”

Many online studies have declared that 82.1 per cent of students had suffered from lack of energy and motivation; 55 per cent had trouble sleeping and 52.7 per cent had experienced panic attacks.

Lack of sleep is important for self-regulation of the whole body, so if this is unstable then the child will lose the ability to control their emotions, cognitive functions and general behavior. If the child is sleep deprived there is an increased rank for anxiety – more likely they will not be able to concentrate and study in the classroom.

Apprehension is also known to affect the working memory and we can sense the increased level of this in the exam period, where every learner is trying to attain as much information as they can in order to receive a passing grade, not taking into account that they may skip certain basic needs, for example sleep, food, breaks etc.

All of these elements are increasing the pressure on the already vulnerable state of mind for each student and in today’s society; they are faced with additional requirements that need to be achieved in order to pass to the next level of formative assessment. But by reviving creative or social teachings, the students will not be left to idle in class - the teacher is the mobilizer, they are the engine that start each student to love learning new concepts in a more fun way rather than having a strict lesson planning that they need to solve in a timed manner.

3. Self-Consciousness in Learners and How to Structure a Lesson Plan

According to Cambridge English Dictionary, “Inhibition or inhibitory control is the ability to inhibit or control impulsive (or automatic) responses, and create responses by using attention and reasoning.” It is a cognitive ability that is linked to anticipation, planning and goal setting functions deep within our body. Inhibitory control focuses on blocking the negative behavior and stops automatic reactions by changing them for a better and thought-out response according to the situation the individual is in.

Dr. Russell Barkley¹ suggested a model of behavioral self-regulation, where inhibitory control was the basis of the proper functioning of the rest of the executive functions, as presented on the website CogniFit, article on Inhibition.

“Inhibitory control is necessary for shifting, controlling impulsivity or interferences, working memory, regulating affectation or emotions, etc. Poor inhibition is one of the main problems of ADHD.”

Any deficiency present in inhibition may manifest itself in three ways, as presented in the same article mentioned above:

a. **Motor level:** means having poor control over their motor behavior which manifests in hyperactivity.

For example, when a child is in class, they may not be able to control themselves from getting up when they get bored sitting.

b. **Attentional level:** Manifests itself in distractibility and difficulty paying attention.

For example, if a child is reading a book and they get distracted by a sound outside.

c. **Behavioral level:** Manifests itself in impulsive behavior that cannot be inhibited.

For example, honking your horn when you get frustrated at the driver in front of you.

Dr. Russell Barkley also specifies that “the frontal structures of the brain are the last ones to mature during development, which is why it's common to see young children have trouble controlling their behavior and managing unexpected changes or events.” Therefore children that have trouble controlling themselves and are not helped in correcting their conduct, as they grow there will be a significantly increase in bad demeanor.

Examples that sustain these ideas are presented on the same website specified above as follows:

1. *If you are studying and check your phone, chat with your friends, or go to the kitchen to get a study snack, your inhibition levels are lower than they might be during moments when you are studying*

¹ Russell A. Barkley is a clinical psychologist who is a clinical professor of psychiatry at the Medical University of South Carolina and an author of books on ADHD.

hard and avoiding distractions. A successful student will be able to inhibit these actions and likely perform better academically.

2. *It is common to see similar situations in the office, for example. Many employees will find themselves automatically doing things that are distracting them from their job, like looking at their phone, talking to colleagues, or investing time in worrying about personal activities. If an employee has good inhibitory control, they will be more efficient in their respective work field.*

3. *In the situation of getting bitten by a mosquito, it is common in most cases to want to scratch yourself to relieve the itch. People with good inhibitory control will be able to keep themselves from scratching the bug bite, even though it itches. Poor inhibitory control may make it difficult to resist scratching the itch, causing the bug bite to bleed and scab.*

4. *Taken the circumstances where a group of people are having a conversation, if there is a person with poor inhibitory control they will tend to interrupt everyone, making it difficult to maintain a fluid dialog. It's common for someone with poor inhibition to speak or answer a question without having fully thought about it, causing them to frequently make mistakes.*

Behavioral inhibition is according to the Psychology fields a form of temperament that has been linked to development of social anxiety disorder. The acronym B.I. relates to the tendency to experience distress and to withdraw from unfamiliar situations, people, or environments.

Mostly, this problem appears during childhood years and has as main characteristic feature an excess of inhibition. In this case, a child diagnosed with behavioral inhibition will have difficulties exploring new places, meeting various people or interacting with objects in their line of vision; they will exhibit intense anxiety towards the unknown and avoid social situations at all costs.

In addition to the problem stated above there is another disorder linked with poor inhibition skills commonly known as ADHD¹ or OCD².

¹ Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is a mental disorder of the neurodevelopmental type. It is characterized by difficulty paying attention, excessive activity and acting without regards to consequences, which are otherwise not appropriate for a person's age.

² Obsessive–compulsive disorder (OCD) is a mental disorder in which a person feels the need to perform certain routines repeatedly (called “compulsions”), or has certain thoughts repeatedly (called “obsessions”).

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder may be the cause for both behavioral and cognitive disinhibition. Dr. Russell Barkley specifies that *“Behavioral disinhibition generally causes a child to be impulsive and reject an activity or idea if they don’t like or makes them getting up and walk around when they’re bored.”*

On a cognitive level, it is rather difficult or even impossible to inhibit the distracting stimuli in order for the person to pay attention.

However, people with Obsessive–compulsive disorder *“are unable to inhibit or control their catastrophizing thoughts that make them anxious, focusing their attention on what they’re worried about.”*

There are a series of assessments that can measure the reticence in one or a designated group of people.

For example;

i. In the *academic field* the instructor has to determine if a child is showing signs of major distraction or is having anger or behavior problems in the classroom;

ii. In the *medical area* the clinician has to determine if the patient has suicidal tendencies which are linked to poor inhibition capability;

iii. In the *personal zone* the specifically well-trained members such as police officers, soldiers or general professionals who handle dangerous substances and weaponry tools must have excellent inhibition skills in order to avoid any unwanted accidents.

On the CogniFit website, there are a series of tests that can help in defining the level of inhibition in a person; the common known ones are Test of Variables of Attention¹ and the Stroop Test² (Stroop, 1935). Taking aside the inhibition measurements, these exercises also indicate response time in every situation, processing speed of the persons answering pattern,

The person is unable to control either the thoughts or activities for more than a short period of time.

¹ T.O.V.A. is a neuropsychological assessment that measures a person’s attention while screening for attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. The test is used to measure a number of variables involving the test takers response to either a visual or auditory stimulus.

² The Stroop Color and Word Test (SCWT) is a neuropsychological test extensively used to assess the ability to inhibit cognitive interference that occurs when the processing of a specific stimulus feature impedes the simultaneous processing of a second stimulus attribute, well-known as the Stroop Effect

shifting of body, hand-eye coordination, and updating to various situations.

Other tests imply such elements stated above and are also illustrated on the website:

Processing Test REST-INH: Blocks of numbers and different shapes will appear on the screen. At first, the user will have to pay attention to the size of the shape and indicate which is bigger. The user will then have to indicate which block has a higher number.

Equivalencies Test INH-REST: Names of colors will appear on the screen, and the user will have to give a response as quickly as possible when the word corresponds to the color in which it is written. If they do not correspond, the user will not give any response.

Inattention Test FOCU-SHIF: A light will appear in each corner on the screen. The user will have to click on the yellow lights as quickly as possible and avoid clicking on red lights.

In terms of mental inhibition, both in oral and reading examination, it is due to several phenomena characteristic for students in different age groups. In primary school classes, the teacher can see the student's emotions in correspondence with each classmate: ability to express concepts and even general knowledge topics that are spoken in class.

On inhibition during reading the teacher has to pay attention whether the student has mastered the lesson taught entirely or has gaps in knowledge (forgetful of certain letters, difficulty in forming words, sentences, or phrases that are rather too complex for them).

In both cases, teachers have a duty to help the child by showing tact and determination.

Students will receive permanent emotional attention from the teacher and at the same time, they will seek the class involvement in discussions by always assigning a task, a word of praise, thus obtaining amazing results during future classes.

The teacher must always be calm, careful with his students, know how to smile, distinguish to always search for eye-to-eye connection, to speak friendly and never say unscrupulous words.

Reading lessons with the whole class is one of the most effective methods for lessening self-consciousness. In this case, the teacher should be among the students, listening to each one of them, keeping them attentive in order to participate in the reading lesson.

If the teacher knows how to approach the students, they will consider him their friend, the person who explains useful information in life, thus their shyness will not hinder learning.

There are children who come from families that are already intimidated, left unsupervised and without help they do not know how to solve their problems correctly, in this case if the student did not work on their assigned homework, the teacher is the one who must repair these deficiencies by replying: *“You have not done your homework today! There is no problem, you can do it tomorrow.”*

If there is divergence between students (quarrels and misunderstandings or a troubled atmosphere), the teacher must schedule Music as the last class of the day. Children will play something they like most and thus will go home happy, forgetting the quarrels in class.

However, once at the age of 13-14 years, pupils change their behavior, become more innovative and seek to hide their non-participation in class or doing their homework by citing various reasons. In these circumstances, the teacher must be indulgent, friendly, even pretending that they believe the reasons given.

Whatever the operating cycle of education, the teacher is the one who prepares the theme for each hour or class he taught that day.

Preparation consists of designing a plan, in the form of a summary; each point will include activities that will take place from stepping into that class until the end of the lesson:

- ✓ Greeting students
- ✓ Check the presence of people in the classroom
- ✓ Checking the homework assigned
- ✓ Check withheld previous knowledge

If the lesson was not acquired by the students is better not to teach a new lesson the next day.

- ✓ Announcing the subject to be taught (title of the lesson)

The lesson for the class will be explained using teaching material (depending on the lesson they teach) – the lesson must be explained to the smallest detail to be understood by the students.

- ✓ Check fresh concepts assimilated
- ✓ Following the presentation of the course, students may have questions about the lesson taught and the teacher will further check their understanding.

- ✓ Giving the homework
- ✓ Wishing the children a good day

4. Conclusion

Unless teachers increase their learners' goal-oriented curriculum and make it relevant for them they will struggle with a classroom that has a lack of cohesiveness. In the book *Understanding second language acquisition* R. Ellis specifies that "... unless we know for certain that the teacher's scheme of things really does match the learner's way of going about things, we cannot be sure that the teaching content will contribute directly to language learning."

In the volume, "Classroom control" there is a very important structure that is essential for each teacher to understand and further develop:

"The teacher has to first assess the psychology level of each student, so Needs Analysis is paramount. Sometimes it is not bad for a teacher to deliberately make mistakes in order for them to forge some room for tolerance, therefore Self-monitoring and automaticity should be promulgated."

Students need to acquire sufficient data in order for them to grow their analytical skills in prioritizing, categorizing and storing new pieces of information. In this case, individual motivation needs to be a priority for the teacher.

Also in the same volume, there are certain aspects that a teacher has to take into consideration when giving a lecture:

"Teachers should foster the belief that competence is a changeable aspect of development; Students must be allowed to contribute in the class tasks; A teacher can reduce classroom anxiety by making the learning context less stressful; A teacher should promote attributions to effort rather than to ability; Teachers must provide motivational feedback to arouse refractory students; A teacher can increase learner satisfaction; Teachers should endeavor not to quiet the rebel, but to rebel the quiet, and to draw the students out rather than quiet them down."

It is preferred that instructors manage their time artfully and not activity based, by balancing the intellectual and emotional components in creating the perfect lesson plan. For example, sharing their feelings or general thought concerning certain aspects that need further discussions, mentor not just teach, respect each of the students inhibitions and try to make the children feel as if they were in their own home.

When grading or taking tests it is important how the teacher announces it: do not use the method "*If you do not listen and quiet down I will give you a pop quiz!*" because that will only give more tension for the duration of the next hours.

All in all, this article is meant to dwell with the less visible aspect of Pedagogy and Didactics (what is inside the mind and soul of a learner?), a teacher has to take into account the affective variables and differencing inhibitions that are present in children in order for the lesson to be transmitted in perfect shape. As an ending statement, Ernest Boyer's¹ metaphoric notion can summarize all mentioned above: "A poor surgeon hurts one person, a poor teacher hurts 130."

Working with a class of students is very difficult and requires a lot of patience, a teacher must be wise and regardless of a family's situation or different happenings, they should keep on changing themselves to rise the next future generation.

The teachers are as actors on stage playing their role, cheerful or sad, forgetting the hardships of their life. If the teacher knows how to give students the best teachings, taking into account how much knowledge they have accumulated in time, then it will turn to a fair assessment of students.

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Training for Teachers of Foreign and Second Languages: Overview and Challenges in the European Space

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Abstract. *Nowadays, many university graduates in languages and literature in the European Union have the opportunity to move abroad to teach their mother tongue or the foreign language studied during their university years thanks to the financial aids granted by the Ministry of Culture and Education. A substantial number of these students have already received specific language training in their home universities but, unfortunately, this is not the case of many others due to a lack of coherence and harmonization in postgraduate training programs. From this perspective, this study aims to analyze the postgraduate training offers in a selection of countries of the European Union and the training processes involved in different areas. This work focuses on the training offer for teaching English, the language that receives the most attention as a non-native language in the European Union. In the light of the facts, the need to implement a virtual system that meets the great challenges presented by language teaching today becomes evident. This system shall offer replicable methodological and conceptual lines to the teaching of second languages by trying to respect the cultural particularities of each language. This final objective is developed within the VIR_TEACH project: a Virtual Solution for a comprehensive and coordinated training for Foreign Language Teachers in Europe co-financed by the Erasmus + program.*

Keywords: Teachers'-Training; Education; Foreign and Second Languages; European Space.

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1. Introduction

Nowadays, many university graduates in languages and literature in the European Union have the opportunity to move abroad to teach their mother tongue or the foreign language studied during their university years thanks to the financial aids granted by the Ministry of Culture and Education. A substantial number of these students have already received specific language training in their home universities but, unfortunately, this is not the case of many others due to a lack of coherence and harmonization in postgraduate training programs. From this perspective, this study aims to analyze the postgraduate training offers in a selection of countries of the European Union and the training processes involved in different areas.

The degree or certificate obtained at the end of the language training programs allows both active and future teachers to improve their career prospects. Within the European space, different situations can be observed according to the language and the country in question. This work focuses on the training offer for teaching English, the language that receives the most attention as a non-native language in the European Union. In the light of the facts, the need to implement a virtual system that meets the great challenges presented by language teaching today becomes evident. This system shall offer replicable methodological and conceptual lines to the teaching of second languages by trying to respect the cultural particularities of each language. This final objective is developed within the VIR_TEACH project: a Virtual Solution for a comprehensive and coordinated training for Foreign Language Teachers in Europe, co-financed by the Erasmus + program.

2. Background and Current Situation

When the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Teaching, Learning, Assessment (CEFR) was published in 2000, its main objective was to contribute to the development of a multilingual and therefore multicultural Europe. Throughout the European space, citizens could move without any difficulty thanks to the skills acquired in any institution in charge of teaching a foreign or mother tongue.

As it has previously been stated, English is the language that receives the most attention as a second or foreign language throughout the continent. This situation dates back to the 15th century when English

started to be taught to people of other mother tongues after the expansion of the British Empire and arising need to communicate on its trade routes around the world. By the 20th century, English had already become an autonomous discipline, especially thanks to the growing importance of the United States in the world economic landscape.

From the beginning, the training of teachers of this language was considered a foremost priority. Likewise, analyzing the training programs of these professionals with the aim of improving them is of vital importance. As observed by de Lima (2001), these analyses generally take into account aspects such as the teacher's level of mastery of the target language, as well as the teaching methodology to be implemented in his or her classes. De Lima (2001) After a detailed study of different English teacher training programs around the world, De Lima that:

“Considerable attention has been given to the process of training EFL teachers all over the world. Points such as teacher background and competence, content of teacher training, political influences, cultural appropriateness, as well as processes and methodologies of training programs, have been broadly discussed” (De Lima, 2001: 151).

In any case, it is important to regard the different contexts in which the language teaching and learning process take place. Back in 1992, Fahmy and Bilton reflected on the need to consider diverse factors when designing training programs for teachers of English as second or foreign language. These authors noted the different needs related to the teaching and learning contexts, distinguishing between countries where English was the native language (teaching of English as a second language) and countries with another L1 (English as a foreign language). In this paper, only EFL teacher training programs in the European context will be analyzed.

In 2003, the European Union commissioned 32 member states to set up the situation of foreign language teacher training focusing on pre-service and in-service training. The text is divided into four main blocks that reflect the criteria used to carry out this analysis.

- (1) “Contexts for Addressing Language Teacher Training” (policy, theoretical, language teaching and learning, and social and professional contexts);
- (2) “Current Provision in Language Teacher Training” (languages taught and pre-service and in-service training);

- (3) “Case Studies of Good Practice” (e.g., bilingual education, primary intercultural teacher training, online consultancy, action research, primary languages initiative, Teaching and Learning Languages Enhanced by New Technologies, teaching practice portfolios, and reflexivity in training); and
- (4) “Furthering Good Practice” (analysis of training needs, recommendations for action, professional profile of the European language teacher, and portrait of the European Language Teacher). (Grenfell et al, 2013)

A few years later, the Finnish Institute for Educational Research conducted a research study commissioned by the European Union with the aim of determining and outlining a teacher training curriculum shared by all the countries of the Union (Manso and Valle, 2013). This research enabled to configure the profile of competencies of European teachers, which were classified into eight areas: subject matter competencies, pedagogical competencies, integration of theory and practice, cooperation and collaboration, quality assurance, mobility, leadership, and continuous and lifelong learning (Manso and Valle, 2013).

Based on these proposals and in order to ensure the quality of the instruction of foreign language teachers, we believe it is necessary to consider different aspects in the analysis of existing programs in European Union countries where English is taught and learned as a foreign language:

- Linguistic content. A very important part of the instruction for this type of teaching is related to the contents in linguistic levels, such as grammar, vocabulary, phonetics, and pragmatics. Teachers shall have enough competence in this respect in order to properly teach these contents to their future students.

- Methodology. Each professional in the sector needs to manage different methodologies to try to bring the contents to the students. The more proposals the future teacher knows, the better he or she will be able to choose the one that best suits a specific context. In any case, the most recognized methodology today is the action-oriented one, as proposed by the CEFR.

- Teaching strategies. Mastering strategies to organize, control and energize the classroom is also a paramount tool of vital importance in order to maximize the opportunities for students in the microcosm to acquire the new language created in the classroom.

- Interculturality. *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. Companion volume with new descriptors* (2017) –which revises the original version

of the document– insists on the importance of focusing on cultural and intercultural content and competences. This aspect should be understood in the light of the Council of Europe's main objective of creating a multicultural space in which all citizens can move around without disturbing cultural clashes.

- Others. There are many other aspects included in different programs than the categories listed above. These may be related to different specific purposes (academic, professional language...), different text typologies (literature, cinema, advertising...) used as pretexts for learning or teaching the target language, different social segments (children, adolescents, migrants...).

3. Methodology

In this article, we have carried out a comparative study of the educational programs for training teachers of English in secondary education in nine countries of the European Union where English is not the official language but is the most studied foreign language. These countries are Portugal, Finland, Germany, Poland, Romania, Italy, Norway, Bulgaria, and Estonia. The criteria taken into account for the choice of some of the member countries has been on the one hand, the location and, on the other hand the mother tongues of different origins. It shall not be forgotten that the above are countries with diverse but comparable educational traditions. The range of foreign language teacher training available to both prospective and active teachers has been analyzed. We have highlighted some variables in the development of such training through the analysis of the web pages of each of the educational programs offered. With regard to teacher training, the following variables have been considered in order to obtain the data:

- The type of institution offering the training
- The main contents
- The length
- The sequencing of the same relating to both pre-service and in-service teachers
- The role of the academic tutor
- The role of the institute's mentor
- The diploma obtained

4. Analysis of the Obtained Results

The following chart gathers and explains the different variables that have been taken into account by country. These variables will be later highlighted later.

Country	Type of institution providing training	Main contents	Length	Pre-service sequencing	In-service sequencing	Role of academic tutor	Role of school mentor	Degree obtained
SPAIN	University	Three modules, generic, specific and practical consisting of 60 ECTS credits (1500 hours) + A final master's degree project (TFM) + practicum at a Secondary Education Centre.	One academic year	- First semester: theory subjects. - Second semester: theory subjects + Practicum.	Theory subjects and practicum.	- Adapting the traineeship plan to each of the centers and subjects in coordination with the school tutor and the student. - Holding regular meetings with students. - Maintaining regular contact with the center's tutor. - Evaluating the student.	Academic guidance with regard to the practicum.	Master's degree in Secondary School
FINLAND	University	Specific subjects + a project on the specific discipline.	Two academic years.	First semester: theory and practice	Practicum at Secondary Education Centers.	- Connection between the practicum center and the student. - Supervision of the process.	Supervision and guidance of student teachers.	Master's Degree in Secondary School.

GERMANY	University	Pedagogy, psychology, philosophy	Three + one years.	Theoretical part - skills of English	After the training, 18-24 months.	Problem-solving and promoting sustainable learning.	Not available.	Master of Education Degree, together with the International Diploma Supplement in English.
POLAND	University, Teacher Training Colleges, Higher Education Institutions.	Psychology, pedagogy, didactics and detailed methodologies.	One academic year.	Theory + practice (330h + 90h) 2 or 3 semesters.	Compulsory practicum in each semester (90 hours).	Not specified	Not available.	Diploma and Foreign Language Diploma.
ESTONIA	University	General and specific study on Education subject(s); and professional study.	Five academic years.	Specific subjects + practicum	A minimum of 50 days at the center.	Providing feedback.	Supervise the 12-month compulsory induction program.	Master's Degree.
BULGARIA	University, High Education Institutions, Pedagogical Colleges.	General philological, Bulgarian studies, foreign languages studies and psychological, educational and methodological studies + practicum.	One year after college courses (3 years) and University courses (1/5 years)	Depending on the university and the type of degree or course.	295 hours: 45h visits of teaching hours; 90h current teaching practice and 160h or teaching practicum at the end of the final year.	Guidance	Guidance	University Degree.

ITALY	University and AFAM	Pedagogy, anthropology, psychology, didactics and technological methodology	Between 24 credits and two years.	Method based on theory.	During the 24 CFU course there is no practice to follow.	- Guidance, help and students assessment.	Not available	Certificate of 24 CFU
NORWAY	University and regional colleges	Different competences related to teaching Education	Depending on the course the duration may change	It follows three steps; it corresponds to 60 ECTS.	It is compulsory. Students have two months of guided practice	The academic tutor visits the school in order to carry out an evaluation of the practices of the student.	- Support and feedback to students. - Facilitate students' knowledge.	Bachelor's Degree + Teaching Certificate
ROMANIA	University	Different subjects related to teaching Education	Two years	108 ECTS	12 ECTS	To guide, support and provide materials to students	- Promote innovation and a good environment in the classroom. - Feedback and assessment of student's contributions in the classroom.	Master's Degree.

Source: own preparation based on the data obtained.

As it can be observed be seen in the table, some variables are similar but it is worth highlighting some information that we consider important when comparing one system with another.

In the first place, in all of the countries analyzed, the university is the institution that offers the training. In some countries, apart from the university, some other centers also offer this training.

Secondly, with regard to the contents offered within the program, in **Spain**, the master's degree is structured in three modules, generic, specific and practical, and consists of 60 ECTS (1500 hours). A final master's degree project (TFM) will also have to be submitted. In **Portugal**, courses are specially oriented towards the specific fields of study and completed by adequate pedagogical training. In **Finland**, the Secondary Education Teacher Training Program (or specialist teachers)

includes a first specialization with at least 120 ECTS together with a thesis on a specific academic discipline. In addition to this, one or several second specialties with a total of 60 ECTS each shall be completed. Specialist teachers are taught about methodological research and research in their areas as part of their curricula. Likewise, students are encouraged to become familiar with pedagogical research (60 ECTS). The main elements of teacher education curriculum for secondary school teachers consist of studies in:

- Academic disciplines. These can be whatever disciplines are taught in schools or educational institutions or in education sciences. Academic studies can be a major or minors depending on the qualification being sought.

- Research studies. They consist of methodological studies, a BA thesis and a MA thesis.

- Pedagogical studies, (min. 60 ECTS) compulsory for all teachers. They also include teaching, practice and orientation to research in education.

- Communication, language and ICT studies are also obligatory.

- Preparation of a personal study plan to guide students to develop their own effective programs and career plans, and to tutor them in achieving their goals.

- Optional studies may cover a variety of different courses through which students seek to profile their studies and qualifications.

- Supervised teaching practicum (12 to 25 ECTS). Choosing between different options for developing expertise that can relate to the master's thesis, mainly in municipal field centers.

According to the information found, in **Germany**, the teacher training considerably focuses on pedagogy, psychology and philosophy. In **Poland**, these studies aim to equip graduates and future teachers with the basic knowledge of psychology, pedagogy, didactics and detailed methodologies necessary for teaching the subject in the second, third and fourth educational stage, as well as news about the countries in the area of the English language and pedagogical grammar. As it can be inferred, they make meaningful emphasis in pedagogy. In **Estonia**, they focus on general education studies; studies related to specific subject(s); and professional studies (education science, psychology, didactics, and practical training). With regard to **Bulgaria**, in the case of undergraduates with Bulgarian and foreign language major: general philological, Bulgarian studies, foreign languages studies and psychological, educational and methodological studies. Those undergraduates with a major in two foreign languages: general philological, teaching of two foreign languages and psychological,

educational and methodological studies. All this goes together with the teaching practicum.

In **Italy**, before 2019, students who had a university degree in any field could sit the public exam established by the Ministry in order to teach in secondary schools. After passing the exam, they had to attend a course of three years called FIT that enabled them to teach. However, this year (2019) a new law (“Legge di bilancio 2019”) was approved. This law allows students to sit the public exam (“Concorso di Cattedra”) with a master in any field (“Laurea magistrale”) and 24 credits (a course called 24 CFU) in psychological, pedagogical and sociological subjects, and technological and didactic methodology. This means that the institution that provides the degree of “Laurea magistrale” and the 24 credits is the University. However, not all universities offer the 24 credits, so there is an organization that is called AFAM that provides a certification of these credits, too. Considering that with any master enables to sit the public exam, we focus on the other requirement that is the 24 credits. The course that students need to take to get these credits students include contents of pedagogy, anthropology and psychology and didactic and technological methodology.

In **Norway**, the main contents of the teaching training course are competence in English language didactics, competence in practical and theoretical pedagogy, competence in planning the teaching processes and facilitation of learning, competence in theories of communication, culture and gender, and professional ethics.

In **Romania**, the main contents are didactics of the specific studies, problems E-A and evaluation, investigation projects, communication with other members of the educative system, interdisciplinary contents (ethic and social impact activities), and final dissertation.

With regard to the length of the programs, this is between one and three years and in some cases, it is part of the higher-grade education cycle. In all of them, the subdivision into semesters is included.

Concerning the sequencing of the programs offered for future teachers and in-service teachers, we can emphasize that in general the practicum is developed in the second part but varying in length and form.

Another interesting variable is the one focusing on the role of the academic tutor. In some cases, the information is not available, but in others, as in the case of **Finland**, it is detailed that University professors, professors and university-owned excellence or university professors and teachers –according to the phase of the internship– are those who have the role of supervisors. Their role is to establish a connection between the center of practices and the student and control the process. In the case of

Germany, the tutor supports the future teacher to be trained in the planification and structure of programme. The tutor helps the future teacher to confront complex educational situations and to promote sustainable learning. At the end, the tutor is in charge of evaluating the whole process. In **Norway**, the academic tutor visits the school in order to carry out an evaluation of the practicum of the student. On the other hand, in **Romania**, the academic tutor provides material and human resources to ensure the proper functioning of the practicum plan. Therefore, he or she encourages the educative investigation by facilitating the access to publications, projects or conferences,, helps students to choose the curriculum which best fits their learning needs, suggests individualized training options to each student depending on their background and aspirations. He or she also maintains a collaborative relationship with associated centers and manages activities of investigation changes the school institution if the services given don't meet quality requirements.

In the same way we can, in some cases, find detailed information about the role of the school mentor while in other cases no information is found.

In all programs, a certificate or degree is obtained. The case of **Italy** is interesting where the Ministerial Decree n. 249 of September 10, 2010 established a new path for the initial training of teachers. In order to obtain the teaching qualification, the decree foresees the activation in the academic institutions of a specific university course, the TFA (1500 hours, 60 credits). At the end of the course, the teaching qualification exam is taken. TFA courses are limited in number (with entrance test) and each year the places available for each class of competence are established at regional level. They involve three tests: a preliminary test prepared at the national level with closed questions (Ministerial Decree No. 312/2014 and Ministerial Decree No. 487/2014); a written test and an oral test from academic institutions (DM No. 312/2014).

5. Final Considerations

As defined by the European Language Teacher Training, it can be concluded that in some cases the contents lack homogeneity. The duration of the programs varies from one year in several countries to five years in the case of Estonia. Not all training programs are delivered by the same type of institution. In all the states, it is the universities that take on them, but in countries like Poland, Italy, Bulgaria and Norway other types of centers also offer them. Not all training includes methodology training.

With respect to intercultural contents, not all of them include intercultural contents. Nor is there any guide to do it at a European level.

As far as digital competences are concerned, we can highlight the lack of consistency between teacher digital platforms in Europe. For this same reason, we deem necessary to create a unified model, digital space to share good practices and need of standardising criteria for internship. The European project VIR_TEACH: a Virtual Solution for a comprehensive and coordinated training for Foreign Language Teachers in Europe was born with the aim of filling these gaps.

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