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UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF TRANSFER OF ACADEMIC WRITING SKILLS ACROSS TIME

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Abstract: This study investigates university students' perceptions towards an English for advanced academic writing purposes (AAW) course taught in a private university in the United Arab Emirates. It probes into the relevance of the skills taught to the students' academic disciplines. Data was gathered through a short survey administered to students who successfully completed the course. The transferability of skills was measured in light of some of the learning objectives of the AAW stated in its syllabus. Findings indicated positive students' attitudes towards the AAW course. They also revealed that some learning outcomes did transfer to students' writing tasks in their major courses. However, transfer of these skills was more noticeable in some university disciplines (e.g. English) more than others (e.g. Business Administration). Detailed explanations of reasons and contexts for skill transfer are presented. This research concludes with some pedagogical recommendations and suggestions for course improvement and further research.

Key Words: Learning transfer; academic writing; students' perceptions; latent learning.

1. Introduction

Teachers and university professors need to conduct "reflection-in-action" and/or "reflection-on action" (Schön, 1984) or both to probe into their teaching effectiveness and examine whether the course learning outcomes have materialized or not. One tool to carry out the latter is through asking stakeholders their opinions of course contents and how they perceive their relevance to their academic study. Such feedback will, for reflective practitioners, enable them to ponder on their teaching practices and know what went well and what did not go well (Davis, Ponnampuruma & Ker, 2009; Gunn, 2010; Scheja, 2006; Yassaei, 2011). The outcomes of these reflections may result in practitioners either modifying their teaching methods or modifying and changing course contents or both. Students can also benefit from being reflective learners. This research explores students' reflection-on-action and perceptions of the relevance of a required advanced academic writing (AAW) course offered to all undergraduate students at one of the North American universities located in the United Arab Emirates.

The increase in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) offerings is not just limited to the West as growing numbers of renowned higher educational institutes in the East

also adopt English as the medium of instruction due to its present-day status as the global language. The institution where this study is conducted is an example of a prominent, co-educational, multicultural institute in the Middle East that offers a number of EAP courses. Three of these courses are: Advanced Academic Writing, Writing for Business and English for Engineering. These courses fall under the umbrella term English for specific purposes (ESP). Basturkmen (2010) classifies EAP as a branch of ESP courses and divides it further into two subcategories: English for general academic purposes (EGAP) and English for specific academic purposes (ESAP). The Advanced Academic Writing (AAW) course can be classified as an ESAP course because it serves a specific academic purpose. Basturkmen further classifies ESP courses on a scale of wide-angled to narrow-angled continuum. As per the catalogue entry, the AAW teaches students how to write research papers which would make it closer to the narrow-angled end of the continuum.

It is based on common core needs; that is, it is designed to satisfy the different academic writing needs of students from different disciplines (James, 2010: 184; Hyland, 2006: 9). However, such needs are, in most cases, based on the perceptions of course designers of what students need for their academic studies, which may not be a true reflection of the students' real needs.

1.1. Review of Previous Literature

Research has indicated that knowing students' needs is crucial and helpful in developing the right program to cater for their needs. Chen (2006) stresses that "the consideration of 'common core' and 'specific' needs in course design for program participants from multi-disciplinary backgrounds can greatly enhance their English language competence" (para.1). A study conducted by Mazdayasna and Tahirian (2008) investigates the academic needs of a group of Iranian students from the students' perspective. This study indicates that students were aware of their academic writing needs and were interested to take the writing course to improve their writing skills and their performance in their specific disciplines. However, the researchers found that the students' needs were not the same as those focused on by the program developers. Therefore, the researchers report that the course did not help to achieve the expected learning outcomes because of the lack of students' needs analyses, as well as the lack of communication between students and stakeholders. Nevertheless, there could have been other variables, which had not been accounted for, that might have contributed to the undesirable results of the writing course. Ferris (2001) argues that the professors' perceptions of students' needs do not necessarily match students' perceptions of their own needs. This implies that a careful needs analysis of all stakeholders should be in place.

In the literature on academic writing courses, researchers have investigated students' perceptions of academic writing. Ismail (2011), in a study conducted on Arab students' perceptions of a university level ESL general writing course and an academic writing course, reveals that students have shown positive attitudes towards the academic writing course more than the ESL writing course. He concludes that although some students reported that they had good writing skills and did not need more writing courses, they, "still needed to pay tremendous attention to this particular skill" (Ismail, 2011: 80). However, the author did not give the bases on which this conclusion was founded. Moreover, his study did not

specify the nature, type and level of the academic writing course and its learning outcomes. Furthermore, although this course is designed for all university students from all disciplines, the study only surveyed the perceptions of students from the College of Humanities, Languages and Social Sciences and the College of Education, without giving any justification for the exclusion of students from other colleges.

Another factor that may affect students' perceptions of academic writing courses is the difference in conventions from one discourse community to another. Research has shown that academic writing is controlled by shared communicative purposes and conventions stipulated by members of the relevant discourse community (Geisler, 1994; Butler, Trosclair, Zhou and Wei, 2014; Swales, 1990; Zhu, 2004). Research (Bruce, 2011; Chandrasoma, 2010; Swales, 1990; Conrad, 1996; Zhu, 2004) has also shown that different genres have different features and vary from one discipline to another, sometimes within the same discipline, in addition to the different features that academic writing in different disciplines may exhibit. Research (Braine, 1995, 1989; Carson, 2001; West & Byrd, 1982; Zhu, 2004) also examined different tasks students practice. Research findings show that different disciplines require different types of tasks that serve the communicative purpose of the various specific disciplines. In a study carried out by Herrington (1985) on two chemical engineering courses, students reported that the writing tasks they were asked to do in these courses differ from other general academic writing tasks and they even vary from one discipline specific course to another. Students reported that they were using different lines of reasoning and different types of evidence depending on the purpose of writing and their roles (Herrington, 1985).

For skills transfer to take place across disciplines, clear, guided input should be given to students. Students should analyze and closely look at samples of written work expected from them in different contexts and have to be made aware of where they can or are required to use skills taught. It is necessary that students see samples of written texts in different context and disciplines (Cheg, 2006; To & Carless, 2016). This strategy allows them to identify the differences in the language, style and support used. A study conducted by To and Carless (2016) that used exemplars to allow students to analyze samples of former students' and peers' work found that this strategy proved effective in helping students understand what is expected from them, analyze what affects the strength or weakness of the writing task and most importantly improve their own papers. Student participants in the study reported that analyzing samples of other students' writing made them understand what their teacher expects from them in the assignment and realize how accuracy and grammar are important in having a clear, good-quality paper. It also enabled them to realize that a good-quality piece of writing is not just an error-free text, but is also well-organized and adequately supported (To & Carless, 2016, pp. 754-755).

In sum, for students to produce a good-quality writing task and meet the expectations of the genre conventions, they do not just need lecturing, but also require input in the form of analyses of written samples in different contexts in order to ensure occurrence of learning transfer and application of the skills taught and learned in different contexts. They also require supervision and guidance from the instructor. Teacher's guidance and feedback are not only important in drawing students' attention to different aspects of the writing task, but allow for skills transfer to take place. In their study, To and Carless (2016) highlight that students

reported benefiting from their teacher's interaction and guidance during the analysis activity. They were able to ask questions and get instant answers on queries they had about the samples analyzed. They also reported that teachers' questions that trigger and incentivize their critical thinking helped them realize different aspects of the writing genre. Students also reported that, with their teacher's guidance, they were able to identify their weaknesses which led to improving their writing. This indicates the effectiveness of the instructors' guidance and feedback in facilitating and ensuring the transfer of skills. It also points out that this could be another factor affecting students' perceptions of learning transfer.

Other research focused on the transfer of learning from academic writing courses to discipline-specific courses (e.g., Bergmann & Zepernick, 2007) in order to check and confirm the effectiveness of these courses. The importance of learning transfer is stressed in the field of ESL (James, 2010, 2009; Johns, 1993). James (2010: 197) argues that learning transfer "is a fundamental issue in L2 education, particularly in contexts like EAP writing instruction where students have immediate, concrete needs." Transfer is described by Perkins and Salomon (1994) as "when learning in one context or with one set of materials impacts on performance in another context or with another set of materials" (p. 6452).

A number of other studies have shed more light on perceptions towards English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) writing courses and possible transfer from these courses. Research has reported generic positive attitudes towards these courses and has also proved skills transfer from EGAP to other courses. For example, Allen's (2008) study reveals that there was a great deal of transfer from an EGAP writing course to students' other courses. In her study, data was gathered from questionnaires filled in by students who reported that after taking the writing course, their grades were improved in other courses that had writing activities and even in courses that involved short answer writing questions. Another study by Nelms and Dively (2007), that collected data from a focused group with instructors from students' academic disciplines, indicates that those instructors noticed that some students applied some of the targeted learning outcomes of the writing courses in the writing activities of their major courses. Such studies indicate a possibility of the transfer of some of the skills taught in the writing courses.

Contrary to the above mentioned studies that showed skills transferability from writing courses to other courses that involve writing activities, other studies have reported virtually no transfer from EGAP writing courses to students' discipline courses. Wardle (2007), who collected data through interviews with students who took an EGAP writing course, concludes that students reported that they rarely practiced tasks or activities in the writing course similar to those used in their major courses. Bergmann and Zepernick (2007), who collected data from focused groups with students from different academic majors that have completed EGAP writing courses, reveal that those students reported practicing different skills in their major courses than those learned in the writing courses. Therefore, the researchers conclude that there was no transfer from the writing courses to students' discipline courses. Along the same lines, after surveying students' perceptions towards tasks practiced in a writing course, Wardle (2009) reports students saying that the purpose of these tasks had nothing to do with tasks practiced in their major courses. As a result, Wardle concludes that there was no transfer.

Although these students indicate that there is rare or no transfer from EGAP writing courses across disciplines, they are reports-based studies that depend on opinions

and there might be transfer but participants might not be aware of it. This is noted by Perkins and Salomon (1994) who point out that as participants are sometimes aware of the transfer occurrence, i.e., have high-road transfer, they might also not be aware of it; i.e., low-road transfer.

This current study may fill a gap by indicating when AAW course contents are perceived to be of optimal relevance to students. The authors of this study are aware that "significant transfer requires time to incubate; it tends not to occur instantaneously" (Haskell, 2001: 46), and this condition was taken into consideration when distributing the survey.

1.2. Description of the AAW Course

The AAW course is offered by the English Department in the university where this study is conducted. It is part of the general education requirement for all of the undergraduate students. Students must take the course in order to advance in their studies; therefore, the proposed sequence of study of all majors in the undergraduate catalogue suggests that students take this course in the early stage of their undergraduate program (Sophomore I). The course syllabus enumerates the learning outcomes according to which students must be able to effectively summarize, paraphrase, and quote written information using APA documentation style. In addition, the course teaches how to critically evaluate published work, design a research proposal, distinguish between personal opinion and external research, evaluate secondary sources, write a literature review, use primary and/or secondary research to write an argumentative research paper, and defend the argumentative position of the paper in an oral presentation. A common course textbook (*A sequence for academic writing*, Behrens & Rosen, 2010) is used in teaching the course contents, and is supplemented by a complementary handbook (*The Longman handbook for writers and readers*, Anson & Schwengler, 2010). The research portfolio carries the heaviest weight (40%) in the grade distribution, which is in line with the primary purpose of teaching students how to produce a research paper as per the catalogue description of the course. The assessment tools include summary and paraphrasing exercises, synthesis essay, annotated bibliography, critique, research proposal, drafts of the research paper, and in-class presentation.

The impetus for this study was the authors' hearing undergraduate students from the different schools, like Engineering and Business, say that the AAW course, which is required from all undergraduates in this institution, is not important and that some students do not take it seriously. Considering the significance of such a course in conducting research in the students' disciplines, the writers of this paper were particularly surprised by the students' negative perceptions toward a writing course that is perceived as important by the university faculty. Therefore, in line with research on teaching and learning effectiveness, and in an attempt to reflect-on-action to assess the usefulness of the course contents and to better serve learners' needs, this study explores the students' reflections on and perceptions of the relevance of the course contents over a period of three different intervals: during the semester in which the course is studied, one semester after the course was taken, and one year after finishing the course. In other words, it examines students' perceptions of course relevance and whether these perceptions change over time.

For the purposes of this study, the concept of relevance is used to measure

students' perceptions of the usefulness of course contents. This concept is based on Keller's (1983) and Frymier and Muddiman's (2009) definition of relevance as a student's perception of whether course contents satisfy personal needs, personal goals, and/or career goals. Keller's (1983) relevance is comprised of four constructs: Attention, Relevance, Confidence and Satisfaction (ARCS). Attention refers to teacher's ability to get students interested in the course. Relevance is the learner's satisfaction with the course, motivation is achieved when the course meets the learner's needs, and confidence refers to the student's expectation of getting a higher grade in the course. According to the ARCS model, relevance is achieved when instructors succeed in making students perceive course contents as targeting some requisite or required needs or goals. That is, relevance of the course contents is examined from the users' perspective; "User relevance" (Nolin, 2009).

1.3. Need for the Study

As the AAW course under assessment is a requirement for all university students from all disciplines in this institution, it is important to examine the students' perceptions regarding the relevancy of this course, to be able to know students' needs and cater to them. To be able to meet and serve the academic needs of learners from different disciplines, their proficiency levels, needs and expectations should be known and taken into consideration.

The study was conducted to gauge student perspectives on whether their perception of learners' acquired skills were those that they need for their academic study. When students perceive course content as relevant, this makes them "become motivated to think about the material and may retain the information for longer periods" (Muddiman & Frymier 2009: 132). Along the same lines, Keller and Suzuki (2004) and El-Sakran (2012) argue that relevance is effective when course materials relate to students' intrinsic goals and needs.

2. The Study

To explore the students' reflection-on-action and perceptions of the relevance of their advanced academic writing (AAW) course, and to examine whether the learners' acquired skills were those that they need for their academic studies, this paper aims to answer the following research questions:

1. How useful (i.e. relevant) is the AAW course to students from different academic disciplines?
2. When do students start to realize (if they do) the usefulness of the course?
3. Does this perception of usefulness (i.e. relevance) change over time?

2.1. Participants

To answer these questions, a survey (see Appendix A) was distributed to 131 undergraduate students (80 males and 51 females) from different levels (12 Sophomore, 89 Juniors, 30 Seniors) and different disciplines: engineering (82 participants), architecture (2 participants), business (29 participants), mass communication (9 participants), English (4 participants), international studies (4 participants), environmental sciences (1 participant).

These students have successfully completed the AAW course (54 students finished it during the semester in which the data were collected, 22 finished it one semester

before, 31 finished it two semesters before, 19 finished it more than three semesters before, and 5 did not specify).

2.2. Data Collection and Analysis

A short survey (see Appendix A) was randomly distributed and anonymously filled by the students and returned to the researchers. The data obtained was analyzed using statistical software called Minitab. The one variable proportion test and two variables proportion test were performed, where the p-value was obtained. If the p-value is less than 5% the results are considered statistically significant.

3. Results

All the respondents, regardless of their discipline, level of study and gender, perceive the course as relevant to their academic needs. No significant differences are found between genders (see Appendix B), except that the proportion of female students achieving A and A- grades is significantly higher (p-value 0.038) than the proportion of males obtaining the same grades.

As for the relation between college and questions 2, 3, 4, and 5, the number of students from some colleges is small; thus, the comparison between colleges would not produce any valid test results.

For question (#4) “In general, was ENG204 useful in helping you write better research papers for your major courses?”, the proportion test shows that the proportion of Senior students who agreed or strongly agreed that the course was useful is significantly higher than the proportion of Juniors (p-value 0.047), see Figure 1 below:

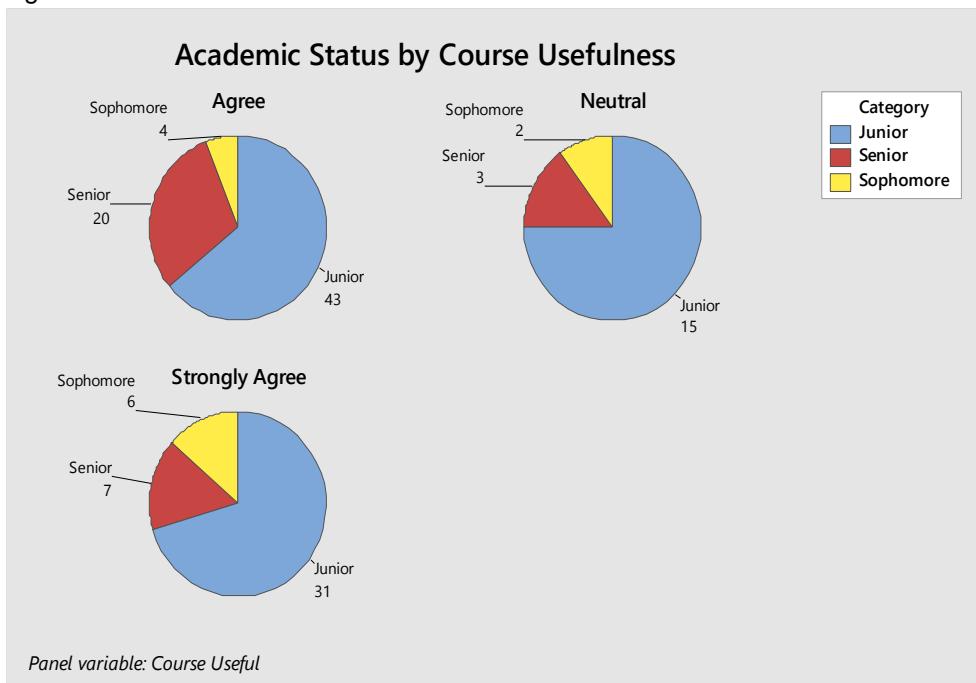


Figure 1: Relation between academic status (sophomore, etc.) and question 4

Figure 1 above shows that students of higher academic status have better understandings of course relevance. In trying to find out when students start to realize the optimal relevance of the AAW course, the year/semester when the course was taken, as seen in Table 1 below, was considered.

Table 1: Year in which students completed AAW course.

Year	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	All
Number of students	3	5	49	59	15	131

As seen from Table 1, the years 2012, 2013 and 2016 had relatively small numbers of participants, and thus a comparison can only be done between 2014 and 2015. Results from the proportion test shows that there is a significant difference in the proportions of students who strongly agreed that the AAW course was useful (see Appendix B). The proportion of students in the year 2014, who strongly agree that the course was useful, is significantly higher than the proportion of students in 2015 (p -value 0.042). *This shows that the students who took the course two years ago agree that the course is useful since they have had a chance to see its usefulness in their academic careers more so than the students who just took it a semester or a year ago.*

The results for question 3: “While taking ENG204, I learned new strategies for writing an academic research paper”, show that an absolute majority (76.15% with a p -value of 0.037) of students have learned new strategies. Contrary to this, 7.63% of students believe that they did not learn any strategies, while 16.79% were not sure if they did or did not. Investigating further the relation between those students who stated that they have learned new strategies (99 students 76.15%) and their academic writing background before taking the AAW course, we find that about 10 % claimed to have excellent writing skills before taking the course, about 80% indicated to have good writing skills, while the other labeled themselves as having either poor or no writing skills (see Appendix B). From 103 students, labeling themselves to have good writings skills before the course, about 77% of them have gained new skill/strategies (see table 2 below).

Table 2: Learning new Strategies versus Writing Skills

	Excellent	Good	None	Poor	All
Yes	10	79	1	9	99
No	2	8	0	0	10
Not Sure	2	16	0	4	22
All	14	103	1	13	131

Exploring further those students who received grades B- and lower, the proportion of those not learning new strategies, or not sure if they learned any, is significantly higher (p -value 0.009) than the ones with grades B and above (see Table 3). This may confirm fair grade distribution and fair grading by course instructors.

Table 3: Learning new Strategies versus Grades

	Grade B and above	Grade B- and below	All
Yes	70	29	99
No	6	4	10
Not Sure	12	10	22
All	88	43	131

The researchers were concerned with the students that did not learn new strategies in the course or who were not sure if they learned any new strategies. To see if the course was of any use to these students, we cross tabulated the question “In general, was ENG204 useful in helping you write better research papers for your major courses?” with “While taking ENG204, I learned new strategies for writing an academic research paper.” Results (see Appendix B) clearly demonstrated that none of the students ‘strongly disagreed’ or ‘disagreed’ that in general the course was useful in helping them write research papers. Indeed, analysis of statistical significance exhibits that (*p*-value 0.043) more than 31% of the students who stated that they did not learn new strategies or they were not sure if they learned any, agreed that the course was useful. This may be explained in light of James’ (2012) argument that learning may entail developing new knowledge or strengthening existing knowledge.

4. Discussion

Based on the above results, and as a consequence of reflection-on-students' personal learning experiences, it can be said that students need to be made aware that some of the course contents they study will be relevant to them in future courses that they will be taking. That is, such courses present the initially required basis and context for other courses, as it is the case for many courses with prerequisites. Sperber and Wilson's (1986) explain that “It is extremely unlikely that” relevance “stays constant across all circumstances and individuals” (p.131).

Several students, especially first year and even second year students, do not fully grasp what writing or composition courses are about and/or entail, and what their importance in their academic careers is. Jones (2011) shows that first year undergraduate students differ in their perceptions from their instructors and colleagues as to what academic writing, the writing process, and/or the value of writing in their disciplines is. Jones notes that though these students acknowledged the importance of writing in their academic development, not many have writing outside these composition courses.

And even when learning may have occurred, the students may not realize it until later in their academic careers when they will be gaining something, a reward, a grade, for demonstrating the information learned, at a cognitive/ subconscious level. This brings us to the discussion of latent or hidden learning (see Tolman, 1948; Gray, 2002; Gazzaniga & Heatherton, 2003; Coon, 2004 to name a few) which explains that this type of learning only becomes obvious when there is an incentive for it. According to Coon (2004, p.228), this is ‘cognitive learning’ that “remains hidden until reinforcement is provided.”

This study recommends that students be told that relevance of course contents should be measured with reference to, or in light of, not just immediate but near future academic needs/gains. Therefore, we should not rush making judgments on the relevance of the course items being presented upon course completion as some course items may, temporarily, not show any relevance to students; especially those who only consider immediate relevance. The findings suggest that optimal relevance, i.e. usefulness, is a gradual process that may take time to materialize.

This lag in the process of understanding full relevance of course items can be interpreted in light of students' personal conception of learning. Research (e.g., EL-Sakran & Mesanovic, 2012; Scheja, 2006) has indicated that students' understanding is predicated on their own personal interpretation of the concepts of teaching and learning, that is, students' conceptions of "what it means to study and learn" (Scheja, 2006m p. 441). No doubt that if students' understanding of the concepts of teaching and learning are not congruent with instructors' concepts, this will cause students to disengage and see the teaching as irrelevant. This is something that calls for immediate action on the part of instructors; they need to negotiate and share with students the relevancy, connection and usefulness of the material, skills and concepts being taught to avoid any possible mismatch in understanding and undesirable outcomes.

When students see the relevance of the course content, this will motivate them to learn. We suggest that all instructors teaching such a course (or any course) need to introduce the course during the first week and go through the course contents to show how they are relevant to what they will be doing, in other classes and in the work place. This will lead to students getting involved in what they do.

Ideally, research on transfer of learning should take the form of longitudinal studies that focus on the same group of students as they move to different courses. Although this study does not represent pure longitudinal research, by targeting several time intervals after the AAW was successfully completed, it has demonstrated that the relevance of a course may take some time until specific academic contexts trigger and activate subconscious knowledge gained from previously taken courses. The findings from this study show that optimal relevance (i.e., usefulness) is a gradual concept that may take some time to materialize and yield optimal relevance.

The students' high perceptions of the positive impact that the course contents have had on their academic endeavors should not blind us to the fact that the results of this study are based on students' reported perceptions of course relevance. Therefore, future researchers may decide to follow up students who successfully completed AAW courses and verify whether they utilize the skills gained from such courses in major courses through the analysis of students writing samples. Others may study the relationship between students' perceptions of academic writing and their perception of self-writing competence.

5. Limitations of the study

Although this study has demonstrated that the relevance of a course may take some time until specific academic contexts trigger and activate subconscious knowledge gained from previously taken courses, a pure longitudinal study may shed more light on the results reported here. Such a study could follow students

from the minute they register for the course and move to different courses. Then these students can be tracked in their other courses to see if what they have learned was transferred or not, and if so which skills were transferred and why and by when. The study could be replicated with a larger sample of students with equal representation of academic disciplines and levels.

6. Conclusion

Coming to grips with understanding the full course contents' relevance requires enough time to reflect on one's own learning experiences until one encounters a situation where and when the outcomes of such learning will be fully realized, materialized and optimal relevance is achieved (Gunn, 2010; Davis, Ponnamperuma & Ker, 2009; Scheja, 2006; Dewey, 1938). Therefore, relevance of course contents should be viewed as an ongoing process, which may call for student induction sessions at the onset of the course to talk about course practical applications. Students may also be asked at the end of each learning unit to relate the objectives of learning with the outcomes and how much of their learning was made use of.

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APPENDIX A: STUDENT SURVEY

The purpose of this survey is to gain insight into students' perceptions regarding the course Advanced Academic Writing (ENG 204). Your feedback will be completely anonymous and will only be used for research purposes. The survey will only take 5-7 minutes to complete.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Demographics:

Gender: Male _____ Female _____

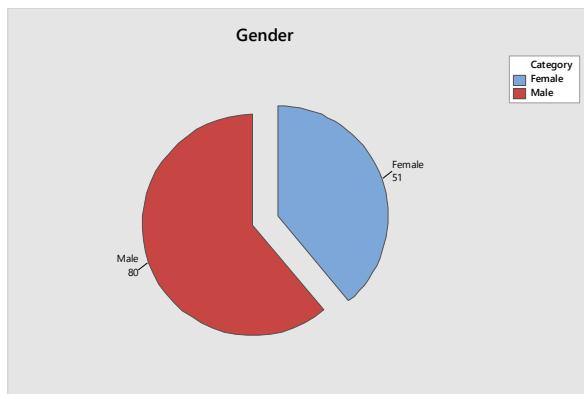
Name of College: _____ Name of Department: _____

Year currently in: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, other _____

Status: Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior _____

1. When did you take ENG 204? Semester _____ Year _____
2. Before taking the advanced academic writing course, you considered yourself to:
 Not have any academic writing skills Have poor academic writing skills
 Have good Academic writing skills Have excellent academic writing skills
3. While taking ENG204, I learned new strategies for writing an academic research paper.
 Yes I am not sure No
4. In general, was ENG204 useful in helping you write better research papers for your major courses?
 Strongly agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly disagree
5. What grade did you get in the ENG204 course?
A A- B+ B B- C+ C C- D F

APPENDIX B



Test for Grades A and A- male vs female:

Test and CI for Two Proportions

Sample	X	N	Sample p
1	15	51	0.294118
2	11	79	0.139241

$$\text{Difference} = p(1) - p(2)$$

Estimate for difference: 0.154877

95% CI for difference: (0.00836470, 0.301390)

Test for difference = 0 (vs \neq 0): Z = 2.07 P-Value = 0.038

Tabulated Statistics: Gender, Grade

Rows: Gender Columns: Grade

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	Missing	All
Female	7	8	18	6	3	6	1	1	1	0	51
Male	4	7	21	17	11	7	5	5	2	1	79
All	11	15	39	23	14	13	6	6	3	*	130

Cell Contents: Count

Test for usefulness in the course with Academic status.

Tabulated Statistics: Status, Useful

Rows: Status Columns: Useful

	A	N	SA	All
Junior	43	15	31	89
Senior	20	3	7	30
Sophomore	1	5	6	12
All	64	23	44	131

Cell Contents: Count

Test and CI for Two Proportions

Sample	X	N	Sample p
1	74	89	0.831461
2	7	12	0.583333

Difference = p (1) - p (2)

Estimate for difference: 0.248127

95% lower bound for difference: 0.00510520

Test for difference = 0 (vs > 0): Z = 1.68 P-Value = 0.047

Test for year vs Useful

Tabulated Statistics: Year, Useful

Rows: Year Columns: Useful

	A	N	SA	All
2011	1	0	0	1
2012	1	1	0	2
2013	3	0	2	5
2014	22	6	21	49
2015	32	11	16	59
2016	1	1	3	5
Missing	4	4	2	*
All	60	19	42	121

Cell Contents: Count

Test and CI for Two Proportions

Sample	X	N	Sample p
1	21	49	0.428571
2	16	59	0.271186

Difference = p (1) - p (2)

Estimate for difference: 0.157385

95% lower bound for difference: 0.00710061

Test for difference = 0 (vs > 0): Z = 1.72 P-Value = 0.042

Test for proportion absolute majority learned new strategies

Tally for Discrete Variables: Strategies

Strategies	Count	Percent
No	10	7.63
Not Sure	22	16.79
Yes	99	75.57
N=	131	

Test and CI for One Proportion

Test of p = 0.68 vs p > 0.68

Sample	X	N	Sample p	Exact		P-Value
				95% Lower Bound	0.686121	
1	99	131	0.755725			0.037

Test

Tabulated Statistics: Strategies, Grade

Rows: Strategies Columns: Grade

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	Missing	All
No	1	0	4	1	1	0	3	0	0	10	
Not Sure	0	1	7	4	2	4	1	1	1	21	
Yes	10	14	28	18	11	9	2	5	2	0	99
All	11	15	39	23	14	13	6	6	*	130	

Cell Contents: Count

Test and CI for Two Proportions

Sample	X	N	Sample p
1	14	32	0.437500
2	18	88	0.204545

Difference = p (1) - p (2)

Estimate for difference: 0.232955

95% lower bound for difference: 0.0723022

Test for difference = 0 (vs > 0): Z = 2.39 P-Value = 0.009

Test results combined for those who did not learn new strategies or were not sure if they learned any, but agreed that the course was useful

Tabulated Statistics: Strategies, Useful

Rows: Strategies Columns: Useful

	A	N	SA	All
No	4	6	0	10
Not Sure	11	11	0	22
Yes	49	6	44	99
All	64	23	44	131

Cell Contents: Count

Test and CI for One Proportion

Test of p = 0.31 vs p > 0.31

Sample	X	N	Sample p	Exact		P-Value
				95% Lower Bound	0.315441	
1	15	32	0.468750			0.043

ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ROMANIAN MEDIA

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Abstract: *The paper deals with the significant increase of English words and expressions in Romanian media, in the general context of English and American words' invasion. The premise from which we start to analyze the influence of English on Romanian audiovisual space is that this influence is specific not only to Romania, but is also found in many countries worldwide. Massive borrowing of Anglo-American terms was obvious after the Second World War in most European languages. This paper constitutes an awareness call to all communication specialists, putting particular emphasis on journalists' role and those responsible in communication to convey future generations a constant concern for all that means Romanian language. The second part of the paper presents examples of necessary borrowings and luxury Anglicisms from different fields: economic, financial, trade, education and research; sports, communication and media terminology. Then, the next part deals with examples from Romanian newspapers, magazines, from TV and radio. The media, the main providers of Anglicisms, have built a secondary reality, relying on information, reports and interpretations which they select, order them according to priorities, and spread them among the public, using a certain terminology. The attitude of speakers and specialists to the avalanche of English terms in Romanian audiovisual language must be a rational one, since it is necessary to measure both advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, in this paper I wish to plead for quality in journalistic expression without blaming the use of anglicisms or neologisms regardless of the language of origin. On the contrary, I would like to emphasize that, when their use is justified in terms of terminology and when they come to cover a semantic void or a more precise meaning, borrowings may be a demonstration of spirituality, enrichment, networking and integration of science and modern technology. The conclusion is that the influence of English should not be considered a negative phenomenon, not being more dangerous than other foreign influences that have occurred over time in our language, as long as their use is not exaggerated.*

Keywords: audio-visual space; anglicisms; Romanian language; globalisation; words and expressions

1. Preliminary considerations

Profound changes occurred in the life of Romanian society after 1989 have imposed new media communication open to all lexical renewals (borrowings, calques, domestic creations, semantic developments etc.). This analysis is motivated by the significant increase in the share of British influence on Romanian

media's terminology, in the general context of the invasion of Anglicisms and Americanisms. We consider both borrowings (including names), and especially calques (phraseology and semantics) absent from Romanian dictionaries, but frequently used in the media.

The observations that follow refer to English borrowings and British models' calques encountered in the last decade' audio-visual space, with special attention to recent years. The premise from which we start to analyze the influence of English on Romanian audio-visual space is that this influence is not specific only to Romania but is found in many countries of the world. We are talking about an international phenomenon, not only European but also worldwide. Terms borrowed heavily from Anglo-American manifested after the Second World War in most European languages and beyond. We are talking about a phenomenon explained mainly by the progress of certain technology fields.

Globalization is a process that has been generated by the development of capitalism. Therefore, the language of globalization was English, as a result of technical and economic supremacy of the US. Politically and socially, the main explanation concerns the status of English as language of globalization, demonstrated with scientific, political, statistical and sociolinguistic arguments in the works devoted to this subject or the globalization process in general. It is interesting to note that the rise of English as a "global language" (Stoichițoiu-Ichim, 2010:85) had been recorded since the 60s by Pierre Bourney, in a paper devoted to languages used internationally, where the chapter on English is entitled "*Une même langue pour le monde entier*". Jean-Louis Calvet, professor of sociolinguistics at the Sorbonne University in Paris stated that, in the current system of languages, the key position is occupied by English a "hypercentral language, around which approximately ten languages revolve". (Stoichițoiu-Ichim, 2010:86)

Compared to the avalanche of terms arrived from Anglo-Saxon area after the technological and informational boom, many linguists, writers, journalists and other users of written and spoken language in most countries of Europe showed generally an attitude of concern and released warnings often downright desperate. In some countries, laws have even adopted to preserve national language, rightly considered an essential component of spirituality and culture of a people.

Under globalization' threat, Romanian language appears to be a petty language, mined by Anglicisms and communicative and expressive poverty, and, on a shorter or longer time, doomed to disappear. According to professionals who study the least known languages, about half of the planet's inhabitants use daily one of the most widespread languages as follows: Chinese (1.2 billion speakers), English (478 million), Hindi (437 million), Spanish (392 million), Russian (284 million), Arabic (225 million), Portuguese (184 million) and French (125 million). (Stoichițoiu-Ichim, 2014:88)

Due to this imbalance, experts predict that "95% of the languages will disappear in the next century" (Avram, 2012: 23), since, nowadays, somewhere in the world ten languages die annually. There are assessments that the disappearance of languages occurs just once at every two weeks, especially in regions with very high linguistic diversity. In Europe, out of the 123 languages spoken, 9 are considered almost dead, 26 in serious danger of death and 38 only in danger.

Romanian language is not in any of the categories mentioned, but English influence is obvious. There are specialists that argue that “in the future Romanian language, with all its Latin origins, will become an Anglo-American-Balkan hybrid”. (Gutu Romalo, 2013: 234) This trend is visible and reaches alarming quotas, especially in the undergraduate age group. Relations between Romanian and other European languages have assumed a constant exchange of flows, the Romanian language was not only a welcoming language, but also a donor language because it exerted a certain influence not only on the languages and dialects spoken in Romania, but also on neighboring languages - at least during certain periods. Thus, Hungarian language has, in its various aspects, “over 2,000 borrowings from Romanian, and even Polish and Slovak - languages which seem quite far geographically from Romanian - have 100 and respectively 25 words from Romanian”. (Vintila-Radulescu, 2010:3) It should be stressed that Romania has not offered neighboring languages only pastoral terms, as is generally believed, but was also a factor in the spread of international terms, providing, for example, to modern literary Bulgarian many words from different fields of culture (*abonament, abonat, album, ambulanță, batoză, broșură, bulevard, clasă, vizită, vot*). Even in French, Italian there are isolated borrowings from Romanian, designating Romania's own realities at a certain age, such as: *leu* (currency), *conducator, securitate* etc.

Reversely, the Romanian language has assimilated continuously new terms according to geo-political situation and historical development. “Borrowings occurred primarily due to technological and economic development”. (Athu, 2011:145) Each historical epoch had its neologisms: Slavonic words entered the language mainly through translations of religious books, Greek and Turkish words (during Phanariote period), Hungarian words (especially during the Austro-Hungarian domination in Transylvania), French words (in the modern era) and recently Anglicisms and Americanisms.

Purpose and theoretical background

This paper constitutes an awareness call to all communication specialists, putting particular emphasis on journalists' role and those responsible in communication to convey future generations a constant concern for all that means Romanian language. As language is the heritage of a nation and also an intellectual heritage, it has an overwhelming role in the development of a nation. Therefore, in this paper I wish to plead for quality in journalistic expression without blaming the use of anglicisms or neologisms regardless of the language of origin. On the contrary, I would like to emphasize that, when their use is justified in terms of terminology and when they come to cover a semantic void or a more precise meaning, borrowings may be a demonstration of spirituality, enrichment, networking and integration of science and modern technology.

The argument that led me to approach such a vast and complex issue can be explained by at least two undeniable realities. Thus, the first purpose is the immense significance represented by neologisms for Romanian language vocabulary, for Romanian culture and civilization. „Neological lexical elements are undoubtedly a matter of culture”. (Gross, 2015: 69) Especially due to the sources they come from, existing Romanian language neologisms, beyond that they are extremely numerous, are, also varied. They have changed the lexical physiognomy of language we speak, becoming a modern and efficient way of communication. As

a result of borrowings made from Western languages, Romanian vocabulary, in general, and our scientific terminology, in particular, have had enormous benefits, gaining a lot of international terms. Another factor which contributed to choosing the subject in question was the overwhelming influence of English as it currently occurs on the Romanian language, through mass media. The fact that English exerts the strongest of all influences manifested on the Romanian language is one thing widely recognized.

Linguistic material analyzed in the paper was extracted from print and broadcast media of the last years, a choice motivated by the fact that journalistic style faithfully reproduces the existing transformations of language. Starting from the above mentioned aspects, the paper has the following objectives:

- a. analysis of the main means by which the Romanian vocabulary enrichment was accomplished (lexical borrowings, calques);
- b. English research element and its impact on the current structure of Romanian language;
- c. setting limits for anglicistion phenomenon taking into account certain linguistic conditions;
- d. determining the role of neologisms in the current Romanian language.

The originality of the method of investigation and the results generated by it are represented by the perspective on the most important processes and patterns by which the current lexicon grows to modernize.

2. Examples of necessary borrowings and luxury Anglicisms

The media, the main providers of Anglicisms, have built a secondary reality, relying on information, reports and interpretations which they select, order them according to priorities, and spread them among the public, using a certain terminology. In relation to the public, "the media aims at four objectives: raising awareness and information on a particular topic, forming attitudes and finally, influencing behavior in a certain direction". (Constantinescu, 2006:28) Whether language mistakes functioned on the Darwinist principle of natural selection, where only the strong survive, now with the help of television, any linguistic anomaly can be quickly imitated. Normally misconduct reached to generalize and to impose only in time - if it had enough force to convince everybody. With the help of television any nonsense instantly reaches the ears of all and, moreover, benefits from persuasive power that a model exerts. "Lifestyle, dress, look, clothing, attitudes, movements, gestures, positions, intonation, emphasis, vocabulary, topic - all pass quickly and effectively from the small screen on the vast and muddy stage of life" says George Pruteanu in the analysis "Anglicisme, neologisme, xenisme", posted on the personal website. (www.pruteanu.ro, 2006)

Before starting the selection process and analysis of Anglicisms that overwhelm audiovisual language, we should mention borrowings' classification proposed by Adriana Stoichitoiu Ichim in the paper *Vocabularul limbii române actuale. Dinamică, influențe, creativitate*. According to the degree of assimilation, borrowings fall into one of the following categories:

- a) totally adapted terms (phonetic, graphic, morphological): *lider, miting, bos, a agreea*;

- b) terms that are adapting (Anglicisms and Americanisms): *board, briefing, congressman / congresmen, lobby, speaker / spicher, speech / spici, staff, summit*;
- c) foreign words: *Big Brother, establishment, leadership, mcdonaldizare, shadow government, road map*.

We should also mention below the classification proposed by Sextil Pușcariu for borrowings:

- a) the necessary borrowings are those words, phrases or phraseological units which have no counterpart in Romanian or show some advantages over the domestic term. In this regard, necessary anglicisms have the advantage of accuracy.
- b) luxury anglicisms are unnecessary borrowings, related to the subjective tendency of social groups to individualize the language in this way. Such terms merely duplicate Romanian words, without additional information.

Table 1: Necessary borrowings

<i>Economic, financial, trade and professions terminology</i>	-Baby-sitter - (ro.) îngrijitor de copii -Broker and dealer – (ro.) intermediar -Drive-in – (ro.) cinema, restaurant care oferă servicii clientilor fără ca aceştia să-şi părăsească maşinile -Duty-free – (ro.) mărfuri cumpărate pe aeroporturi, nave sau în avion, la prețuri mici, fiind scutite de taxe -Non-profit –(ro.) care nu caută să obțină profit -Rating – (ro.) categorie, clasificare, clasă, rang -Tour-operator – (ro.) companie care organizează și vinde vacanțe prin intermediul unui agent turistic -Voucher – (ro.) document care poate fi folosit, în loc de bani, pentru a plăti ceva
<i>Technical terminology</i>	-Airbag – (ro.) pernă gonflabilă destinată să protejeze, în caz de ciocnire, pasagerii de pe locurile din față ale unui automobil -Hard and soft – (ro.) termeni din cibernetică -Laptop – (ro.) calculator portabil -Screening – (ro.) examen medical realizat cu raze X - A scana – (ro.) (from the English verb <i>to scan</i>) a examina ceva în detaliu, cu ajutorul unui fascicul de raze X -Shipping – (ro.) expediere de mărfuri cu ajutorul navelor -Site – (ro.) spațiu, pagină de Internet -Walkman – (ro.) casetofon portabil cu căști, la care pot fi ascultate din mers înregistrări musicale
<i>Sports terminology</i>	-Snow-board - (ro.) sportul și suportul cu ajutorul căruia este practicat -Skateboard – (ro.) sportul practicat cu ajutorul planșei pe role -Skate – (ro.) patinaj pe role -Canyoning – (ro.) sport extrem constând în coborârea pe văile unor torenți din munți

<i>Terms from communications and media</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Banner – (ro.) fâșie lungă de pânză pe care este scris un mesaj, un slogan -Clip – (ro.) scurt film publicitar difuzat la televizor -Hot line – (ro.) linie telefonică prin care publicul poate contacta poliția sau alte servicii pentru a da informații despre anumite situații speciale
<i>Terms of education and research</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Curriculum – (ro.) programa școlară pentru o anumită disciplină -Grant – (ro.) sumă de bani nerambursabilă acordată unui cercetător individual, echipe de cercetare, institut de cercetare pentru realizarea, într-o perioadă de timp determinată, a unei activități de cercetare științifică -Master – (ro.) studii aprofundate
<i>Fashionable life field</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Body – (ro.) obiect de lenjerie feminină -Bodypainting – (ro.) pictură pe corp -Fan club – (ro.) un grup organizat, ai căruia membri admiră aceeași persoană -High-life – (ro.) elită -Party – (ro.) petrecere

Source: author

Table 2: Luxury anglicisms

<i>Economic, financial, trade and professions terminology</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Advertising – (ro.) publicitate -Agreement – (ro.) acord finanțier, economic -Showroom – (ro.) magazin de expoziție
<i>Terms from communications</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Briefing – (ro.) întâlnire cu presa -Key –speaker – (ro.) vorbitor principal
<i>Terms of education</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Training – (ro.) pregătire, instruire -Item – (ro.) întrebare, punct dintr-un test -Visiting professor – (ro.) profesor oaspete
<i>Artistic terminology</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Band – (ro.) orchestră, formație muzicală -Evergreen – (ro.) șlagăr -Performance – (ro.) spectacol -Teleplay – (ro.) piesă de teatru la TV
<i>Sports terminology</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Pole-position – (ro.) poziție de favorit într-o competiție sportivă
<i>Fashionable life field</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Fashion – (ro.) modă -Make-up – (ro.) farduri -Modeling – (ro.) meseria de manechin
<i>Gastronomy terminology</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Snacks – (ro.) gustări -Steak – (ro.) carne pentru friptură

Source: author

Although anglicisms are not adapted or incomplete adapted terms to the language system, specialized studies have revealed that, by their regular and repeatable nature, they can be considered to be the rule (phonetic, orthographical, morphological).

Orthographic and orthoepic rules. The general trend of contemporary literary language is to keep borrowings from English in a form as close to that of the source language. Maintenance of the original language is a condition of the force of suggestion (press and language of youth). There is an evidence of snobbery in the case of returning to etymological writing of old borrowings, similar phonetically and graphically. We encounter clear examples in the press: *leader*, *meeting*. Also present in the nowadays press there is a tendency to imitate the Anglo-American manner of capitalization, the words in titles. Writing issues often arise when writing English compound words with or without the hyphen, and the hyphen usage in enclitic, inflected or derived forms.

Examples:

- skateboard and *skate-board*
- workshop and *work-shop*
- punk-*ist* and *punk*

Morphological rules. A consequence of the massive penetration of English words might be undermining the flexional character of the Romanian language by increasing the number of invariable adjectives and erasing boundaries between parts of speech.

Examples:

- adjectives remain invariable: *trendy*, *shocking*, *full*, *punk*, *single*, *dry*, *indoor*, *underground*;
- some adjectives may be used as nouns in Romanian: *best-of-ul*, *fresh-uri*, *single-uri*, *cash-ul*;
- verbs borrowed from English: *a manageria*, *a posta*, *a lista*, *a scana*, *a downloada*, *a updata*, *a implementa*, *a sponsoriza*, *a accesa*, *a procesa*, *a sponsoriza*, *a forwarda*, *a brandui*, *a bipui*;
- participles are used in Romanian mostly as adjectives: *club bine manageriat*, *un calculator customizat*;
- gerunds are frequently rendered into Romanian as nouns: *un palpitant making of*, *o firma de shipping*.

Lexical-semantic rule. Defining the meaning of borrowings is, generally, made through a synonym or a Romanian equivalent expression. Anglicisms can be inserted into a text by its Romanian equivalent or in a journalistic manner, by alternating synonymous terms in titles and subtitles. In assimilating Anglicisms we can encounter different traps: false friends, pleonastic constructions, poorly formed terms. False friends mean foreign terms with identical or very similar form, but with their corresponding meaning distinct from Romanian.

Examples:

- a acomoda* and *to accommodate* (*a asigura cuiva cazarea*)
- agrement* and *agreement* (*acord*)
- audienta* and *audience* (*public*)
- a observa* and *to observe* (*a respecta o lege*, *o traditie*)
- suport* and *support* (*sprijin financiar*)

Not knowing the meaning of Anglicisms, carelessness, haste or neglect generate pleonastic constructions in the press.

Examples:

- *leadership-ul american*
- *mijloace mass-media*
- *hit de mare success*
- *conducerea managerială a unității*
- *narațiunea unui story*
- *bani cash*
- *hobby preferat*
- *bord de conducere*
- *a face hanț cu mâna*

Specialists in areas such as public relations and advertising heavily imported English terms in Romanian: *pitch*, *brand awareness*, *advertising campaign*. (Coman, 2011: 38) Some of these terms are difficult to translate without producing semantic ambiguity in decoding information. To illustrate this statement we have the terms *brand* or *brief publicitar* that certainly could equate in Romanian with *marcă de produs* and *rezumat* or *sumar publicitar*. (Popa, 2012:78) Due to the fact that publicity field is relatively new on the Romanian market, the terms used entered as they are in English. Thus, the English word *brand* is not just *marcă de produs*, but it also implies an image strategy for achieving that mark, while *brief publicitar*, often encountered in the advertising field can not be equated with *sumar* or *rezumat publicitar*. Based on these amendments, I would like specialists in the areas in question to have the capacity to differentiate between the need of using Anglicisms, and the unfounded claims of using fashionable words without any linguistic ground.

3. English language and Romanian media

The first issue in analyzing the influence of English is given by the full or partial use of terms taken from English in the name of a few Romanian TV stations. The first Romanian televisions with full English names are: The Money Channel, Euforia Lifestyle TV. Currently, this phenomenon is isolated in the classical television market, but it is rising in the online environment. For Romanian viewers, the presence of English words in Romanian television station names is not new, as one third of televisions have English names, most of them being international channels. Examples: HBO, Hallmark Channel, Discovery Channel, National Geographic, Eurosport, Viasat Explorer, Viasat History, Animal Planet, Discovery Science, Discovery Travel & Living, Discovery Civilization, Sport Klub, Minimax, Jetix, Zone Reality, Cartoon Network, MTV, VH1, BBC Prime, MGM, CNN, etc.

The second aspect to analyze the influence of English in audiovisual derives from the fact that, today, we already have several televisions whose titles contain words borrowed from English. First, there is Teleshopping which is specific to each Romanian television station. Besides, there are in the current TV programs the following shows with full or partial title in English: TVR1 broadcasts "Zon@IT" and "Ultra News"; TVR 2, television whose target consists mainly of young people, has five shows falling within the same registry: "Replay", "Coolmea distractie", "Omul între soft și moft", "E-forum" and "Zoom". PROTV broadcasts two programs with the title in English: "Happy Hour" and "Business Magazine". At Antena 1 there is "Un show păcătos" a combination of words in Romanian and English. B1TV broadcasts five programs with titles in English: "Briefing", "High Life", "Club zone",

"Star style - Shopping de cinci stele". Besides the programs mentioned, Romanian viewers can choose of many television programs, with the full title in English offered by TV stations. Examples: "How it's made?", Discovery Channel, "Making the Band" and "Pure morning" at MTV; "Greatest Hits" and "Weekly Album" at VH1.

Any journalist should know that the headlines of the general media should not contain Anglicisms, Americanisms or other borrowings, that most often, consumers are unfamiliar with. If their use is vital for the scale and content of the article, „the journalist explains the used Anglicism directly in the body of the article, preferably between commas”.(Kapferer, 2014: 98) Although these rules are discussed at length in language reference works of Romanian linguists, national newspapers addressed to masses replete with such Anglicisms, used most often abusively, even in articles' titles.

In accordance with the regulations imposed by the National Audio-visual Council (NAC), televisions have the obligation to insert an announcement before any program in order to specify the type of program that will be broadcast. Thus, in addition to the usual programs for Romanian viewers, such as comedy, action, pamphlet, etc., there are also new formats in Romanian television's announcements: "serial lifestyle", "reality show" or "romance". Viewers have associated in time for each of the names listed the equivalent in Romanian, but the fact is that no television has tried to translate them in Romanian, all prefer to label their programs by English names. Nobody worries if viewers understand English, learning occurs through television.

Obviously, an analysis of the influence of English on Romanian audio-visual would be useless without some of the most representative samples of Romanian-English language specific to broadcasters in Romania. The NAC, the national authority which supervises, coordinates and standardizes Romanian audio-visual, together with the Institute Iorgu Jordan periodically accomplishes reports to monitor Romanian language used in broadcasting.

A special category recorded by linguists is *innovations*, Romanian declined words on the structure of the English ones. Examples:

- „O să se topească, o să se *meltească* zăpada” (Antena 1, 2007). The verb *a se melti* is formed from the English word *to melt=a se topî*, being useless in this context.

Other lexical innovations found in monitoring reports are:

- „Pentru că sunt toți *conexați*” (OTV, 2008)
- „Nu putem să îi *capacităm* pe toți” (OTV, 2008)
- „Reacționează cât se poate de *animalește*” (TVR 2, 2008)
- „Inflexiune puțin *englezoasă*” (TVR 2, 2008)

One of the terms most frequently used in Romanian televisions language is *locație* derived from the English *location*. The term most often replaces even where no appropriate the Romanian word *loc* (*place*) and its derivatives *centru*, *sediul*, *imobil* (*center*, *office*, *building*). We find in the above mentioned reports the following uses:

- „*Locație secretă*” (TVR1, 2007)
- „Autoritățile au pregătit deja *locații* pentru a adăposti oamenii.” (TVR 2, 2007)
- „Sectiile de vot pentru cele două alegeri rămân diferite, dar se vor afla în aceeași *locație*.” (B1TV, 2007)
- „A treia *locație* controlată a fost pădurea”. (Prima TV, 2007)

- „Italia, de exemplu, sau alte *locații* minunate”. (TVR Cultural, 2008)

The mistakes caused by ignorance of the words' meaning, especially of neologisms, associated with negligence in speech and different trends of language often lead to forced expressions and even hilarious ones. In this situation there is the word *hit* which means *șlagăr* (DEX) but it is found in another context:

- „Un mare *hit* sunt pantofii de inspirație masculină”. (Antena 3, 2007)

In the same category, there is the association of the verb *a termina*=*to finish* with the English word *happy end*, which means “*sfârșit fericit*”:

- „Se *termină* cu happy-end.” (B1, 2007)

We find in the monitoring reports a list of mistakes that can be explained by calque, more accurately, by assigning new meanings, after the English model, to existing words in Romanian:

- „o adevărată *relocare* dinspre Marea Neagră spre Costa Rica”. (TVR 2, 2007).

The verb *a relocă*/ *to relocate* and the noun *relocare/relocation* are not registered in Romanian dictionaries; probably there is an adaptation of the English word *relocation* (it refers to moving a greater number of people).

The use of English words does not properly represent mistakes. However, such use is not recommended where there is no equivalent in Romanian. For example, in the following sentence, instead of the word *slow* it could be used the Romanian word *lent*:

- „în categoria asta a pieselor mai *slow*”. (Kiss FM, 2007)

In other cases, instead of English word *sit-in* it should have been used the Romanian word *demonstrație*:

- „a organizat... *un sit-in* în fața ambasadelui”. (Antena 3, 2007).

I noticed that the use of English words is explained, on the one hand, by the speaker desire to impress, to show that he/she knows a foreign language, on the other hand, to draw attention. Such uses should not be encouraged, because of the risk that the receiver does not understand the message conveyed. Very probably, most Romanian speakers do not know the meaning of words *asist* and *device* in the following examples:

- „cinci *asisturi*” (Prima TV, 2007);
- „am realizat că e nevoie de toate *device-urile* și de toate minunățiile”. (InfoPro, 2007).

The English word *assist* means „o activitate prin care un jucător ajută alt jucător din echipa lui ca să înscrive un gol sau ca să câștige un punct”, and *device* (from the series of *gadget*) means *dispozitiv, aparat, mecanism, sistem*.

Using Anglicisms and calques

Instead of Romanian words, inappropriate words and English constructions were used as well as unsuitable forms. Abuse of Anglicisms is clearly presented in the monitoring reports, where we find the following phrases:

- “vreau să-mi faci un scurt *background* al vârfurilor pe care ai urcat”. (Radio Guerrilla, 2008)
- “promite *boss-ul Stelei*”. (Prima TV, 2008) – correct: promite *șeful Stelei*.
- “au săpat în exteriorul *parkingului*; au intrat în *parking*; în cealaltă parte a *parkingului*; blocurile din jur și *parkingul* (Antena 3, 2008)
- “o trupă în *trend acum*”. (TVR 2, 2008)
- “îți dă *Reject*”. (InfoPro, 2008)

- „nu te-aș mai băga în meciuri ever”. (InfoPro, 2008)
- „sunt speechless, fără cuvinte”. (InfoPro, 2008)
- „Dar, nu știi! Whatever! Ei știau de summitul NATO de multă vreme!”. (InfoPro, 2008)
- „safety carul”. (TVR 1, 2008) – recommended: *masina de asistență*.
- „Mi-a plăcut foarte mult *speech-ul* dumneavoastră de aseară”. (TVR Cultural, 2008)
- „Ne propunem să limpezim un pic un *trend* în România”. (B1 TV, 2008)
- „E safe acum să te duci în Mamaia?”. (B1 TV, 2008)
- „Când îți vei reveni din *jet lag-ul* din America?”. (B1 TV, 2008)
- „sub capota *supercarului...* creatorul *supercarului*” (N24 PLUS, 2010) – correct: *supermașinii*;
- „m-au întrebat tot felul de *întrebări* despre România” (TVR 2, 2010) – correct: *mi-au pus tot felul de întrebări/m-au întrebat tot felul de lucruri* despre România;
- „dificil de *manageriat*” (B1 TV, 2010), translation of the construction “difficult to manage” – correct: *dificil de condus/de controlat/de gestionat* ;
- „modelele au fost selectate în urma a mii de *aplicații* pe internet” (TVR 1, 2010) – correct: modelele au fost selectate în urma a mii de *înscrieri* pe internet. The noun *aplicație* (engl. *application (form)*) and the verb *a aplica* (engl. *to apply*) do not have in Romanian dictionaries the meanings *înscriere* and *a se înscrie*;
- „actorul câștigându-și popularitatea nu doar prin aspectul fizic, ci și prin imprevizibilitatea jocului actoricesc și *versatilitatea sa*” (TVR Cultural, 2010) – correct: prin imprevizibilitatea și *flexibilitatea* jocului actoricesc. In Romanian, the adjective *versatil* has the meaning “(despre oameni) care își schimbă cu ușurință părerile; nehotărât, nestatornic, schimbător, instabil”, and *versatilitate* means „însușirea de a fi versatil”. The positive meaning for this adjective is taken from English and contradicts the correct meaning in Romanian;
- „spectacolul prezentat la Ateneu a fost *un performance*” (TVR Cultural, 2010) – correct: Spectacolul prezentat la Ateneu a fost *o reprezentație*” ;
- „și au mers către *busuri* sau către alte mijloace de transport” (Antena 3, 2011) – corect: și au mers către *autobuze* sau către alte mijloace de transport;
- „vocea sa, extrem de *versatilă*, acoperă repertoriu vaste” (TVR Cultural, 2011) – correct: Vocea sa, extrem de *nuanțată/ expresivă/ flexibilă*, acoperă repertoriu vaste ;
- „România este o *locație* fierbinte pe harta negustorilor de sclavi sexuali” (Europa FM, 2011) – correct: România este *un loc / o zonă fierbinte* pe harta negustorilor de sclavi sexuali;
- „atâta *dedicătie* rar s-a mai pomenit” (Kanal D, 2011) – correct: Atâtă *dăruire* rar s-a mai pomenit ;
- „au arătat aceeași *determinare* care i-a făcut campioni” (Realitatea TV, 2011) [engl. *determination=hotărâre, stabilire*] – correct: *hotărâre*;
- „acesta a mulțumit fanilor și colegilor pentru *suport*” (TVR 1, 2011) [engl. *support=ajutor, sprijin*] – correct: *sprijin*;
- „această modalitate de funcționare a secției de propagandă și a aparatului de propagandă comunist nu era specială, *dedicată* zilei de 9 Mai” (TVR

- Cultural, 2011) [engl. *to dedicate=a consacra, a dedica*] – correct: *consacrată/folosită numai pentru*;
- „Mihaela, care este *contentul* acestui...?” (Prima TV, 2011) [engl. *content=conținut*] – correct: Mihaela, *în ce constă* acest...?;
 - „Claudiu Săftoiu, ca de obicei în ultima vreme, *într-o dublă capacitate*, cea de analist politic, dar și cea de director cândva al Serviciului de Informații Externe” (Europa FM, 2011) [engl. *capacity=calitate, competență*] – correct: ...*într-o dublă calitate* ;
 - „*conecțiile* dumneavoastră cu America” (TVR 1, 2011) – correct: *conexiunile/ legăturile* dumneavoastră cu America;
 - „este greu să înființezi *businessuri mari*” (Antena 3, 2011) – correct: Este greu să înființezi *afaceri mari* ;
 - „cei doi l-au sunat *înapoi* în aceeași ordine ierarhică” (Pro TV, 2012) – correct: cei doi l-au sunat *după aceea* în aceeași ordine ierarhică;
 - „Headlines” (Realitatea TV, 2012) – correct: *Titluri sau Titlurile orei*;
 - „Partidul Comunist s-a prăbușit, a *colapsat* dintr-o dată” (TVR 2, 2012);
 - „*a aplicat* pentru un job internațional” (TVR1, 2012) – correct: *a candidat* pentru un job internațional ;
 - „persoane din *staff-ul* acestei firme (B1 TV, 2012) – correct: Cei/Cățiva din *personalul* acestei firme;
 - „legi mai moi, mai soft”(B1 TV, 2012) – correct: Legi mai moi, mai *permisive/mai puțin stricte*;
 - „promițând că va califica *teamul național* la Campionatul...”; „marile *teamuri ale lumii*” (PRO TV, 2012) – correct: promițând că va califica *echipa națională* la Campionatul...; marile *echipe* ale lumii.

As noted above, we recognize frequently in today's audiovisual language, Anglicisms that became Romanian words, giving them another meaning besides the old one. For example we find in audio-visual language, complex sentences such as:

- “*A aplicat* la o grămadă de firme și ONG-uri pentru o bursă, dar n-a reușit nimic”. (PRO TV, 2012)

The meaning of the word *to apply/a aplica*, according to DEX is *a pune ceva pe/a așeza/ a fixa ceva pe* (e.g. *pe acest perete voi aplica un panou de lemn*) or is used in phrases such as *a aplica o pedeapsă* or *a aplica în practică, a administra, a transpune, a folosi*. None of these meanings fits into the above sentence. The new meaning of the verb *a aplica/to apply* comes from English and is *“a depune o cerere și actele necesare la o instituție în vederea unui anume scop/ to submit an application and necessary documents to an institution for a specific purpose.”* (DEX)

In a similar situation there is the word *interviu/interview*. It meant until a few years ago, only "dialogul dintre un jurnalist și o personalitate sau dintre o personalitate și un om necunoscut dar interesant, dialog care devine public prin presă, carte, radio sau televiziune/ the dialogue between a journalist and a person or of a personality and an unknown person but dialogue that becomes public through press, books, radio or television." (DEX) Now *interviu/interview* means "dialogul angajatorului cu un candidat la angajare, în vederea testării, a evaluării lui/ dialogue between an employer and a job candidate for testing or assessment". (Dicționar enciclopedic)

Also a completely new and useful meaning owing to media has the word *promoție*, which meant only "totalitatea absolvenților unei serii de învățămînt (DEX): *promoția* 1999/ a whole series of education graduates". Today the word means "*ofertă de mărfuri în condiții speciale, avantajoase, pentru o perioadă limitată*/offer of goods in special, advantageous conditions, for a limited period". (Dicționar enciclopedic)

The same situation is encountered in using the word *bord/board*. Leaving aside the old meaning (bordul navei) *bord* could mean today "echipa de conducere a unei instituții/leadership team of an institution". (DEX) (e.g. *Deși e tînăr, el face parte din bordul acelei firme*). Close, somehow, is the word *treining/training* meaning "*stagiu de pregătire, de instruire*" (DEX) (e.g. *Vor face o lună treining cu un profesor japonez*). It should also be noted Romanian television' trend to abuse the use of phrases *breaking news* or *news alert* (Craia, 2013:56), as they would be known to all Romanians.

„Publications specializing in banking and finance are likely those that can justify in a meaningful and objective manner the abundance of borrowings that entered the language with the development of these sectors”.(Radu, Preoteasa, 2015: 101) Because finance world is Anglo-Saxon, most of the terms used by economists are in English. The phenomenon is easily explained if we consider that Romania has discovered the market economy in the early '90s, when specialists in this area began a recovery of terminology and also a discovery of concepts in order to operate in the economic field. It is true that certain terms belonging to these areas can sometimes be translated without difficulty and without semantic losses, professionals in the economic field still preferred to use the English version. This is for instance the case of words such as : *broker, shareholder, setup, merger* often used in English for various professional reasons. The situation changes radically when encountering such borrowings in the wider media audience, in articles addressing the masses and debate economic issues of general interest. In such cases, these borrowings should be translated when possible, and „in situations where such Anglicisms cannot be equated (loss of meaning, semantics ambiguity or even false meaning) it is preferable borrowings be equated through explanation”.(Zarajanu, 2014: 24)

Examples of press articles that highlight English borrowings

- „Visa le propune comerciantilor online o nouă soluție de plată – 3V *prepaid voucher* – menita să-i atraga în magazinele virtuale chiar și pe utilizatorii cei mai sceptici în ceea ce privește siguranța tranzacțiilor pe *site-urile web*.” (Romania Libera”- 8 October 2012)
- „*Subsidiara* (engl. subsidiary) din Romania a producătorului de echipament sportiv Puma va deschide, luna viitoare, primul *showroom* permanent de pe piața locală, în București.” (Evenimentul zilei-17 November 2013)
- “Piața de *leasing* operațional a înregistrat, în 2013, o creștere ușoară de aproximativ 3,5% față de anul anterior, ajungând la aproape 43.000 de unități și depășind estimările făcute după rezultatele la 9 luni. Anul trecut, 11.500 de autovehicule noi au fost înmatriculate prin *leasing* operațional, reprezentând peste 17% din totalul înmatriculațiilor de autoturisme și autovehicule comerciale ușoare noi”. (Adevarul, 20 February 2014)
- “Brico Depot, parte a grupului Kingfisher, liderul absolut al pieței de bricolaj

din Europa, aniversează un an de prezență pe piața din Romania; un an încununat de realizări veritabile, o viziune și *know how* implementate cu succes la nivel local și 14 depozite transformate în timp record". (Adevarul, 13 March 2015)

- "Compania și-a propus ca în următorii ani raportul între producția în regim *lohn* și cea pentru marca proprie să ajungă la 60-40, în condițiile în care producția în regim *lohn* din România are concurență serioasă în țări ce au costuri mai mici cu forța de muncă". (Adevarul, 6 July 2015)
- "Orădenii care vor să afle cum ar putea să înceapă o afacere în sistem de *franciză*, au ocazia să se pună în temă, participând la conferința organizată de fundația Proton, în parteneriat cu Kyros Franchising". (Adevarul, 15 January 2014)
- "Un segment de nișă al serviciilor financiare din România, cel de *factoring*, se situa în 2014 la un nivel apropiat celui din 2013, iar pentru anul în curs există unele semne de creștere a necesarului de finanțare specific". (<http://www.piatafinanciara.ro/focus-factoring-investitiile-fac-diferenta>, 23 November 2015)
- "Pentru finanțarea proiectelor generatoare de venituri, băncile așteaptă un raport *loan-to-value* (dintre valoarea creditului și cea a garanțiilor constituite) de 65% pentru proprietăți de birouri și *retail* și de 60% pentru parcurile industriale și hoteluri, potrivit studiului KPMG". (<http://www.capital.ro/bancile-deschid-supapa-creditelor-pentru-investitii-imobiliare.html>, 23 November 2015)
- "Multi studenți, sau chiar proaspăt absolvenți, se gandesc ca *joburile part-time* ii pot ajuta să castige cativa bani în plus. Corect formulate în CV-ul tau, acele abilități dobândite la locul de munca îți pot oferi un avantaj atunci când *aplici* pentru o poziție de *entry-level* în publicitate". (<http://www.business24.ro/locuri-de-munca/angajari/tinerii-si-joburile-part-time-angajatorii-apreciaza-experienta-1565961>, 23 November 2015)

4. Conclusion

After studying this sample of publications it is clear that Romanian language has the character of a living, dynamic organism, in contact with international languages, especially English, and the current trend of globalization leaves its mark on Romanian vocabulary.

Anglicisms are a reality, a living proof of language evolution. Speakers and specialists' attitude towards the flood of Anglicisms in Romanian audio-visual language should be a reasonable one, since it is necessary to measure both advantages and disadvantages. Even though enriching the language by borrowing from other languages has drawbacks, such as creating ignorant forms of expression, the advantage is: the segment audience-receptor is drawn to this linguistic trend, perceiving the press language as a familiar one and also highly accessible.

Anglicisms did not result in altering the Romanian language, but rather contributed to its permanent renewal and reconstruction, to modernization of lexicon. The influence of English should not be considered a negative phenomenon, not being more dangerous than other foreign influences that have manifested over time in our language, as long as their use is not exaggerated. Using these terms in speech corresponds to both cultural and social requirements of expression (the emergence of new extralinguistic realities determined by facts related to the progress of mankind) and also functional (the need of terms to designate these new realities in people's life). The essence of language is to renew permanently. Borrowings from other languages represent a matter of linguistic creativity through which language changes, enriching relentlessly to correspond to new realities.

My opinion regarding this avalanche of English terms is that we should not be totally influenced by the media taking over without investigating unnecessary foreign terms. Enjoying great success to the general public, the media endangers Romanian language by introducing unnecessary terms, without any necessity. In conclusion, assisting an unprecedented technological development facilitated by many channels of communication and spreading ideas, of scientific achievements, patterns of behavior, cultural patterns, scientists and also teachers must intervene to protect the Romanian language.

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EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AUTHENTIC DIALOGUE AND SPANISH FOR HEALTHCARE PROFESSIONS

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Abstract: Although linguistic studies of healthcare communication are common for English dialects, they are less frequent for Spanish. Furthermore, linguistic research is virtually non-existent for Ecuadorian healthcare discourse, primarily occurring in literature on anthropology rather than linguistics per se. The present study therefore uses a qualitative approach to examine videotaped dialogues between ten Spanish-speaking patients and two Spanish-speaking physicians at a hospital in eastern Ecuador. The study's goal was to observe naturally occurring communication to determine how patients and family physicians negotiated meaning in medical interviews. Dialogues were transcribed using a conversational analysis methodology and then were specifically analyzed by applying Cordella's (2004) notion of physician "voices" to investigate ways that doctors conveyed different roles they had during an interview. Examples of the "Doctor, Educator, and Fellow Human" voices were reflected in the data, both in complementary and overlapping contexts. A secondary goal of the study was to provide videos of authentic medical interviews for use in teaching aspects of conversation to students taking intermediate Spanish for pre-health professions. Responses to questions about the video suggested that as students worked to improve their comprehension in a clinical context, the video dialogue raised their awareness about pragmatic notions such as politeness and register, "voices" (or roles) that physicians and patients use in cooperative/non-cooperative interaction, certain discourse markers, and embedded cultural beliefs about health. As a result, authentic dialogue within this specific context, that of medical Spanish interviews, served as a meaningful method for teaching pragmatic concepts, negotiation of meaning, and culturally implied information. It is therefore likely that authentic health conversations such as those in this study can inform language education for medical professionals and, by extension, that domain-specific dialogue likely has practical applications in other areas of instruction in languages for specific purposes.

Keywords: Medical Spanish; health communication; medical interviews; physician roles; Spanish language education; dialogue.

1. Background

Based on existing studies of medical Spanish discourse, communication between Spanish-speaking patients and their health professionals can be better understood by studying linguistic ways that patients and health professionals convey meaning, not only by what they actually state but also by what they imply. Furthermore, authentic health dialogue can inform language education for health professionals.

Patient-physician communication for English is well documented (Coulthard and Ashby, 1975; Labov and Fanshel, 1977; Fisher, 1991; Todd and Fisher, 1993; Coupland et al., 1994; Drew 2001, among others). Furthermore, various studies have examined communication problems between English-speaking healthcare personnel and Spanish-speaking patients (Triandis et al., 1984, Erzinger, 1989, 1991; Davidson 2002; Aranguri et al., 2006). A growing number of authors have also investigated therapeutic discourse in some dialects of Spanish, such as studies of politeness and sympathetic discourse in Chile (Cordella, 1999, 2003, 2007); rapport management in Spanish and British interactions (de la O. Hernández López, 2008); mitigation in Uruguayan psychotherapeutic sessions (Delbene, 2004); power and face in medical consultations in Uruguay (Madfes, 2003); mitigation in Puerto Rican and Cuban Spanish dialects (Flores-Ferrán, 2010a); and semantic verb categories in therapeutic motivational interviews (Flores-Ferrán, 2010b). Less common are published sources that document Ecuadorian Spanish in health contexts. Such studies reference illness narratives from an anthropological perspective (Price, 1995, 2003; McKee, 2003) and the cultural issues of apparent agreement and power differential between physicians and Spanish-speaking patients, as in Candib (2006).

Cordella defined "voices" as different forms of talk that are adopted in the course of a medical visit. She noted that medical dialogues require a collaborative effort to produce both the patient's story and to enable or constrain the storytelling. Adapting Cohen-Cole's (1991) three functional medical goals of gathering information, educating, and providing support or empathy, Cordella identified three principal "voices" or roles for physicians: the doctor, educator, and fellow human voice. Each of these overarching voices were represented in her data by specific discourse functions and strategies. In negotiating meaning, the physician's "Doctor Voice" seeks information by asking questions, offers assessments and review, and aligns the patient to the doctor as the authority figure (Cordella 2004:85). On the other hand, the "Educator Voice" is used to communicate medical information by communicating medical facts, responding to patient discomfort, and communicating medical treatment and management (Cordella 2004:114). The Educator Voice also assumes an asymmetrical social framework where the doctor is in a position of authority. In contrast, the "Fellow Human Voice" shows empathy and encourages patients to tell their stories, at times even asking questions unrelated to the patient's health (Cordella 2004:146). This voice is often linked to affiliative discourse that is friendly and cooperative (Schiffrin, 1987). Unlike doctor voices, patient voices in her data primarily included the roles of storyteller and initiator. The various participants' voices often complement each other in an effort at communication. For example, in her study of medical interviews, Nithiananda (2016) found that any use of the Educator or Fellow Human Voice was associated with increased patient adherence, whereas the benefits of the Doctor voice were negated when other voices were absent.

2. Method

In this study, I analyzed dialogues between ten Spanish-speaking patients and two Ecuadorian physicians. The patients attended an outpatient clinic located in a rural hospital in Eastern Ecuador. After obtaining human subjects approval from the Institutional Review Board and also consent from the hospital and all participants,

the interviews were video recorded and transcribed using a conversation analysis methodology. The goal was to apply Cordella's (2004) notion of physician voices as a way to examine how patients and family physicians negotiated meaning in this health context. In a study pertaining to patient adherence, Nithiananda (2016) noted that Cordella's healthcare voices can serve both as a discourse analysis method to look at patient-physician communication and also as a method for educating physicians. Consequently, a secondary goal of the recordings was to use these videos to teach discourse strategies to university students studying intermediate conversational Spanish for health professionals.

3. Analysis

3.1. The Doctor Voice — Information-Seeking, Assessment, Alignment to Authority

Besides questions, a common feature involving the "doctor voice" in all of the dialogues occurs when physicians redirect patients in order to gather more information. In example one, the doctor has been asking whether the patient comes to the clinic for checkups, to which the patient responds emphatically that she does so each month, but she couldn't come the last time because of a lack of money, something that she has previously mentioned in the interview. Consequently, the physician avoids the topic, responding with a different question related to pregnancy. This method of changing the subject and tacitly ignoring patients' comments commonly occurs throughout the recorded dialogues and allows physicians to politely control the narrative and thereby elicit desired information. (Note that "PT" and "DOC" represent the Patient and Doctor in the following dialogues.)

(1) PT: *Sí, cada mes me hacía. Cada mes me hacía. Pero- y la doctora me citó que venga para hacerme un examen general y por falta de dinero no pude venir. Entonces cuando después se me hizo un examen en marzo de la glucosa pero de allí no pude venir más porque falta de dinero no pude venir y vengo ahora.*

Yes, each month I was doing it. Each month I was doing it. But- and the doctor made me an appointment to come for a general exam and because of a lack of money I couldn't come. So when afterwards I was given a glucose test in March, but since then I couldn't come anymore because of a lack of money I couldn't come and I'm coming now.

DOC: *Ya, ¿cuántas veces ha estado Ud. embarazada?*

Okay, how many times have you been pregnant?

In example two, the physician similarly redirects the patient from a pain narrative (which she has already told) by asking a new question about prior surgery. Various implications may be drawn from the change of subject: the physician does not see this pain as being related to diabetes, high blood pressure or lung and heart problems; she does not want to hear the story related again; or perhaps she just wants to continue obtaining the patient's history.

(2) DOC: *Ya, cuénteme, problemas de salud como diabetes, presión alta, problemas de los pulmones o del corazón. ¿Tiene algún diagnóstico?*

Okay, tell me, health problems like diabetes, high blood pressure, lung or heart problems. Do you have some diagnosis?

PT: *No, eso no.*

No, not that.

DOC: *Nada.*

Nothing.

PT: *Sino reciente. Sino que ¡taj! Me duele un trocito así (P indicates her side), que es un dolor horrible y que me llega al cuerpo a la cinta, y las cosas que me vienen como los vomitos y::*

Except recently. Except that wham! This part here hurts me, its' a horrible pain and it starts in my body at my waist, and these things that come like vomiting and::

DOC: *¿Esto Ud. ha estado notando últimamente?*

Have you noticed that lately?

PT: *Sí, estos días nomás que desde los días ahh, hoy a nueve días.*

Yes, just these days since ahh, nine days ago from today.

DOC: *Ya, y cuénteme, le operaron de algo a Ud.?*

Okay, and tell me, have they operated on you for something?

In contrast, the physician becomes serious and more formal with a male patient who extensively consumes alcohol and with diabetic patients who are not careful with their diet. For example, with one diabetic patient, she implores *quiero su compromiso no conmigo sino por Ud.* 'I want your promise, not with me, but rather for you (on your behalf),' thereby emphasizing the patient's role, the trust relationship, and promises that should be kept between doctor and patient (assessment of patient adherence and alignment to authority). The physician's "doctor voice" is also apparent in her negative facial expression when a patient indicates that she is not careful about what she eats.

(3) DOC: *Ahora, verá, quiero conversar con Ud. de la comida. Me dice que no se está cuidando nada de la comida.*

Now, let's see, I want to talk to you about food. You tell me that you're not being careful at all about food.

PT: *No cuido nada. ((P laughs)) ((C frowns))*

I'm not careful at all. ((P laughs)) ((C frowns))

3.2. Fellow Human Voice — Facilitating Patient Stories, Empathy

Various politeness strategies are also employed in the dialogues to mitigate messages or demonstrate empathy. One example of affiliation is the dialectal use of *ya* as a back-channeling device and a marker for comprehension. Although *ya* is also regularly used as an adverb in Spanish, this particular use has a different meaning and is common throughout Ecuador. In the first portion of the dialogue with Patient 1, the clinician employs *ya* much like the word *okay* in English to indicate that she understands and has heard the patient's narration of symptoms and responses to questions.

(4) PT: *Empecé con, con la tos.*

I started with, with a cough.

DOC: *Ya, ¿desde cuándo?*

Okay, since when?

PT: *Ya, son como ocho días con tos y también quiero que me haga un examen de glucosa.*

And, it's about eight days with cough and also I want you to give me a glucose test.

DOC: *Ya, Ud. tenía problemas con la glucosa previamente.*

Okay, you had problems previously with blood sugar.

PT: Sí.

Yes.

DOC: Ya. *¿Problemas de saludimportantes que tenga?*

Okay. Any important health problems that you have?

Initially, Patient 1 does not use the expression *ya*; however, in line 46,she inserts the form for the first time to note her comprehension. Later, once the physician begins to use her "educator voice," we see a role shift so that the patient instead expresses *ya* to indicate agreement and comprehension of instructions and explanations. In the course of the interview, the physician says *ya* 21 times as opposed to the nine uses by the patient. In both cases, repeated use produces a rhythmic cadence in the dialogue and serves as a marker for cooperation. Hence the physician's "fellow human voice," or her voice of affiliation and empathy merges with her "doctor voice" when eliciting information.

(5) Lines 45–61

DOC: *Esto le vamos a examinartambién para vercómoestá con esoasí con un chequeo general.*

We'll check that too in order to see how you are with that with a general checkup.

PT: Ya.

Okay.

DOC: *¿Ya? Y ahora con este dolor de la barriguita, cuénteme, ¿cuántotiempoestá?*

Okay? And now with this tummy pain, tell me how long have you had it?

PT: *Sólodesde el díamiércoles, hoy con nuevedías.*

Just since Wednesday, nine days ago from today.

DOC: *¿Tal vezcomióalgo que Ud. cree que le hayahechodaño?*

Maybe you ate something that you think made you sick?

PT: *No sé. Antes yoestababienbien. Me fui a mi tierraen la provinciaen Cañar.*

I don't know. Before I was very well. I left for my land in the province in Cañar.

DOC: *¿Ya?*

Okay?

[Physical exam and discussion of results]

PT: Ya.

Okay.

DOC: *¿Ya? Y en el examen (...) Puedensercambiosinflamatorios. Pero esonecesitamos saber de qué causa.*

Okay? And in the exam (...) They can be inflammatory changes. But we need to know what causes that.

PT: Ya.

Okay.

DOC: *¿Ya? Poresovamos a mandarestamuestra y esterresultado.*

Okay? That's why we're going to order this test and this result.

PT: Ya.

Okay.

DOC: *¿Sí? Entonces son trescosas. Aquíes el pedido para el laboratorio.*

Yes? So there are three things. Here is the order for the laboratory.

PT: Ya.

Okay.

3.3. The Educator Voice — Educating and Explaining

At times the physician's "fellow human voice" is also interwoven with her "educator voice." The combination is evident in her deictic use of the first person plural pronoun to identify with patients' problems; for example, in the previous dialogue, she states that diabetes is an illness that will cause more problems in the long run if "we don't look after ourselves." In one recording we hear her saying that she has not found any fever and that nothing is worrying "us" at the moment. In another video, the physician tells a diabetic patient, "we" need to control her sugar levels and that "we are failing in our diet." The doctor shows her cultural knowledge when she suggests bringing the rest of the family in for the next visit so that they can all talk about how to accommodate the patient's diet needs.

Use of first person also softens the "educator voice" by personalizing instructions, as in example 6, where she urges the patient to help her. In a sense, the doctor is pleading with the patient and consequently attaches herself to the problem.

- (6) DOC: *PorquesiUd. nameayuda con la dieta, no meayudahaciendoalgunaactividadfísica, no meayudabajando el peso, el medicamento no sirve de gran cosa.*

Because if you don't help me with your diet, you don't help me doing some physical activity, you don't help me losing weight, the medicine won't do much.

The physician's "fellow human voice" is also linked to her "educator voice" when she discusses diabetes with Patient 8. The doctor softens information, employing the diminutive to indicate that the prescription will need to be increased "a little bit more." She comments that she does not wish to scare the patient, yet at the same time explains the negative outcomes associated with uncontrolled diabetes.

Furthermore, in an interview with a nine-year old girl, the doctor's employs her "educator voice" to explain how to wash hands well. The physician then clarifies understanding by asking the girl whether she should wash her hands before or after eating, to which the girl replies "after." When the patient realizes her mistake, all participants laugh and the doctor once again details the importance of hand-washing and keeping nails cut to avoid getting parasites. The doctor speaks using age-appropriate vocabulary and humor.

Finally, reiteration is a key feature of the "educator voice" and is particularly used to clarify dietary requirements, exercise, medications that must be taken, and the importance of returning for a follow-up visit.

At times the three voices occur in complementary distribution, but at other times, the Fellow Human Voice overlaps with the other two voices thereby mitigating the message and/or strengthening the doctor-patient relationship.

3.4 Classroom Implementation of Videos

To this point, negotiation of meaning and also physician "voices" have been examined, the first goal of the study. A second goal was to provide videos of authentic medical dialogues to students taking an intermediate conversational Spanish course for health professions, enabling them to observe discourse strategies and also gain cultural insights. Thirteen successive classes (310 students) have now viewed and responded to one of the conversations with an elderly diabetic patient. All students answered a written set of questions prior to viewing the video (see Appendix A) and watched the recording as many times as they wished. Recurring responses to the question, "What did you think of the

video?" may generally be categorized as (1) complaints about difficulty understanding the patient; (2) questions about vocabulary and routines at the clinic; (3) evaluative comments about the doctor and patient as well as the usefulness of the video compared to other videos that accompanied textbooks; and (4) exclamations of surprise that the patient had twelve pregnancies.

3.5. Pedagogical Value of Videos.

Specific responses also arose from the question, "What did you learn from the assignment?" a question that always produces interesting discussion. With very few exceptions, students have found the activity worthwhile. The following discussion outlines some examples of what can be learned from this recording. First, much as in real-life medical visits, the video offers a sample patient narrative that rambles and is not necessarily chronological or relevant. The patient's initial complaint of pain in her stomach does not pertain to the larger issue of diabetes that does not arise until later in the visit. Students have the opportunity to see a highly competent young, female Ecuadorian resident physician in an actual clinical context to observe how she directs the dialogue, demonstrates disapproval, and makes recommendations (Doctor Voice), and shows rapport, educates, and softens difficult conversations (Fellow Human Voice). The degree of eye contact and the close proximity between the patient and physician are highlighted as a point of contrast with English DVDs from the U.S. Students also observe the amount of time spent educating, explaining, and reiterating (Educator Voice).

Secondly, students learn dialectal variants, colloquialisms, and new health-related vocabulary in context rather than from a textbook. They learn, for example, the dialectal variant *el fréjol*'bean' and the colloquialisms *el tiroide*'thyroid' and *vómitos* 'vomit,' rather than *la tiroide* and *vómito* (singular). Students also learn that *panela* is unrefined cane sugar (usually sold in a solid block or cylinder-shaped mound), and we discuss other names for it and where it can be purchased locally. They learn *masa* 'mass/growth' as a vocabulary variant of *tumor* 'tumor' and *bolita* 'growth' and also the variant *quince días* 'fifteen days' to express two weeks or a fortnight. Students are also reminded that the term *aborted*'abortion' is ambiguous but generally refers to a miscarriage in this medical context. The instructor also notes the frequent use of the diminutive not only to indicate size but also for politeness to soften topics (Fellow Human Voice) and we note the dialectal use of *yain* Ecuador to verify comprehension and agreement, as seen in previous examples within different voices.

Thirdly, the video produces numerous points of reference when discussing culture. Students learn about a typical Ecuadorian menu in the discussion of diet: *caldó*'broth-like soup', the main meal of rice, beans, a little bit of salad, meat, and other starches, as well as fresh juice with *panela*. Both physician and patient perspectives are shown regarding appropriate portion sizes and which foods to avoid. For instance, when asked if she puts sugar in her juice, the patient responds negatively. However, it turns out that she adds *panela* but does not consider it to be sugar. The doctor also uses a drawing of a plate and palm-size portions rather than cup measurements or ounces as are often used for servings in the United States. The patient says she'll start jogging, which she equates with the word "exercise," but her notion of exercise has to be negotiated with doctor.

In addition to cultural context, the video offers an important social context for students to understand. Class discussion includes explanation that the patient has

to return in person for results and cannot simply call the office and reasons why the patient has not returned for a checkup. The instructor explains that the cost of a visit was \$4, a seemingly small amount of money in a North American context, but a large amount for this woman. Students also are told about the frequency of having 10-12 children in some rural areas of Ecuador and practical reasons for having a large family.

Finally, the video effectively elicits discussion about medical issues and procedures. Students view conversation related to menopause in an authentic and educational context. They learn about procedures in Ecuadorian hospitals and learn that often patients must take orders and even pap smears to various locations such as radiology and the lab. Procedures for hospital admission are also discussed as well as the fact that many hospitals in Ecuador require patients to purchase their own supplies such as sutures, gauze, and other materials prior to procedures and surgery.

4. Discussion

Perhaps the most important purpose of the video dialogue is to demonstrate how patients speak differently from doctors: they have a variety of accents, social backgrounds, and expectations. What students learn in a medical Spanish class is what *they* should say but is not necessarily what they will hear from *patients*. This video is shown at the end of the semester as an object lesson to emphasize how students still have much to learn. Consequently, the video serves as a reality check: students know just enough to be dangerous, and they still need interpreters in order to communicate effectively in an extended dialogue. Nevertheless, Cordella's voices can be used to teach communicative strategies. Even when students have not yet attained advanced proficiency levels, they can at least learn the different roles that they will have as physicians and observe discourse strategies used to carry out various goals. Furthermore, future quantitative research might underscore the effectiveness in teaching such strategies. The notion of voices can likely be applied to other areas of languages for specific purposes including law, business, or social work.

In conclusion, responses suggest the value of authentic video dialogues in raising awareness about pragmatic notions such as politeness, formality, professionalism, and culturally implied information within a clinical context. This type of interaction with its rich features provides a needed contrast with textbook DVDs where "doctors" are actors, professors, or graduate students. Naturally occurring conversation can therefore be effective for language acquisition, particularly when it includes different regions of the Spanish-speaking world instead of constructed or artificial exchanges. Furthermore, Cordella's voices provide an effective means for teaching discourse strategies to convey nuanced meaning within both a social and cultural context. Hence, authentic exchanges such as those in this study can inform language education not only for health contexts, but by extension, domain-specific dialogue likely has practical applications in other areas of languages for specific purposes.

Appendix A

Questions About Paciente 1—Ecuador

1. *¿De qué se queja la paciente?*

What is the patient complaining of?

2. *¿Cuándo empezaron el dolor abdominal y el vómito?*

When did her abdominal pain and vomiting begin?

3. *¿Porqué va a la clínica?*

Why does she go to the clinic?

4. *¿Qué tipo de cirugía ha tenido la paciente?*

What type of surgery has the patient had?

5. *¿Qué tipo de alergia tiene?*

What type of allergy does she have?

6. *¿Toma algún medicamento?*

Does she take any medication?

7. *¿De qué enfermedad crónicas sufre la paciente?*

From what chronic illness does the patient suffer?

8. *¿Porqué no ha regresado a la clínica por un chequeo?*

Why hasn't she returned to the clinic for a checkup?

9. *¿Cuántos partos normales ha tenido? ¿Y cuántos abortos (espontáneos)?*

How many normal births has she had? And how many miscarriages?

10. *¿A qué edad dejó de menstruar?*

At what age did she stop menstruating?

11. *¿Sale bien el examen físico actual?*

Does her current physical exam go well?

12. *¿Para qué son las tres hojas de papel?*

What are the three sheets of paper for?

13. *¿Adónde tiene que llevar los papelitos?*

Where does she have to take the slips of paper?

14. *¿Cuáles son los tres consejos principales de la médica?*

What are three principal pieces of advice from the doctor?

15. *Por lo general, ¿qué come la paciente? ¿Qué suele poner en los juguitos?*

What does the patient generally eat? What does she tend to put in her juice?

16. *¿Cuáles son las tres porciones de comida que la médica indica en su dibujo?*

What are the three servings of food that the doctor indicates in her drawing?

17. *¿Cuándo necesita volver la paciente?*

When does the patient need to return?

18. *¿Cuáles son los resultados que le van a dar en su próxima consulta médica?*

What are the results that they are going to give her at her next visit?

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SYNOMYS IN GERMAN ONLINE MONOLINGUAL DICTIONARIES

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Abstract: This study includes both theoretical and qualitative research and falls within the framework of semantics and lexicography. It is based on work conducted as a part of the COMBIDIGILEX research project: MINECO-FEDER FFI2015-64476-P. The lexicographical description proposed in the COMBIDIGILEX project is based on the foundations of bilingual lexicography from an onomasiological perspective, including paradigmatic information and syntagmatic analysis, which is useful to users creating texts for students at an advanced level. The project analyses verbal lexemes in German and Spanish based on a paradigmatic, syntagmatic, orthographic and morphological perspective (among others). Subsequently, a contrastive analysis was conducted between both languages. In this contribution, we first analyse what paradigmatic information is, including its relevance to a dictionary. Paradigmatic information includes not only synonyms and antonyms but also hyperonyms and hyponyms, which often complete the lexicographical article in a general dictionary. Paradigmatic relations can be observed in light of semantic definitions or may independently become part of the lexical entry. Forming the paradigmatic information of an entry in an independent manner is known as “intentionelle Paradigmatik”, and it constitutes a series of advantages in the dictionary (Hausmann 1991b: 2794). This type of information aids the processes of production and expands vocabulary. Next, we examine the appearance of synonyms in three German online monolingual dictionaries – DWDS, WORTSCHATZLEXIKON and DUDEN ONLINE – from the semantic perspective of cognition verbs. The primary objective of the study is to demonstrate the relevance of this type of information as well as the needs it covers from a user's perspective. Offering the user a series of lexical elements along with information on semantic relations of a paradigmatic nature thus addresses the issue of users having an array of possibilities at their disposal with which to express themselves. From these possibilities, the user can choose the one that best suits his or her purpose based on a variety of requisites, such as the type of text, stylistic recourses and so on, allowing the most fitting linguistic element to be inserted into the text. Another related objective is learning the ways in which paradigmatic information is reflected in these dictionaries. Thus, the differences between general monolingual dictionaries presenting paradigmatic information and paradigmatic dictionaries are revealed.

Keywords: Paradigmatic Information; Lexicography; Synonyms; Online Dictionary; Onomasiological Perspective.

1. Introduction

Synonyms are related to paradigmatic information. The phenomenon of synonymy is complex. There are many linguists who deny the existence of total synonymy

between terms because they distinguish between identity and similarity. Some linguists do not accept total synonymy because they consider both the denotative and the connotative part of the meaning, which would make replacing all usages of words in every context very difficult. According to this belief, synonyms could take the place of a few foreign words, such as *Lift* - *Aufzug*, *Gynäkologe* – *Frauenarzt*, *Portmonnaie* – *Geldbörse* or *Orange* – *Apfelsine*, though they would not be viable alternatives in the case of *essen* – *speisen*, *schlafen* – *pennen*, *Gesicht* – *Antlitz* or *stehlen* – *klauen* due to connotative differences in meaning. Other linguists believe that total synonymy is possible because meaning inheres only in denotative meaning; connotative meaning is completely ignored. Thus, *stehlen* – *klauen* would be synonyms.

In this contribution, synonyms are considered in a broad sense. No importance will be given to whether synonyms can be substituted in each context or whether they are total or partial. However, whether synonyms are related to one another from the semantic point of view is important because dictionaries do not establish any difference between total or partial synonymy. This paper does not address whether total or partial synonyms exist; instead, it focuses on the ways in which synonyms, especially paradigmatic information, are reflected in a dictionary and how important that information is for the user. For this purpose, we distinguish between general dictionaries and paradigmatic dictionaries and will compare three online monolingual dictionaries by parsing their definitions.

2. Methodology

This contribution aims at analysing synonyms in German online monolingual dictionaries. I first define synonyms and explain their involvement in so-called paradigmatic information. Thus, I also examine the definition of paradigmatic information and the role synonyms play in it. I aim to reveal the importance of synonyms in a general monolingual dictionary's article. Second, I attempt to differentiate synonyms in general dictionaries from those in paradigmatic dictionaries. I analyse three German online monolingual dictionaries, comparing the characteristics of their synonyms – which are defined in the theoretical framework – to the synonyms that appear in the dictionaries. In so doing, I used a corpus from the semantic field of COGNITION and the subfield of LERNEN. The lexeme is *lernen* (learn). This choice originates from the model of the COMBIDIGILEX project in which each member of the research team works uniquely within a lexical semantic field. The lexemes in this field are classified according to their argument structure and are submitted for special analysis related to paradigmatic and syntagmatic information. Here, we will demonstrate how important the paradigmatic information is, particularly to the user. The analysis of the three dictionaries will serve to present the ways in which synonyms are presented and ask whether there are concomitances or differences within the parameters of the theoretical framework.

3. Theoretical Framework

3.1 Paradigmatic Information in Monolingual Dictionaries

We begin by considering precisely what is meant by paradigmatic information,

which may be considered from two points of view: the dictionary's microstructural perspective within a concrete article or the macrostructural perspective, i.e., the perspective of paradigmatic dictionaries. The choice of general dictionaries for the study of paradigmatic information is relevant. According to Martínez de Sousa (1995), a general dictionary aims to register the largest possible number of words of its type; although not integral or thorough, it includes a high percentage and representative amount of the typical vocabulary of a language. (Haensch *et. al.*, 1982). General dictionaries are one of the most important tools available to users who tend to be unaware of the existence of paradigmatic and conceptual dictionaries when seeking out paradigmatic information. In the dictionaries analysed, the treatment of paradigmatic information differs from other types of dictionaries (see, for example, the German Kempke (2000)). Thus, the relevant question addresses how most general dictionaries present paradigmatic information, and in this section, we attempt to provide an answer.

Paradigmatic information is relevant to synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms and generic names, which may appear in a variety of forms within the microstructure of a monolingual dictionary (Haensch *et. al.*, 1982). 1. They may be distributed between subentries that correspond to different meanings of a word, which offers the advantage of appearing immediately after the definition (or translation) of the lexical unit with which it has a paradigmatic relationship. 2. They may also be included as part of a wide paradigmatic application of the article, which offers the advantage of not overloading subentries that may be heavily loaded with multiple subdivisions, explanations, etc. When the subentries are numbered (for example, based on decimal classification), referring to the number of interest in the paradigmatic extension is easy.

In the case of online dictionaries, paradigmatic information is typically separated from the rest of the entry to provide better visualization. Because of the possibilities that these dictionaries offer (multimedia, interactive, modular and hypertextual character), paradigmatic information is usually more extensive than that shown in most general paper dictionaries (for the advantages of online lexicography, see Haß (2005), Engelberg/Lemnitzer (2009), Storrer (2010), Haß/Schmitz (2010), Tarp (2012)). We will prove this below in our analysis of the three dictionaries under study.

The final section of the entries in some dictionaries tend to indicate words that have a relationship with the treated phrase, not from the point of view of the content but from the point of view of the significant form, particularly homonyms (including non-homographic homophones, such as *mehr* in the case of the term *Meer*) and paronyms (words with a form that is similar to that of the target term, for example, *kindisch* for the term *kindlich*). These appear to be useful, assuming that the relationships between the significant terms are distinguished from the relationships between their meanings.

Within this paradigmatic information, the study focuses on synonymy in the analysed dictionaries. Synonymy has special relevance in monolingual dictionaries. According to Werner Wolski (1990), a distinction should be drawn between lexical synonymy and lexicographical synonymy. Significant features of lexical synonymy are derived from the component analysis of semantic features. From such an analysis, the difference between connotative and denotative features is derived, which fosters the differentiation between identity and similarity. Wiegand (1983) also identifies a difference: lexical synonymy occurs when the rules of usage for A

and B are so similar that the rules of reference and prediction are the same and A may be substituted for B or B for A without changing the meaning in normal texts and in a prescribed environment, such as the reality in which we live: *Tierarzt: Veterinär*. Lexicographic synonymy, according to Wiegand (1983), occurs when B, an object or class of objects, describes something in such a way that the rules for A may be understood based on the usual texts for A and for a prescribed environment (for example, the reality in which we live) and additionally, A may be substituted for B *salva veritate*, permitting a morphological change and thus allowing grammatical phrases to arise: *Gamasche: Beinbekleidung vom Fuß bis zum Knie aus Stoff oder Leder* (Wahrig). The differentiation between lexical and lexicographical synonymy is valid, particularly for nouns, verbs and adjectives. It creates a special problem regarding prepositions, conjunctions and adverbs. Here, solutions are offered from metalexicographic perspectives.

In general dictionaries, the appearance of at least one synonym is obligatory. Therefore, divisions should be made in the information related to the definition, which may contain synonyms of the synonyms. Thus, the explanation of the dictionary meaning is the semasiological component, while the onomasiological part includes the synonyms (Wolski, 1990). Therefore, according to Wolski (1990), various structures may be found in a dictionary item. 1. Synonymic information may appear in the dictionary combined with other textual segments that explain meaning. Thus, the synonym may appear semasiologically as a semantic explanation: *Tisch: Möbelstück, das aus einer waagerecht auf einer Stütze, in der Regel auf vier Beinen, ruhenden Platte besteht, an der gegessen, gearbeitet, auf die etwas gestellt, gelegt werden kann* (DUDEN ONLINE, s/v: *Tisch*). 2. A group of synonyms may also appear as a semantic explanation: *Respekt: auf Anerkennung, Bewunderung beruhende Achtung* (DUDEN ONLINE s/v *Respekt*). 3. Synonyms may be presented first, followed by a semantic explanation: *Chance: günstige Gelegenheit, Möglichkeit, etwas Bestimmtes zu erreichen* (DUDEN ONLINE, s/v: *Chance*). 4. The semantic explanations may be presented first, followed by a group of synonyms: *Charme: Anziehungskraft, die von jemandes gewinnendem Wesen ausgeht; Zauber* (DUDEN ONLINE, s/v: *Charme*). Several synonyms do not appear in online dictionaries because a dedicated section already exists. 5. Synonyms may also appear with an explicit reference before or after the semantic explanation. The synonyms may even appear integrated within the examples: *Lift: Fahrstuhl; der Lift des Hochhauses* (DWDS, s/v *Lift*). 6. In older dictionaries that do not standardize their articles, synonyms are presented with expressions such as "für" and "als" and tend to be embedded in the semantic definitions. According to Haensch et al. (1982), semantic instruction by means of synonyms is an inexact method, or at least an insufficient one, due to the difficulty of finding two lexical units that correspond to the same communication conditions in both identical referential and illocutionary content. However, the integration of synonyms, not only in monolingual dictionaries but also in bilingual ones, is a fundamental element not only for textual production but also for learning functions (Hausmann, 1991a).

3.2 Paradigmatic Dictionaries

In France, studies of synonymy have been central to the development of onomasiological lexicography since the 18th century. Hausmann ("The Dictionary of Synonyms: Discriminating Synonymy", 1990a: 1067) explains discriminating synonymy: "Reflection about the meaning of words by means of comparison, i.e.,

by seeking that which they have in common and that which distinguishes them, is in fact the point at which philosophy and linguistics overlap". As has been recognized by representatives of the modern school of the methodology of structural semantics, in discriminating, synonymy resembles a type of early structural semantics and seme analysis (Hausmann, 1990a). The modernity of Condillac's *Dictionnaire des Synonymes* (1780) is of special note. It follows along the lines of Abbot Gabriel Girard (1718), who may be rightly considered the predecessor of structural semantics. Étienne Bonnot de Condillac organized series of synonyms beyond those in the lexical fields, developing something similar to the dimensions of Horst Geckeler (1994). Another innovative feature inheres in the analysis of semantic features. In the 19th century, Pierre Lafaye developed a theoretical formulation of Condillac's practice in an in-depth introduction to his *Dictionnaire des Synonymes de la Langue Française* (1858). This introduction may be considered the methodological basis for the French lexicographical tradition that follows synonym and analogue dictionaries. The central thesis of Lafaye, which converted him into the founder of structural semantics, is drawn from his belief that scientific character may only be attributed to the description of words in features if they arise from the opposition of all lexemes of a synonymous paradigm (Martín Mingorance, 1994).

In Germany, Eberhard wrote the first significant text of this nature (1795). Practical pedagogically oriented synonymy had reached its zenith with Sanders (1871 and 1896) and came to a temporary end with the last edition of Hoffmann (1859). Grebe and Müller's effort (1964) at a revival of this trend remained unsuccessful. Presently, Müller (1977) is the only work of this type still on the market (Hausmann, 1990a).

Opinions vary on the usefulness of discriminating synonymy. What function can and should discriminating synonymies fulfil? Because of their high degree of headword selectivity, they are unsuitable for the reception of texts. They can only serve as text production aids if they include more syntagmatic information than most currently offer. A didactic function remains that consists of improving the *Sprachgefühl* and language knowledge of native speakers and particularly of foreign learners. However, in contemporary discriminating synonymy, describing each field of synonyms in terms of its own specific structure instead of subjecting them all to the same type of treatment is most important; some fields have a primarily distinctive structure and can therefore be adequately described by, for example, attributing their individual members to specific groups of persons or by describing their expression of certain speakers' intentions (Hausmann, 1990a).

Discriminating synonymy differs from those dictionaries of synonyms referred to by Hausmann (1990b) as *kumulative Synonymik*. These dictionaries are based on a word-finding list. Their only function is to provide support in the process of production and review of the lexicon. They are not appropriate for use by non-natives because they do not provide any type of explanation. In Germany, they started to be recorded in the sixteenth century (Schöpper 1550, Schwartzenbach 1580). There are few of these types of lists because they were replaced by collocation dictionaries.

In the nineteenth century, many dictionaries of synonyms were published. Today, there are still many them in circulation, but they tend to be unsatisfactory, offering only a simple listing of synonyms without precise indications of denotation, connotation or usage situations, and above all, they lack examples. Synonym

dictionaries are usually monolingual. However, some have also been published in bilingual versions based on an incorrect concept of the synonym. In these works, cases of polysemy in the origin language are considered to be cases of synonymy with equivalents being offered for the different meanings of a polysemic word in the target language. If a bilingual dictionary is to make sense, it should be based on the meeting of synonyms in the two languages with clear definitions and boundaries in their respective fields. For example, German: *Glück*, *Vergnügen*, *Fröhlichkeit*, *Zufriedenheit*; Spanish: *felicidad*, *placer*, *alegría*, *satisfacción*. In German, these dictionaries are referred to as *kontrastive Synonymik* (see Hausmann, 1991b), and they are of great theoretical interest because they are based on contexts in which the synonyms appear in opposition and are interchangeable without differences in meaning. Some lexicographers have drawn attention to the difficulty of this endeavour.

4. Presentation of the COGNITION Semantic Field

The study examines the results obtained in a contrast analysis of the German segment of German-Spanish dictionaries within lexicological and lexicographic fields using the framework of the COMBIDIGILEX project. According to Eugenio Coseriu, a semantic field is “a lexical paradigm that originates due to the distribution of a continuum of lexical content in different units, offered in the language as words, which are reciprocated in immediate opposition via distinctive features of simple content” (“Lexikalische Solidaritäten”, 1967: 294). The semantic field that is the subject of the study is COGNITION. Within this field, the subfield of learning has been selected. The verb forming a part of this is *lernen*. The selection of the semantic field was made with the help of onomasiological dictionaries, such as dictionaries of synonyms and related words. Regarding this point, refer to Wehrle and Eggers (1961), and Dornseiff (1965). Under these assumptions, synonyms are presented from three dictionaries, which are the subjects of the study. These are the DWDS, WORTSCHATZLEXIKON and DUDEON ONLINE. As these are not paradigmatic dictionaries, the study aims to present the relevance given to paradigmatic information by each of the general dictionaries.

4.1 Synonyms in the DWDS

DWDS (OpenThesaurus) is a dictionary that classifies different types of information in separate sections: meaning, etymology, examples, synonyms and antonyms. This section addresses synonyms taken from OpenThesaurus:

The screenshot shows a web-based interface for the DWDS (OpenThesaurus) dictionary. At the top, there is a header bar with the text "OpenThesaurus" on the left and three small icons on the right (a document, a question mark, and a close button). Below the header, the main content area has a light gray background. The first section title is "Synonymgruppen für lernen". Underneath this title, there is a list of words in blue text, indicating they are links: "(sich) aneignen, bimsen (umgangssprachlich), büffeln (umgangssprachlich), erlernen, lernen, pauken (umgangssprachlich), studieren". Below this list, another section title "Unterbegriffe:" is followed by a list of words in blue text: "auswendig lernen, büffeln, memorieren". The overall layout is clean and organized, typical of a digital dictionary interface.

Figure 1: Synonyms in DWDS (Open Thesaurus)

As shown in Figure 1, in the case of the term *lernen*, the synonyms appear separated alphabetically and with the designation *Synonymgruppen* (synonyms), depending on their meanings. This corresponds to the second type of classification of the presentation of paradigmatic information according to Haensch *et al.* (1982). There is no differentiation between hyperonyms, paronyms and related words, although all do appear under the designation of synonyms as Haensch suggested, and *pauken* (learn up), for example, is not a total synonym of *lernen* (learn). Some elements are marked by the difference of register (colloquial language). Each of these elements serves as a link to its own article, if the user needs it. A classification of hyponyms (*auswendig lernen*, *büffeln*, *memorieren*; to learn something by heart, to swot, to memorize, respectively) is also offered in which *lernen* (learn) would be the hyperonym. Thus, the user finds only a list of synonyms in other entries that are classified by semantic criteria, such as by the different senses. That is what Hausmann (1990b) designated *kumulative Synonymik*. For production processes, the user would have to consult the use specifications of each synonym to locate them properly in a text. The fact that the user can access the rest of the information through the links (meaning, etymology, examples) makes this task easier.

4.2 Synonyms in WORTSCHATZLEXIKON

The WORTSCHATZLEXIKON offers types of information other than the paradigmatic: morphology, grammar, frequency of occurrence, reference to the Dornseiff dictionary, and the collocations of the entry as well as examples from a real corpus. However, it does not offer the definition of the entry, making it impossible to know whether synonyms are used, as shown in Figure 2.

Wort: lernen

Anzahl: 34716

Häufigkeitsklasse: 8 (d.h. *der* ist ca. 2^8 mal häufiger als das gesuchte Wort)

Morphologie: lern|en

Grammatikangaben: Wortart: Verb

intransitiv

reflexiv

Partizip II mit haben

lautet nicht ab

transitiv

Relationen zu anderen Wörtern:

- **Synonyme:** *aneignen*, *anlernen*, *anlesen*, *anlesen*, *büffeln*, *einpauken*, *einprägen*, *einstudieren*, *einüben*, *erlernen*, *erlernen*, *erwerben*, *fortbilden*, *memorieren*, *pauken*, *studieren*, *studieren*
- **vergleiche:** *studieren*, *üben*
- ist Synonym von: *aneignen*, *angewöhnen*, *anlesen*, *annehmen*, *annehmen*, *auffrischen*, *aufnehmen*, *behalten*, *bimsen*, *büffeln*, *durcharbeiten*, *durchnehmen*, *durchpauken*, *einleuchten*, *einprägen*, *einstudieren*, *einstudieren*, *einüben*, *erarbeiten*, *erlernen*, *erwerben*, *fortbilden*, *memorieren*, *merken*, *pauken*, *präparieren*, *proben*, *probieren*, *studieren*, *trainieren*, *üben*
- wird referenziert von: *aneignen*, *einüben*, *memorieren*, *studieren*

Figure 2: Synonyms in WORTSCHATZLEXIKON

The information about synonyms in the dictionary is based on the relationship between several alphabetically sorted lists of total or partial synonyms. As in

previous cases, this dictionary also corresponds to the second type of classification to show paradigmatic information (Haensch *et al.*, 1982). Similarly, in this case, the hyperonyms, hyponyms and related words are under the same section as synonyms, as suggested by Haensch *et al.*, (1982). There are also entries in which *lernen* (learn) is referenced as a synonym. As with the previous case, each one of the examples has a link to its corresponding entry, allowing the user to immediately access the same information about each one of the synonyms that appears under *lernen* (learn) if needed. The fact that information about each one of the synonyms is not provided on the same page reveals how the dictionary belongs to the so-called *kumulative Synonymik* by Hausmann (1990b).

4.3 Synonyms in DUDEN ONLINE

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| Synonyme  zu <i>lernen</i> | Nach oben |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ablernen, sich aneignen, aufnehmen, sich bilden, durcharbeiten, durchdringen, sich einarbeiten, [sich] erarbeiten, erlernen, erwerben, studieren, sich üben; (umgangssprachlich) sich anlernen, pauken • auswendig lernen, behalten, sich einblauen, sich einhämtern, sich einprägen, sich merken, wiederholen; (bildungssprachlich) repetieren; (umgangssprachlich) [durch]pauken; (abwertend) einlernen; (umgangssprachlich abwertend) einpauken; (bildungssprachlich veraltend) memorieren • einstudieren, einüben, trainieren, üben, sich vorbereiten; (bildungssprachlich) [sich] präparieren; (umgangssprachlich) bimsen, büffeln, [durch]exerzieren, durchkauen, durchpauken, ochsen, pauken; (süddeutsch, österreichisch umgangssprachlich) stucken; (salopp) einochsen; (familiär) sich auf den Hosenboden setzen; (Schülersprache) ehrgeizen • sich angewöhnen, sich zu eigen machen • eine [Berufs]ausbildung machen, einen Beruf erlernen, ein Handwerk erlernen, in die Lehre gehen | |

Figure 3: Synonyms in DUDEN ONLINE

As shown in Figure 3, in DUDEN ONLINE, the synonyms are classified in several alphabetically sorted lists. The lists also correspond to the type of classification that reveals paradigmatic information (Haensch *et al.*, 1982). In this case, we find hyperonyms, hyponyms and paronyms under the synonyms section. For *lernen* (learn), four meanings are presented: 1.1 *sich Wissen, Kenntnisse aneignen* (to acquire knowledge); 1.2 *sich, seinem Gedächtnis einprägen* (memorize); 1.3 *Fertigkeiten erwerben* (acquire skills); 1.4 *im Laufe der Zeit [durch Erfahrungen, Einsichten] zu einer bestimmten Einstellung, einem bestimmten Verhalten gelangen* (acquire a behaviour over the course of the time through experiences, ideas); 2. *[ein Handwerk] erlernen* (learn a job). A list of synonyms corresponds to each one of these meanings. Among the synonyms are partial or total synonyms as well as related words. Likewise, multiword terms can also be found. The reflexive pronoun *sich* is provided for this type of verb, as is the preposition taken by a particular verb. An interesting aspect of DUDEN ONLINE is that it provides information about the stylistic register, such as colloquial, vulgar, literate language, pejorative, regional or temporal uses of the language, as well as information about specific languages.

The synonyms that belong to the standard language appear first, sorted alphabetically. Those that belong to a specific stylistic register appear later, also sorted alphabetically. Not all the synonyms have a link to their own entry, unlike those presented in DWDS and WORTSCHATZLEXIKON. A link appears for those

synonyms with a more direct semantic relationship to the entry. When using the dictionary for production processes, the user gains greater information regarding the specifications of stylistic resources. This fact relates this tool to so-called "discriminated synonymy", as it provides more information about each term and its use than other dictionaries. In this sense, the information presented in DUDEN ONLINE is not only lists of words. It is different from DWDS and WORTSCHATZ-LEXIKON in another way, which is in the inclusion of multiword terms that have a direct relationship with the entry. This aspect is very important since it provides the user with fixed expressions that are not easily found by other means and are related to the concept. The fact that only some terms have a link is not a problem due to the ease of finding new entries in this type of dictionary.

5. Conclusions

To conclude, the following should be noted regarding the importance of paradigmatic information for users: paradigmatic information serves not only to expand on vocabulary but also to strengthen the skills that lead to production. Following the analysis undertaken above, the conclusion may be drawn that a general compliance with the theoretical foundations exists in the analysed dictionaries. Paradigmatic information does not appear in the three dictionaries in the same way. The DWDS dictionary presents the synonyms in an isolated section. It hardly provides any information in this section except in the case of colloquial language, although all the synonyms can be consulted in separate articles through a link. The WORTSCHATZLEXIKON dictionary also has a dedicated section to synonyms. It does not provide specific information about each synonym, although each of the synonyms can be accessed through a link, as with the DWDS dictionary. The dictionary that provides the greatest variety of information is DUDEN ONLINE. It provides information not only about different stylistic registers but also about structures and fixed expressions. In this sense, DUDEN ONLINE is the most complete tool from which the user can obtain the most benefit in terms of production processes. Only DWDS differentiates between hyperonyms and hyponyms. Students should be informed of the numerous possibilities offered by online dictionaries in regards to vocabulary production or extension needs. While these needs may surely be covered by paradigmatic dictionaries, they are often unknown by students who tend to refer to online dictionaries. Substantial diversity has been revealed among these resources with each integrating paradigmatic information in a unique way. The incorporation of paradigmatic information (however it may be accomplished) serves as a valuable tool for users who want to avoid repetition and discover new terms. Thus, offering the most complete information for the correct use of each term is important for dictionaries.

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A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH TESTS FOR UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE IN SPAIN AND GERMANY

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Abstract: This paper is a comparative analysis of the English language assessment of the university entrance examinations “*la Selectividad*” and “*das Abitur*” administered nationwide in Spain and Germany respectively. It is of particular interest to researchers and practitioners of English as a foreign language. The major objective of the current research is to identify any similarities and/or differences in the assessment of English as a foreign language for university admission between the two countries. To this end, the test papers used in 2015 for students in Madrid and Berlin were investigated qualitatively. In order for the analysis to be more systematic, the framework from Douglas (2000) was employed. The findings demonstrate that the two national tests share some similarities. First, the candidates of both tests are required to read the given textual input first before they can complete the writing tasks. Second, listening and speaking skills are not assessed in both tests. On the other hand, overt contrasts between the two tests were identified. The assessment designed for the German students takes longer to complete, and it contains a markedly larger amount of textual data. Furthermore, Spanish students are expected to give “selected response” or “limited response” most of the time while “extended response” to all questions is elicited from German candidates. The findings of this study are valuable because they have shown that the national assessment of English as a foreign language for university admission can vary greatly across non-English-speaking European countries. The assessment in Germany appears to be more challenging than the one in Spain, notwithstanding the very early start of English learning among Spanish children. Given the status of English as an international language, it is highly recommended that some measures be taken, at least among members of the European Union (e.g., via a committee modeling on the Bologna Process), to harmonize the assessment of English as a foreign language for the purpose of university admission.

Keywords: university entrance examination; English language assessment; *la Selectividad*; *das Abitur*; English as a foreign language; comparative analysis

1. Introduction

Universities around the world have their own mechanism for selecting qualified applicants to their undergraduate programs. In most cases, an important criterion is the applicants' performance in a uniform assessment, which is usually the secondary school leaving examination specifically designed for the countries (or territories) where the universities are situated. Examinations serving such a screening purpose are sometimes called “high-stakes” examinations owing to the consequences they have on the test-takers' career (Papadima-Sophocleous,

2013). The relatively well-known example is the British General Certificate of Education Advanced Level (GCE A-Level), which is the most common examination-based qualification for admission to universities in the United Kingdom. Another example is the National College Entrance Examination (*Gaokao*) in the People's Republic of China. Generally, students have to take more than one subject in these examinations. In many countries, this would typically include a foreign language. Given the international status of the English language, it is not surprising that English becomes a popular foreign language in the non-Anglophone sphere. This paper will focus on the assessment of English as a foreign language in two national university admission examinations in Europe. The two countries selected for analysis are Spain and Germany, whose national university admission examinations are called *la Selectividad* (or *Pruebas de Acceso a la Universidad*) and *das Abitur* respectively.

The rationale for this study is twofold. First, as mentioned above, university entrance examinations play an important role in young people's life. Performance in the examinations will determine their chance to receive tertiary education. This can be a justifiable reason for carrying out the present research. Second, the current study is contextualized within Europe. Since Europe is essentially a multilingual continent (as evidenced by the number of official languages in the European Union), it is undoubtedly an intriguing research target in language-related academic inquiries. Nevertheless, including all the European countries in one single study is not feasible. Hence, I decided to pay attention only to Spain and Germany. The fact that these two countries are both located in Continental Europe (one in the southern part and the other in the center) and are among the largest nations in the European Union makes comparative analysis meaningful. Besides, in comparison with places such as Malta, the Philippines and Hong Kong where English instead of the national language is used as the medium of instruction at university, Spain and Germany are very much alike in the sense that English-taught programs are uncommon (Ammon and McConnell, 2002). It can thus be inferred that the English language tests in *la Selectividad* and *das Abitur* are not intended to assess the test-takers' readiness to undertake their undergraduate studies via English. Then what ability are the tests supposed to evaluate? First, capitalizing on Kohn's (2011) discussion vis-à-vis the rising prominence of English in intercultural communication, I believe that the tests assess students' ability to use English as a lingua franca. Second, the language assessment, which forms part of the national university entrance examination, is geared towards measuring students' academic attainment (including foreign language competence) upon completion of their secondary education in the respective countries.

Europe constitutes an interesting research context. On the one hand, it can be regarded as a political entity with common policies (e.g., an internal single market, freedom of movement, etc.). On the other hand, it consists of multiple sovereign states. The problem or issue which this paper aims to address is whether the assessment of English as a foreign language for university admission deviates among European countries, which are somewhat socially and politically unified. Does the assessment vary immensely between Spain and Germany? Or are there many similarities? What precisely are the similarities and/or differences? These are the primary research questions of this study.

This paper will contribute to our existing knowledge of English assessment for

specific purposes. As far as I am concerned, there has been a lack of published work comparing English language tests for university admission across countries. Despite its coverage of only two European countries, the current research can pave the way for future large-scale scholarly projects within or even outside Europe. Furthermore, assessment and teaching are theoretically non-separable. Teachers of English for specific purposes and other stakeholders such as specialists of curriculum design, particularly those in Europe, are able to utilize the results of this study to inform or advance their practice. It is also hoped that recommendations on how to improve the tests, if necessary, can be made.

2. Literature Review

2.1 English in Spain and Germany

As stated by Reichelt (2006: 3), English learning has become prevalent in Spain since the end of Franco's regime in 1975. A reform in the curriculum during the 1980s led to a shift from French to English as the first foreign language (Ammon and McConnell, 2002). In 2015, 99.1 percent of pupils in primary school learnt English as a foreign language (Eurostat, 2016). It was reported that many children start learning English even before their primary education (Reichelt, 2006: 6).

As for Germany, foreign languages (usually two to three hours of instruction per week) have been incorporated in the curriculum of primary education from the third grade in all 16 federal states since the 2004/05 academic year (Goethe Institut, 2016). Different from their Spanish counterparts, only 62.3 percent of primary school pupils learnt English as a foreign language in 2014 (Eurostat, 2016). Despite this, the significance of English is widely acknowledged in the German society because of globalization and English being an international language, particularly in the areas of economy, science and modern media (Goethe Institut, 2016).

2.2 La Selectividad

La Selectividad is also known as *Pruebas de Acceso a la Universidad* (PAU). It is the qualification which allows school graduates to matriculate at university in Spain. The assessment consists of two main parts: (i) the compulsory "general phase" where students are assessed in core subjects including history, philosophy, Spanish language and literature, a chosen foreign language and a co-official language like Catalan if applicable; (ii) the optional "specific phase" where students are assessed in not more than four other subjects of their choice. The assessment of each subject is in the form of a 90-minute written examination. The examination questions are set by the authority of each autonomous region. In the "general phase," the foreign languages available for students to select are English, Italian, French, German and Portuguese (Selectividad Online, 2016). In this paper, I will investigate the contents of the English language assessment.

2.3 Das Abitur

Das Abitur is the qualification needed for students to study at university in Germany. In most cases, students in the last two years of secondary education prepare for the assessment. Since the education policy in Germany is decided at the level of the federal states, there are minor variations in how the assessment is

done. In Berlin, the assessment is comprised of three written examinations, one oral examination and an assignment, covering three areas: (i) language, literacy and art; (ii) social sciences; (iii) mathematics, science and technology. Students are obliged to select a foreign language for the assessment. What is more, two of the five assessment components (or subjects) must be at the advanced level (*Leistungskurs*), which involves longer teaching hours and more specialized subject knowledge (Senatsverwaltung für Bildung, Jugend und Wissenschaft, 2016). For subjects taken at the advanced level, the tasks which students have to complete and the duration of the assessment are different as compared to the basic level (*Grundkurs*). In this paper, I will analyze the contents of the English language written examination at both the basic and the advanced levels.

2.4 Previous Research on Tests of English as a Foreign Language

Tsagari and Banerjee (2015) provided a chronological account of language testing (or assessment) in the field of educational linguistics. According to the two scholars, until the 1970s, language testing was heavily modeled upon the structural perspective of language. As a result, tests mostly focused on isolated components of language knowledge, such as specific lexical items and phonemic differentiation. In the 1980s, more attention was paid to the test-takers' ability to use the target language to communicate and tests were designed to engage the test-takers in dealing with contextualized communicative situations. In the 1990s, the notion of "test wash back" appeared and there was an increasing interest in the positive and negative effects of tests on learning. More recently, scholars have devoted themselves to the issue of effective classroom-based assessment practices (2015: 340–341). As Tsagari and Banerjee (2015: 341) further clarified, core issues which concern language testing are: (i) validity (whether a test really measures what it is intended to assess); (ii) reliability (whether the measurement of the test-takers' performance is consistent); (iii) fairness (whether certain test-takers would be disadvantaged during the assessment because of factors other than their ability which is being evaluated).

In one chapter of her book *A Course in English Language Teaching*, Ur (2012) offered a comprehensive description of the practical matters related to assessment and testing. One of these matters concerns the test design (e.g., which test items are frequently utilized, how reading, listening, speaking and writing skills can be tested, etc.). While Ur's (2012) discussion is meant for assessing English proficiency in general, some scholars like Douglas (2000) and Elder (2016) talked about testing languages for specific purposes (LSP), i.e., tests oriented towards specific language use situations such as English for health professionals. Nevertheless, Douglas (2000: 1) emphasized that all tests are planned for certain purposes so it is not possible to rigidly classify a test as "general purpose" or "specific purpose." Instead, what can be said is that each test may fall onto a scale of specificity ranging from very general to very specific.

A large number of empirical studies on tests of English as a foreign language have been published. Some examples are the research of Cho and Bridgeman (2012), Díez-Bedmar (2011), Laborda and Martín-Monje (2013) and Uysal (2010). Among these four studies, the ones conducted by Díez-Bedmar (2011) and Laborda and Martín-Monje (2013) are of high relevance to the current study because Spain was the research target. Díez-Bedmar (2011) performed error analysis on the test-takers' responses to a writing task in the English language test of *la Selectividad*

which took place in Jaén (a city in the autonomous region of Andalusía) in 2008. The candidates had to write a text which discusses where, outside Spain, they would go on a short pleasure trip. 302 texts amounting to 34 403 words were selected for analysis. In total 5811 errors were found and a large proportion of the errors were attributed to the inappropriate choice of vocabulary, wrong spelling and incorrect utilization of pronouns and articles (2011: 149). Díez-Bedmar (2011) argued that the findings could help language teaching professionals develop suitable strategies which would enhance Spanish students' writing competence. Laborda and Martín-Monje (2013), on the other hand, proposed drastic changes to the existing format of the English language test of *la Selectividad*. The scholars stated that the format has remained the same for two decades and is thus outdated as it does not contain listening and speaking tasks. Laborda and Martín-Monje (2013) subsequently reported on a funded experiment with a suggested new test format in Madrid. It was concluded that a revamped test format which takes into consideration students' oral production skills is highly recommended because this would reflect more accurately the social realities.

3. Data and Methodology

The data of the present study came from the English language tests of *la Selectividad* and *das Abitur* administered in 2015. At the time of research, the latest accessible test questions of *la Selectividad* are the ones in 2015, although the questions of *das Abitur* in 2016 have already been published. To facilitate the comparative analysis, I decided to analyze the tests from the same year. In Spain, the question papers are different across the autonomous regions. Likewise, in Germany, each federal state uses a different test paper. To make the current study more focused, I investigated the test papers developed for students in the two capital cities (viz., Madrid and Berlin). The test paper for Madrid was published by Grupo Anaya whereas the test questions for *das Abitur* in Berlin were published by Stark Verlag.

To systematize my analysis, I employed the framework suggested by Douglas (2000: 50–52) for analyzing task characteristics in LSP tests. The framework, with slight modifications, is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Framework for analyzing task characteristics in LSP tests [adapted from the work of Douglas (2000)]

Characteristics of the rubric
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specification of objective • Procedures for responding • Structure and format • Time allotment
Characteristics of the input
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prompts • Input data
Characteristics of the expected response
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Format (written or oral) • Type of response (selected, limited production or extended production)

I would like to emphasize that the framework stipulated in Table 1 is a step-by-step guide to my analysis. In other words, I analyzed the data first on the basis of “characteristics of the rubric,” followed by “characteristics of the input” and then “characteristics of the expected response.” The term “rubric” generally encompasses “test-related procedural information” that is not part of the test input. According to Douglas (2000: 50–52), the rubric of an assessment includes the objective (viz., what kind of ability is being tested), procedures for responding (viz., how test-takers should complete the tasks), structure and format (viz., the number of tasks and the relative significance of each task) and time allotment (viz., the amount of time given to test-takers for completing the tasks). Unlike “rubric,” “input” was defined by Douglas (2000: 56) as material which directly relates to the tasks. “Input” includes prompts (viz., contextual information necessary for performing the tasks such as the specific role which test-takers have to take on) and input data (viz., the text and visuals which test-takers must process while completing the tasks). “Expected response” refers to the nature of linguistic production anticipated from test-takers (Douglas, 2000: 63). For example, are they required to provide a written answer? Or should answers be given orally? Douglas (2000: 73) differentiated between “selected response” (viz., multiple-choice questions or something similar), “limited response” (viz., production at the sentential level or below) and “extended response” (viz., paragraphs or essays). It should be noted that the two publishers Grupo Anaya and Stark Verlag both specialize in producing educational materials for *la Selectividad* and *das Abitur* respectively. They do not only publish the examination questions, but they also provide solutions (including sample essays which mirror students’ English proficiency). To enrich the analysis, these sample essays (24 in total) were analyzed as well. Since the language tests are intended for students who would like to study at university, I checked these sample essays against the Academic Vocabulary List (AVL) compiled by Gardner and Davies (2014) from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). The checking was done through an online interface (available at <http://www.wordandphrase.info/academic/analyzeText.asp>) housed by Brigham Young University. The interface can highlight the words of a given text which tend to be found in the academic genre. Users of the interface can also find out the academic disciplines (e.g., humanities, science, business, etc.) with which the identified words are usually associated.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Characteristics of the Rubric

The English language test paper of *la Selectividad* begins with a short instruction written in Spanish. Students are advised to read carefully the texts in the whole paper and the corresponding questions. After that, they have to choose one of the two options (A or B) and answer the questions of the selected option in English. Each of the two options contains a text followed by five questions. The text in Option A has 277 words while that in Option B consists of 243 words. Although the two texts deal with different topics, the first three questions in both options are related to reading comprehension. In the first question, students have to determine

whether two given statements are true or false by giving evidence from the text. In the second question, students are asked to use their own words to respond to questions about the text. In the third question, students are given four words and they have to identify their synonyms from the text. The last two questions move away from reading comprehension. In the fourth question, students have to fill in blanks so that the resulting sentences are grammatically correct. In this part, students are tested on their knowledge of various grammatical rules (e.g., conditional sentences, relative pronouns, passive voice, prepositions, etc.). The final question is a writing task. Students are asked to produce a text of about 100 to 150 words on an issue closely related to the given text. Students have to complete all the questions within 90 minutes and dictionaries are not permitted during the assessment.

As for *das Abitur*, the two test papers (one for *Leistungskurs* and the other for *Grundkurs*) have the same structure. Both test papers are divided into two main parts (*Aufgabe 1* and *Aufgabe 2*). At the beginning of each part, the focus areas (*Themenschwerpunkte*) are specified. These focus areas are “ethnic diversity,” “the impact of media on society,” “personal relations in their social context” and “science and technology.” In both test papers, one of the two parts is comprised of a text written in English followed by three tasks and the other part is made up of two texts (one in English and one in German) and four tasks, one of which is specifically connected to the German text. This particular task is known as “mediation” in the sense that students have to outline the information presented in the German text for an English-speaking audience. In the final task of each part, students are given a choice of three questions which involve: (i) explanation of a quotation taken from the text; (ii) compare the information of the text with literature or films which students have read or seen; (iii) produce a text of a particular register (e.g., “a speech for an international youth conference”). The three texts in the *Leistungskurs* test paper amount to 1962 words while those in the *Grundkurs* test paper amount to 1483 words. Students are given 270 minutes and 210 minutes to complete the *Leistungskurs* test paper and the *Grundkurs* test paper respectively. Unlike the test in Spain, the use of monolingual dictionaries is allowed.

The analysis in this part has shown that although the two tests aim to assess English language proficiency for the purpose of university entrance, different types of knowledge or skills from candidates are assumed. The test-takers in Germany have to be knowledgeable about the German language, otherwise they will not be able to complete one of the tasks. Nonetheless, a person who does not speak Spanish will not experience any critical disadvantage during the English language assessment of *la Selectividad*.

4.2. Characteristics of the Input

The English language test papers in Spain and Germany are primarily based on “reading-to-write” rather than “writing-only” tasks, as the test-takers have to read certain textual materials (viz., “input data”) first before producing their own texts. Gebril (2010) noted that this is a relatively new assessment method. Nevertheless, analysis of the test papers has revealed that noticeable deviations in the characteristics of the input exist between the two national tests. First of all, the prompt in the English language assessment of *das Abitur* indicates that students are tested on a wider range of “higher order thinking skills” (Anderson and

Krathwohl, 2001). Examples are “outlining,” “commenting,” “comparing” and “assessing.” On the other hand, students taking the English language assessment of *la Selectividad* are tested mainly on their ability to “identify” and “paraphrase” relevant information from a short text, which is geared towards “lower order thinking skills.” Only in the fifth question, students are given the opportunity to express their opinion with justifications. As for the input data employed in the assessment, both national tests make use of written textual input. No chart, audio or table is utilized as the input data. Nevertheless, students in Germany have to process a larger amount of textual input than their Spanish counterparts, as the findings reported in Section 4.1 have illustrated. Furthermore, the textual input used in *das Abitur* consists of excerpts from novels and news articles, which are considered “genuine” textual data (Douglas, 2000). By contrast, the textual input in *la Selectividad* was supposedly created by the test developer for the purpose of the assessment since the text was not attributed to any external source.

4.3. Characteristics of the Expected Response

Students’ response to the questions in both national tests is expected to be in written English only. Spoken English skills are not assessed. The test-takers of *das Abitur* are required to produce “extended response” (i.e., a paragraph or lengthier written text) to all the tasks or questions. Conversely, those of *la Selectividad* generally need to provide either “selected response” (i.e., the true-or-false format) or “limited response” (i.e., a word, phrase or sentence). The only exception is the writing task at the end where students have to produce a text of about 100 to 150 words.

4.4. Analysis of the Sample Essays

Table 2 displays the total length of the sample essays given by the two publishers in response to the writing tasks of the two tests. The table also shows the percentage of words in the essays which overlap with the top 3000 academic words of the Academic Vocabulary List (Gardner and Davies, 2014).

Table 2:Length of the sample essays and the percentage of academic words

Test	Total length of the sample essays provided by the publishers	Percentage of academic words
<i>la Selectividad</i>	269 words	14%
<i>das Abitur (Leistungskurs)</i>	4511 words	12%
<i>das Abitur (Grundkurs)</i>	3447 words	11%

It is clear that students taking *das Abitur (Leistungskurs* as well as *Grundkurs*) would have to produce much longer texts than those participating in *la Selectividad*. However, the sample essays for the two tests have more or less the same “academic density.” 14% of the words in the sample essays for *la Selectividad* are commonly found in the academic genre while the figures are 12% and 11% for *Leistungskurs* and *Grundkurs* of *das Abitur* respectively. Due to the paucity of the Spanish data, caution has to be exercised and any conclusive

statement should be avoided at this stage. Also, one ought to bear in mind that the sample essays are not really the students' answers. An alternative would be to examine the essays written by the test-takers, which is beyond the scope of the present research. I will talk more about this in the conclusion.

5. Conclusion

In this section, I will discuss the contributions of my research findings to our knowledge about English assessment for specific purposes. After that, practical recommendations will be put forward.

The present research has shown that the national assessment of English as a foreign language for university admission can differ greatly across non-English-speaking European countries. It appears that the assessment in Germany is more demanding than the one in Spain, despite the very early start of English learning among Spanish children as mentioned earlier in this article. German students have to undergo a longer duration of assessment and have to handle a significantly larger quantity of textual data (including one text in their first language instead of the target language) than their Spanish counterparts. Of course, this study has examined only two countries and more work is definitely needed in order to increase our understanding of English assessment for university entrance in Europe. However, I believe that this paper has laid the groundwork for future research.

Besides, my analysis has confirmed the applicability of the framework proposed by Douglas (2000) to research on language testing. In addition, I have demonstrated that this framework can be combined with the Academic Vocabulary List (Gardner and Davies, 2014) when English assessment for university admission is investigated. One limitation of the current study is that only the sample essays provided by the publishers were checked against the Academic Vocabulary List. For researchers who have access to the essays written by the candidates of the tests, the use of the Academic Vocabulary List is potentially promising.

As for my recommendations, listening and speaking skills, which are fundamental to language proficiency but are not assessed in the two national tests, should be integrated into the assessment. Furthermore, in light of the large discrepancies between the two tests identified in this study, it is advisable that initiatives should be taken, at least among the members of the European Union, to harmonize the school leaving assessment of English as a foreign language across the various countries. There are two ways in which such "harmonization" can be achieved. First, test designers may align the assessment with well-established benchmarks like the ones implemented by Cambridge English (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, 2016). Second, a special task force resembling the Bologna Process (European Higher Education Area, 2016) can be set up to work on the comparability of English language assessment for university entrance across countries. It goes without saying that cooperation between relevant parties from different countries is a precondition for "harmonization."

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STRATÉGIES DE CONSTRUCTION D'UN DISCOURS POSITIF. LE CAS DES SITES WEB DES PRATICIENS DE L'ART DENTAIRE

STRATEGIES OF POSITIVE DISCOURSE CONSTRUCTION. THE CASE OF DENTAL ART PRACTICES WEBSITES

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Abstract: In most cases, before choosing a dentist and request an appointment, the patient gets informed from relatives, friends, and acquaintances. Nowadays he also has the opportunity to make the choice by consulting websites or Facebook pages of dentists. The trust is outlined prior to the meeting itself, before stepping into the cabinet. For good visibility, for attracting and retaining a greater number of patients, for an effective communication with patients as well as for gaining their trust, many dentists have decided to create their websites so as to present the cabinet and their services on the Internet. Moreover, their mere presence on the Internet gives authority and gives the impression of strong, well-prepared, modern and open personalities. If the speech they build manages to calm the fears and anxieties of the patient, if the tone is warm and close to the patient, if the site is attractive, not only informative, the patient will be convinced of the qualities and competence of the doctor and his team, of the fact that they will benefit of quality treatment in a pleasant and modern environment. We consulted numerous sites from different cultural environments - French, Italian and Romanian and, given the size of this paper, we presented the theme construction of the discourse in three of them, from the perspective of the French School of discourse analysis. In our view, the theme construction gives clues on how the organization shapes its identity, being a collective discursive construction. We examined what information was selected to be presented, the way they are organized and prioritized, the layout, titration, the text - photo / audio-visual documents relation. Each and every time we found the concern to provide information and explanations, the focus on some keywords (quality, accuracy, competence, experience, performance, innovation), the constant presence of the word "smile" in the discourse, an important number of images, building a speech steeped with trademarks of subjectivity and the preference for certain isotopes. All these rhetorical strategies contribute to a positive attitude towards the dentist and dental treatments.

Keywords: discourse analysis, theme construction, organizational identity, site web, dental esthetics

1. Introduction

Le cabinet du chirurgien-dentiste est un espace où, généralement, le patient ne se sent pas à l'aise, surtout à cause de ses pensées et de ses attentes négatives. La communication a lieu dans un contexte anxiogène, c'est pourquoi il n'est pas facile d'instaurer une relation de confiance et de collaboration entre le chirurgien-dentiste et le patient. Pour expliquer au patient sa situation, les solutions et les traitements proposés, le médecin doit mettre en scène un discours positif. Il doit mobiliser toutes ses ressources pour essayer de diminuer le stress, la douleur, l'anxiété du patient et pour rendre plus confortables les soins dentaires.

Selon Charon et al. (2014), les qualités relationnelles du chirurgien-dentiste sont tout aussi importantes que ses compétences techniques. Il y a différents moyens de communiquer avec les patients dans l'espace clos du cabinet dentaire. Le médecin et son équipe doivent choisir les moyens les plus appropriés, en adoptant des attitudes positives.

1.1 Le médecin et les nouveaux outils de communication

De nos jours, grâce au développement de l'Internet, à la communication via les réseaux sociaux et à la création de sites web, avant même d'entrer dans le cabinet dentaire le patient a la possibilité de se familiariser avec l'espace où il sera traité, le médecin ou l'équipe qui va s'occuper de lui, le langage spécialisé, les différentes procédures médicales. Une recherche sur Internet lui permet non seulement de gagner du temps, mais aussi de sélectionner, parmi plusieurs variantes possibles, le fournisseur de services médicaux qui semble le plus adéquat à ses besoins. Au moment où le patient va subir les interventions médicales, son niveau de stress sera déjà considérablement diminué.

De nombreux praticiens de l'art dentaire ont commencé à exploiter le potentiel des nouveaux outils de communication, ont renoncé à présenter leur organisation à l'aide de brochures, de flyers ou de posters et ont décidé de créer des sites web. Barile (2010 : 211) définit le site web comme un espace virtuel formé par un ensemble de pages reliées par des hyperliens. Parmi les avantages d'un site web, l'on peut mentionner la possibilité d'offrir une grande quantité d'informations, de les mettre à jour continuellement, d'insérer des dessins, des photographies, des documents vidéo, de réservier une partie du site à certains utilisateurs.

Le simple fait de détenir un site web est un indice d'autorité, de sérieux, de crédibilité. Être présent sur le web, c'est une condition primordiale pour avoir du succès dans la société et dans l'économie actuelles. Selon Popescu (2008), le site web est non seulement une modalité efficace de communication, mais aussi un instrument stratégique de marketing.

1.2 Cadre méthodologique

Il y a peu d'études consacrées aux sites web des chirurgiens-dentistes et la plupart d'entre elles appartiennent aux spécialistes en marketing et communication.

McLeod (2012) souligne le fait que les chirurgiens-dentistes jouissent de nombreux bénéfices s'ils sont présents sur le web. Un site web bien construit, contenant des hyperliens et des mots-clés, permettrait d'attirer de nouveaux patients et d'offrir de nombreuses informations aux patients actuels. Mais la simple existence d'un site web ne suffit pas pour garantir le succès à long terme. McLeod identifie des techniques qui servent à optimiser la visibilité d'un site web dans les pages des résultats d'une recherche sur Google : ajouter périodiquement de nouveaux

contenus (textes, images, hyperliens vers d'autres sites), introduire sur la page d'accueil des mots-clés persuasifs et des images significatives, créer des pages Facebook ou Twitter, proposer un blog, recourir à la technique de marketing Pay-Per-Click.

Alors que McLeod étudie les stratégies de marketing et les possibilités de rendre plus visibles les sites web des chirurgiens-dentistes, Kavoura et Constantin (2015) proposent une analyse de contenu, en travaillant sur un corpus de sites web des cabinets dentaires d'Oradea (Roumanie). Kavoura et Constantin identifient les éléments de contenu les plus utilisés, en considérant le site web comme un outil novateur de marketing et communication.

Dans le contexte de l'essor du tourisme médical, pour accroître les chances d'élargir leur clientèle, les praticiens de l'art dentaire commencent à créer des sites web multilingues (Constantin et Kavoura 2016).

Notre intention est d'analyser les sites web des chirurgiens-dentistes dans la perspective de l'École française d'analyse du discours. Nous allons montrer la manière dont, à travers leurs sites, les praticiens de l'art dentaire se forgent une image de professionnels crédibles, sérieux, expérimentés, passionnés et quelles sont les stratégies les plus utilisées pour construire un discours rassurant et encourageant. Les principaux buts de ces stratégies sont les suivants : attirer de nouveaux patients, les fidéliser et les préparer psychologiquement pour les services médicaux.

Pour illustrer les stratégies de construction d'une identité et d'un discours positifs sur les sites web des professionnels de l'art dentaire, nous avons consulté un nombre important de sites web. Nous avons examiné d'abord les sites web français, ensuite nous avons étendu l'analyse aux sites web italiens et roumains. Nous croyons qu'en ajoutant la perspective comparatiste de Scavée et Intravaia (1979), l'on peut arriver non seulement à caractériser le discours des praticiens de l'art dentaire, mais aussi à comparer divers styles d'écriture.

Cette communication représente la première étape de notre recherche, à savoir l'identification des stratégies discursives communes à ces trois espaces culturels. Des études ultérieures permettront d'approfondir et d'expliquer les divergences qui apparaissent entre la manière dont les praticiens des trois espaces culturels construisent leur discours.

Nous avons examiné les stratégies discursives auxquelles les praticiens de l'art dentaire recourent le plus fréquemment, en utilisant les concepts et les méthodes de l'École française d'analyse du discours, à savoir les *subjectivèmes* – les traits en fonction desquels on pourrait examiner le taux de subjectivité d'un texte (Kerbrat-Orecchioni 1980), les mécanismes constitutifs de la mise en discours (Fuchs 1983), le modèle d'analyse du discours journalistique proposé par Florea 2007.

L'analyse sera principalement fondée sur la notion de construction thématique de l'événement, que L.S. Florea (2007) a expliquée en examinant un corpus de presse écrite. Pour étudier la construction de l'événement dans les quotidiens, Florea propose un modèle d'analyse en trois étapes : la construction thématique, la construction générique et l'organisation textuelle de l'événement. Par construction thématique l'on entend la sélection des données qui méritent d'être présentées, le mode d'organisation et de hiérarchisation de l'information, c'est-à-dire le découpage de la matière informationnelle en pages ou sections, la mise en page, la disposition des photographies et des vidéos, la mise en titre. La construction

générique vise la sélection d'un « mode discursif archétypal » et d'un « genre de discours particulier » (Florea 2007, Charaudeau 1997, 2005). L'organisation textuelle inclut l'analyse des plans de texte, de la séquentialité, des reformulations, des connecteurs argumentatifs et de l'alternance des temps verbaux (Florea 2007, Adam 1990). C'est un modèle d'analyse qui intègre les données de l'analyse du discours et celles de la linguistique textuelle.

L'analyse du discours des praticiens de l'art dentaire sur le dispositif des sites web, que nous proposons ici, sera principalement axée sur la première étape du modèle de Florea, à savoir la mise en thème du discours. Nous considérons que la description de la construction thématique du discours peut apporter des indices importants sur le discours des médecins.

Nous avons prêté une attention particulière aux éléments suivants :

- la page d'accueil,
- les logos, les messages à fort impact émotionnel et les slogans,
- les mots-clés,
- les titres,
- les images de fond,
- le jeu texte / photographies ou vidéos de présentation,
- les pages ou les sections sélectionnées, consultables à l'aide d'un menu horizontal et/ou vertical,
- le portrait des médecins et des membres de leur équipe,
- les valeurs qui guident l'activité du cabinet,
- les opérations énonciatives (la source énonciative, les modalités appréciatives).

Le nombre, le nom, la présence ou l'absence d'une section ou d'un autre élément sont des indices importants sur l'identité, l'originalité et la créativité de l'organisation. En outre, un site de qualité mise sur l'alternance de plusieurs types de discours (narratif, descriptif, argumentatif, explicatif, injonctif), en mettant en scène l'information d'une manière attrayante.

L'interaction des éléments à visée informative et des éléments à visée de captation (Charaudeau 1997, 2005) constitue une stratégie par laquelle les médecins vont à la conquête de nouveaux patients, en essayant de focaliser les aspects positifs et en promettant des résultats spectaculaires, voire miraculeux des soins dentaires.

2. Mise en thème d'une identité positive

Beaucoup de chercheurs ont essayé de définir la notion d'identité organisationnelle. Il y a une multitude de définitions données par les spécialistes de l'économie, par les sociologues, les psychologues et les linguistes.

Dans un article paru en 2001, Nicole Giroux réalise une esquisse de typologie des définitions de l'identité :

- a) en tant que « réalité concrète » ou « entité », l'organisation a une identité créée par les dirigeants et les spécialistes du marketing ;
- b) si l'on conçoit l'organisation comme un « processus organisant », l'identité n'est qu'une représentation ou une interprétation des actions de ses membres ;

- c) l'organisation, définie comme une « réalité sociale construite par une collectivité » a une identité collective dynamique, qui se construit et se reconstruit dans le discours grâce à la contribution de nombreux « auteurs » ;
- d) l'identité ne serait qu'une illusion, il vaudrait mieux parler de la notion d'« image » de l'organisation.

Nous allons étudier l'identité des praticiens de l'art dentaire en la considérant comme une construction collective (c), une création discursive dynamique. C'est une entité qui peut être mise en texte à l'aide de plusieurs supports de communication : noms de marque, logos, slogans, cartes de visite, dépliants, sites web.

Nous avons choisi les sites web en considérant que la construction du discours sur un site donne des indices importants sur l'identité organisationnelle, qu'elle constitue un facteur de différenciation, qu'elle peut influencer la décision d'un visiteur de devenir patient et qu'elle peut devenir un vecteur de fidélisation de la clientèle.

3. Mode de traitement de l'information. Sélection, organisation, hiérarchisation

En raison des contraintes d'espace, la présente communication ne contient que trois des études de cas réalisées. Nous allons exemplifier la diversité et l'attractivité des sites des praticiens de l'art dentaire en présentant trois sites web de trois espaces culturels (français, italien, roumain).

Il s'agit de langues romanes et d'espaces culturels entre lesquels il existe beaucoup d'affinités. Dans tous les cas analysés, la préoccupation pour rassurer les patients et pour les inviter dans le cabinet dentaire est primordiale.

3.1 Le site web du docteur Marie Chrétien-Franceschini

Parmi les sites français que nous avons consultés, nous avons choisi de présenter celui du docteur Marie Chrétien-Franceschini. Elle est à la fois praticien (chirurgien-dentiste spécialisé dans l'implantologie et dans l'esthétique dentaire) et chercheur (ayant des interventions à des congrès et des conférences).

C'est un site extrêmement complexe, quadrilingue (français, anglais, russe, espagnol), qui contient aussi bien des pages ou sections obligatoires pour tout site de chirurgiens-dentistes (Accueil, Le Cabinet, Prestations, Contact) que des pages ou sections facultatives (Esthétique dentaire, Cas avant/après, Livre d'or, Actualité du cabinet ou News), consultables aussi bien à l'aide d'un menu horizontal qu'à l'aide d'un menu vertical. La manière dont on organise l'information dans les pages obligatoires, le nombre et le nom des sections constituent des indices sur l'identité et la créativité de cette organisation.

Sur la page d'accueil apparaissent de nombreuses informations :

- À gauche, le nom du cabinet (« Cabinet du Sourire ») est accompagné du logo (le dessin délicat d'une bouche souriante, dont on ne voit que les lèvres, sur fond bleu).
- Au centre, quatre images se succèdent, accompagnées de slogans publicitaires : la photographie d'une bouche, toujours souriante, avec des

dents sur lesquelles on a appliqué des facettes (« Facettes dentaires sans tailler les dents »), la photographie du cabinet (« Un cabinet moderne au cœur du 16^{ème} »), la photographie d'une femme souriante (« Retrouvez un sourire en accord avec votre personnalité »), la photographie d'un jeune homme, toujours souriant (« Prenez rendez-vous pour une consultation esthétique. Vous connaîtrez enfin votre plan de traitement idéal »). Ces images et ces slogans invitent le patient dans un espace idyllique, imprégné de beauté et de sérénité, avec la promesse de soins dentaires non invasifs et sans douleur.

- À droite, l'on retrouve les mots-clés du site, à savoir : « Facettes dentaires sur mesure », « Sans tailler vos dents », « Esthétique dentaire », « En seulement 2 séances », « Spécialiste du sourire », « Sans anesthésie », « Facettes pelliculaires ». L'idée du sourire unique, adapté à la personnalité de chaque patient, complétée ici par le « sur mesure » donne l'impression d'être dans le salon d'un grand couturier qui réalise des modèles originaux, destinés à être reproduits aux mesures des clients. Le médecin est « le spécialiste du sourire », de la beauté, du luxe, un artisan et un artiste à la fois.
- Bien qu'un site web soit la création d'une équipe de spécialistes en communication et marketing – sur la base des informations fournies par le chirurgien-dentiste – le docteur Marie Chrétien-Franceschini décide de s'adresser directement aux patients, en racontant son expérience personnelle. Ainsi, sur la page d'accueil on peut lire un texte qui présente les caractéristiques du discours autobiographique. L'énonciateur s'exprime à la première personne, en adoptant un ton chaleureux, proche du patient et il signe à la fin. C'est un texte dominé par des marques de la subjectivité de l'énonciateur : le pronom personnel « je » (« j'ai désiré faire ce site [...] », « ce qui compte pour moi est que chaque sourire reste unique »), les adjectifs possessifs (« mes patients »), les verbes de volonté (« désirer »), les adverbes (particulièrement), un vocabulaire affectif (« je m'attache particulièrement pour que [...] »), des marques d'évaluation (« un joli sourire », « chaque personne est unique [...] », « parfaite adéquation »). Le patient est impliqué dans le discours, grâce à la présence de la deuxième personne (« Comme ce fut possible pour moi, je m'attache particulièrement pour que ce soit possible pour vous. » ; « Vous retrouverez un sourire [...] sans tailler vos dents [...] »). La présence des marques de la subjectivité de l'énonciateur, l'évocation d'une expérience personnelle et le lexique positif visent l'instauration d'une relation de confiance entre le médecin et le patient.
- La phrase finale reprend les mots-clés mentionnés ci-dessus et reformule les slogans qui accompagnent les photographies postées toujours sur la

page d'accueil : « Avec notre approche entièrement individualisée et nos facettes dentaires pelliculaires en céramique, vous retrouvez un sourire en parfaite adéquation avec votre personnalité en seulement 2 séances, sans tailler vos dents et sans anesthésie. »

- Sous le texte signé par le docteur Marie Chrétien-Franceschini sont mentionnées la conférence à laquelle elle a participé, deux émissions de télévision auxquelles elle a été invitée et un extrait d'un article de presse qui présente le concept de « sourire sur mesure ». Ces informations sont accompagnées d'hyperliens grâce auxquels l'on accède à la bande annonce de la conférence, aux émissions et à la première page de l'article de presse.
- La titraille de l'article paru dans la revue Paris Match met sous accent focal le principal mot-clé des sites des chirurgiens-dentistes, le sourire (en position thématique), qui est qualifié d'atout majeur (en position rhématique) et réintroduit l'isotopie de la haute couture :

(1) « Le sourire. **UN ATOUT MAJEUR**

LA DENTISTERIE ESTHÉTIQUE EST DEVENUE CE QU'EST LA HAUTE COUTURE POUR LE PRÊT-À-PORTE.

De véritables orfèvres ont mis au point des techniques qui éclairent, rajeunissent et rétablissent l'harmonie du sourire. On embellit l'aspect des dents en respectant la personnalité du patient : du sur-mesure.

Six spécialistes exposent leurs dernières avancées. »

(Paris Match, 28/04/2014)

- Dans le chapeau, le journaliste crée également l'isotopie de l'orfèvrerie : le chirurgien-dentiste serait un bijoutier. Ses objectifs seraient d'« embellir » les dents et de « rajeunir » le visage du patient en posant des facettes dentaires, des « objets précieux », de véritables « bijoux d'orfèvrerie ».
- La page d'accueil se conclut avec une citation : « Il suffit de peu pour engendrer un sourire, et il suffit d'un sourire pour que tout devienne possible. (Gilbert Cesbron) »

Par conséquent, le mot « sourire » est le point central du discours du médecin. Le logo, les slogans, les autres textes, les photographies présentes sur le site contiennent ce mot-clé, car le sourire est un « atout majeur », un critère de bonne santé, de dynamisme, d'ouverture, de beauté, d'harmonie. Le discours a un très haut degré de subjectivité, il transmet un message d'ouverture sur un ton chaleureux et apaisant.

Les autres pages ne font qu'apporter des informations complémentaires rassurantes. Ainsi, la page « Le Cabinet » contient la liste des diplômes obtenus par le chirurgien-dentiste (« spécialiste du sourire ») et un document vidéo qui présente son équipe, sur un fond de musique douce. Cette page, ainsi que la page « Consultations/Accès », contient des photographies du docteur Marie Chrétien-Franceschini, toujours souriante. La page « Esthétique dentaire » commence elle

aussi sur le mode subjectif (« Nous réalisons les soins [...] ») et continue par des séquences explicatives auxquelles on accède à l'aide d'hyperliens. On se familiarise ainsi avec les principales « solutions esthétiques modernes » que le médecin propose à ses patients. La page « Cas avant/après » illustre par des photos une trentaine de cas pour lesquels le médecin a trouvé des solutions. Ici la photographie l'emporte sur le texte, en orientant l'attention sur les résultats des soins dentaires. Parfois, il y a la transformation totale du visage, par conséquent le patient a la possibilité d'améliorer son estime de soi.

Parmi les pages que l'on peut consulter à l'aide du menu vertical, il faut mentionner la page « Livre d'or », contenant quelques mots de remerciement de patients et des témoignages vidéo et la page « Actualité du cabinet », qui contient des hyperliens donnant accès à des émissions de télévision, à des articles de presse, à la page de Facebook du médecin ou à diverses informations (horaires d'ouverture etc.). Sur la page « Actualité du cabinet » ou « News » on peut voir le médecin en train de travailler au microscope, ce qui nous confirme encore une fois qu'elle travaille avec des appareils de dernière génération.

Le médecin invite les patients à prendre contact avec son cabinet sur un ton très chaleureux :

(2) « Chères patientes, cher patients,

Si vous souhaitez prendre un rendez-vous, remplissez le formulaire de contact ci-dessous et nous vous contacterons dans les plus brefs délais. »

Sur ce site, les éléments à visée informative et les éléments à visée de captation se complètent harmonieusement, de façon à induire chez le potentiel patient le courage de franchir la porte du cabinet dentaire.

3.2 Le site web des cliniques dentaires SoloSorrisi

À Rome, un groupe de chirurgiens-dentistes a décidé de créer le centre « SoloSorrisi », qui est devenu une marque, un outil de différenciation dans l'esprit des patients. La philosophie de ce réseau de cliniques dentaires est : chirurgiens-dentistes de grand mérite à un prix correct (« dentisti di qualità e valore al giusto costo »).

Quand on accède au site web de Solosorrisi, que l'on peut consulter uniquement en italien, on remarque que les auteurs du site ont misé sur l'émotion et sur la curiosité des visiteurs. Sur la page d'accueil se succèdent trois photographies de très grandes dimensions, accompagnées de messages qui représentent des invitations à découvrir le site :

- Sur la photographie d'une jeune femme qui cache sa bouche avec une feuille de papier il y a le slogan : « Scopri ora il sorriso che puoi avere » (Découvre maintenant le sourire que tu peux avoir). On est invité à lire davantage en cliquant sur le bouton « Scoprilo » (Découvre-le !). La page à laquelle on accède ainsi est titrée : « SCOPRI IL SORRISO CHE PUOI AVERE CON LE FACCIETTE IN PORCELLANA O CON LE RICOSTRUZIONI ESTETICHE » (Découvre le sourire que tu peux avoir avec les facettes en porcelaine ou avec les reconstructions esthétiques) et contient des textes et des images qui expliquent au patient la technique

novatrice du sourire 4D (« Sorriso in 4D »). Le chirurgien-dentiste qui utilise cette technique est comparé à un architecte (qui réalise d'abord la maquette d'un édifice) ou à un couturier (qui fait une pièce d'habillement sur mesure). Une autre séquence à fonction de slogan compare le sourire à un vêtement : « con la nostra tecnica Sorriso in 4D potrai letteralmente indossare il tuo futuro sorriso » (avec notre technique du Sourire 4D tu pourras porter, littéralement, ton futur sourire).

- Le message suivant accompagne la photographie d'un couple très heureux : « Come avere denti nuovi in un giorno » (Comment avoir des dents neuves en une seule journée). Le bouton « Scopri come » (Découvre comment) nous guide vers une page contenant le même titre, où l'on peut lire des informations sur l'implantologie dentaire et sur la technique de pointe utilisée par les médecins de Solosorrisi, à savoir les implants de charge immédiate. Sur la page interne la séquence « denti nuovi in un giorno » est mise entre guillemets, ayant la fonction d'un slogan. La technique avancée de ce type d'implants permet de réaliser l'intervention en moins de 24 heures. C'est une approche « personnalisée », « moderne et fiable », qui peut « résoudre beaucoup de problèmes » sans faire souffrir le patient. L'énonciateur utilise bien des marques d'appréciation et d'évaluation. Il promet au patient des « résultats étonnantes ».
- Alors que les deux premiers messages contiennent principalement des mots positifs, le troisième parle de l'élimination de la peur et du stress (mots écrits avec une majuscule) : « Come eliminare Paura e Stress dal dentista » (Comment vaincre le Stress et la Peur du dentiste). Si l'on clique sur le bouton « Scopriamolo insieme » (Découvrons-le ensemble), on remarque un titre qui reformule l'idée du premier : « Non soffrire dal dentista » (Ne pas souffrir chez le dentiste). La sensation créée par l'utilisation des mots « peur », « stress », « souffrir » sera neutralisée par l'explication de la technique de la sédation consciente, destinée à assurer la détente et le confort des patients.

Dans la page interne, l'ample introduction de la description et de l'explication des protocoles modernes de sédation mise sur l'opposition *souffrance / relaxation* (patients anxieux, effrayés, phobies, peurs, douleur, aggravation de l'état de santé / sans aucune souffrance, techniques sûres et bien ancrées, élimination totale de la douleur) :

(3) « [...] molti pazienti ansiosi, impauriti dal dentista, e a volte con vere e proprie fobie (odontofobia) non riuscendo a trovare un'adeguata soluzione alle loro paure (psicologiche) e/o alla loro elevata sensibilità al dolore (dolore fisico reale) tendono a rimandare le cure con l'unico risultato di peggiorare il loro stato di salute [...]. »

(beaucoup de patients anxieux, effrayés par le dentiste, ayant parfois de vraies phobies (stomatophobie) car ils ne réussissent pas à trouver une solution adéquate à leurs peurs (psychologiques) et/ou à leur très grande sensibilité à la douleur (douleur physique réelle) tendent à renvoyer les soins dentaires ; le seul résultat en est l'aggravation de leur état de santé [...].)

(4) « È scientificamente dimostrato: con la sedazione cosciente, è possibile curare i tuoi denti senza alcuna sofferenza, riducendo il numero di appuntamenti e i costi finali. La completa eliminazione del dolore, dello stress e dell'ansia è realizzabile [...]. » (Il est scientifiquement démontré qu'avec la sédation consciente il est possible de soigner tes dents sans aucune souffrance, en réduisant le nombre des rendez-vous et les coûts finaux. L'élimination totale de la douleur, du stress et de l'anxiété est réalisable [...].)

(5) « Come risolvere?

Adottando delle tecniche sicure e consolidate, utilizzate da sempre in molte branche della medicina, per ridurre drasticamente o eliminare completamente il dolore e la paura. »

(Comment résoudre cela ?

En adoptant des techniques sûres et bien ancrées, utilisées depuis toujours dans beaucoup de spécialités médicales, pour réduire drastiquement ou éliminer complètement la douleur et la peur.)

En utilisant des adverbes (drastiquement, complètement) et des adjectifs qualificatifs (élimination « complète » de la douleur, techniques « sûres et bien ancrées »), l'instance énonciatrice crée un discours ayant un très haut degré de subjectivité et un grand potentiel persuasif.

Ces photographies et messages ont aussi bien le rôle d'introduction que le rôle de séduire les visiteurs du site. L'énonciateur s'adresse aux potentiels patients à la deuxième personne du singulier, en les tutoyant. À la différence du site présenté ci-dessus, dans ce cas le ton est très familier.

Le menu horizontal contient les boutons : Home, Chi siamo (Qui sommes-nous), Gallery, Dove siamo (Où sommes-nous), Lavora con noi (Travaillez avec nous), Contattaci (Contact).

Le discours de la page « Qui sommes-nous » porte lui aussi l'empreinte d'une subjectivité accrue. Il s'agit d'un réseau exclusif auquel peuvent adhérer seulement les cabinets dentaires qui remplissent certaines conditions (« un network esclusivo di studi professionali »). Dans ces cabinets travaillent de vrais professionnels, des spécialistes, des médecins expérimentés qui offrent des services de haute qualité. Le groupe SoloSorrisi garantit au patient, d'une manière explicite, qu'il peut faire confiance à ces médecins très compétents :

(6) « Siamo affidabili. [...] siamo in grado di risolvere brillantemente anche i casi più complessi ». (Nous sommes dignes de confiance. [...] nous sommes capables de résoudre brillamment même les cas les plus complexes.)

La page « Qui sommes-nous » a elle aussi un menu vertical permettant l'accès à d'autres pages qui apportent des informations supplémentaires concernant

l'équipe de SoloSorrisi, les offres et les tarifs, les appareils orthodontiques, la pédodontie, les possibles demandes que l'on peut faire à son dentiste, etc.

Les médecins de SoloSorrisi, un « team di specialisti e chirurghi implantologi » (une équipe de chirurgiens-dentistes et de spécialistes en implantologie), assistent le patient tout au long de sa vie, en lui permettant de bénéficier des meilleures techniques de soins. La publicité vidéo qui précède le texte est intitulée « Uno staff al servizio del tuo sorriso » (Une équipe au service de ton sourire), reprenant partiellement le contenu du premier bouton du menu vertical « Uno staff al tuo servizio » (Une équipe à ton service).

Les images sont accompagnées de slogans. Ceux-ci nous assurent que les médecins seront toujours auprès de nous :

(7) « Con te dal primo giorno.

Con te, nei momenti importanti.

Con te.

Con te, per tornare a sorridere. »

(Avec toi, à partir de ton premier jour de vie.

Avec toi, dans les moments importants.

Avec toi.

Avec toi, pour que tu souries de nouveau.)

Les boutons « Lavora con noi » (Travaille avec nous) et « Contattaci » (Contact) invitent les dentistes à adhérer au groupe et les patients à contacter un des cabinets SoloSorrisi. Le titre de la page « Contattaci » contient lui aussi un verbe à l'impératif : « Prenota una visita gratuita » (Contactez-nous pour une consultation gratuite).

Ce site mise surtout sur les sensations et les émotions des patients. Les mots sur lesquels on insiste le plus sont : sourire, qualité, exclusivité, attention, spécialiste, expert, résoudre les problèmes. Il est vrai que l'énonciateur italien introduit beaucoup de mots à connotation négative, mais en les introduisant dans des systèmes d'oppositions il réussit à aider les patients à surmonter leurs peurs et leurs phobies. Ainsi, on les assure qu'ils seront soignés par de vrais spécialistes, qui vont trouver des solutions aux problèmes les plus difficiles en appliquant les techniques de relaxation les plus modernes.

3.3 Le site web de la clinique Dreossi Dental

La clinique du docteur Giulia Dreossi, située à Bucarest, a un site web unilingue (à l'exception de la page Dental Tourist, écrite en anglais), mais complexe. La page d'accueil présente trois photographies de grandes dimensions, qui se succèdent l'une à l'autre, et le slogan « Zâmbește ... este un dar din suflet » (Souris ... c'est un don de l'âme). Les photographies reflètent l'ambiance détendue du cabinet médical, en montrant des personnes souriantes (des patientes et le médecin).

Le fil rouge du discours du médecin est toujours le sourire. Celui-ci est considéré comme un critère selon lequel on émet des jugements de valeur sur les gens,

(8) « *Prima impresie contează !*

65% dintre noi facem judecăți imediate despre oameni pe baza zâmbetului lor ! »

(C'est la première impression qui compte !

65% d'entre nous jugent tout de suite les gens en fonction de leur sourire !)

la « garantie d'un état d'harmonie intérieure », un indicateur d'une bonne santé et d'une bonne estime de soi. Les gens qui ont un beau sourire semblent plus intelligents, plus confiants, meilleurs dans leur carrière. C'est pourquoi l'on se propose de redonner aux gens le sourire, on leur promet un « nouveau style de vie », une « énergie positive », pour qu'ils puissent offrir aux autres des sourires. Le menu horizontal contient aussi bien des éléments obligatoires (Acasă - Accueil, Despre noi - Qui sommes-nous, Tratamente - Soins, Contact), que des éléments facultatifs (Dental +, Tarife - Tarifs, Galerie, Blog).

Sur la page « Qui sommes-nous » on peut lire un texte de présentation écrit en italiques (imitant l'écriture manuscrite), signé par le médecin et par son équipe. L'énonciateur souhaite aux visiteurs la bienvenue, sur un ton très chaleureux. Il s'exprime à la première personne du pluriel et il s'adresse aux visiteurs du site à la deuxième personne du singulier.

Le texte contient bien des marques de subjectivité : pronoms (nous, tu), adjectifs possessifs (notre, ton), un vocabulaire affectif (gentillesse, respect, passion) et positif (énergie positive) :

(9) « [...] îți dăruim cu bunătate și considerație îngrijirea stomatologică corectă de care ai nevoie. » ([...] nous t'offrons, avec gentillesse et respect, les soins dentaires corrects dont tu as besoin.)

Le patient est la personne la plus importante, le médecin et son équipe faisant tout le possible pour lui :

(10) « Îți asigurăm cea mai bună îngrijire stomatologică pe care sănătatea ta o merită. » (Nous t'assurons les meilleurs soins dentaires que ta santé mérite.)

(11) « [...] vom alege împreună tratamentul individualizat, [...] » ([...] nous choisirons ensemble le traitement individualisé, [...])

(12) « [...] te vom învăța să exercezi tehnici preventive [...]. Te vom consilia [...] » ([...] nous t'apprendrons à exercer des techniques de prévention [...]. Nous te donnerons des conseils [...])

(13) « [...] te așteptăm să examinăm împreună cu atenție și răbdare problemele dintilor tăi. » ([...] nous t'attendons pour examiner ensemble attentivement et patiemment les problèmes de tes dents.)

Tout comme dans les deux cas présentés ci-dessus, le médecin et son équipe (que l'on peut voir dans les photographies qui suivent le texte) sont de vrais professionnels: animés par la passion pour leur métier, ils participent à beaucoup de cours de spécialisation. L'on a accès à la présentation de leurs compétences et activités en cliquant sur le bouton « Află mai multe despre noi » (Apprends davantage sur nous). Ils promettent aux patients la « perfection » (une fonctionnalité maximale des dents, une esthétique impeccable) à un prix correct et les invitent dans le cabinet :

(14) « Acum încă nu e prea târziu! Pentru a avea un zâmbet nou și frumos, trebuie să ai încredere în tine, acum! » (Il n'est pas encore trop tard! Pour avoir un sourire beau et nouveau, tu dois avoir dès maintenant confiance en toi !)

La page « Tratamente » (Soins) passe en revue les principaux domaines de la dentisterie : l'esthétique dentaire, l'implantologie, l'orthodontie, l'endodontie, la parodontologie (à savoir les spécialités des chirurgiens-dentistes de l'équipe). À chaque fois, il y a un titre nominal écrit en caractères grands, suivi d'une introduction. Le bouton « Află mai multe » (Pour en savoir plus) donne accès à une page contenant de nombreuses explications sur ce que signifient ces termes, sur les interventions médicales dont le patient peut bénéficier, sur les problèmes que ces interventions peuvent susciter.

En créant la page « Dental + », la clinique se démarque de ses concurrents. D'abord, elle propose aux couples qui vont se marier un plan de soins (de 3 à 6 mois avant les noces), car la seule chose que les gens vont remarquer le jour du mariage est le sourire. Le sourire devient un accessoire indispensable de la jeune mariée, tout comme la robe, les bijoux, les fleurs et les chaussures. Au cours des années les médecins de l'équipe ont créé des « sourires beaux et sains, en aidant les gens à regagner l'estime de soi et la confiance en soi ». Après le titre binaire « Nunta mea ... Pas cu pas către un zâmbet din suflet » (Mes noces ... Pas à pas vers un sourire du cœur) et une brève introduction, en cliquant sur le bouton « Pour en savoir plus » on accède au plan de traitement détaillé.

Sur la même page « Dental + » on apprend que la clinique déroule un programme gratuit dénommé « Enfant en bonne santé = Enfant heureux ». Ce programme comprend des visites de familiarisation avec le cabinet médical, des consultations, des programmes d'éducation et des nettoyages professionnels. Toujours à l'aide du bouton « Pour en savoir plus », les parents arrivent à la page contenant des détails sur ce programme. C'est la seule section du site où l'on trouve des mots à connotation négative :

(15) « [...] o excursie la dentist poate fi un eveniment înfricoșător – copilul se află pe un scaun într-o cameră necunoscută plină de zgomote și obiecte nefamiliare. [...] Pentru a ajuta și ușura vizitele viitoare pentru copilul dumneavoastră (și pentru dentist!), iată câteva sfaturi, astfel el se va simți confortabil și mai relaxat. » ([...] une visite chez le dentiste peut être un événement terrifiant – l'enfant est assis sur un fauteuil, dans une pièce qu'il ne connaît pas, pleine de rumeurs et d'objets étrangers. [...] Pour vous aider et pour rendre plus faciles les futures visites à votre enfant (et au dentiste !), voilà quelques conseils, ainsi il se sentira plus confortable et plus détendu.)

Nous remarquons le recours à la même stratégie utilisée par l'énonciateur italien, à savoir la création de systèmes d'opposition (événement terrifiant / conseils pour se sentir confortable, détendu). D'ailleurs, un des conseils que le médecin donne aux parents est de ne jamais employer les mots « douleur », « peur », mais d'utiliser plutôt des phrases et des expressions positives : « on va vérifier ton sourire », « dents solides, propres, saines ».

Le site contient également d'autres pages où les informations sont hiérarchisées d'une manière originale. Sur la page « Tarifs », la liste des prix pour les divers services médicaux est précédée d'une introduction écrite sur le même ton amical

que les autres textes du site. En outre, l'on propose aux patients « des solutions financières personnalisées, des abonnements et des cartes uniques ». La page Blog, contenant un menu vertical (Articles, Questions et réponses, Dental Tourist), a un grand pouvoir de captation. La page n'est pas encombrée d'informations : pour chaque article il y a le titre, l'introduction et une photographie. L'information est organisée et hiérarchisée de manière à faciliter la lecture.

Parmi les atouts de ce site l'on peut mentionner l'organisation rigoureuse de l'information, la lisibilité (une mise en page aérée et attrayante, peu de photographies très bien choisies, des rapports étroits entre les photographies et le texte, la concentration des photographies dans la page « Galerie », le nombre important de boutons permettant l'accès aux informations supplémentaires), la création de pages originales (Dental +, Blog).

Nous remarquons encore une fois la présence massive d'un vocabulaire positif (harmonie, beauté, santé), d'un lexique affectif (passion, âme, cœur), l'utilisation des adjectifs qui expriment des qualités absolues (correct) ou le superlatif (maximal, impeccable), le rôle principal du mot « sourire » dans les titres, dans les slogans, dans les autres textes, la promesse de la beauté, non pas uniquement de la santé.

4. Conclusion

Les sites web des chirurgiens-dentistes fournissent beaucoup d'informations médicales, organisées et hiérarchisées d'une façon extrêmement attrayante. La visibilité et la lisibilité sont les caractéristiques essentielles de ces sites.

En général, on veut éliminer tous les obstacles susceptibles d'empêcher le patient de franchir la porte du cabinet dentaire. En voulant écarter les peurs et les phobies des patients, on construit un discours rassurant. On crée des logos et des slogans encourageants, des isotopies inédites, on énonce des titres et des sous-titres ayant un grand impact émotionnel et persuasif, on met sous accent focal les mots positifs, on introduit de nombreuses marques de subjectivité dans les textes, on utilise un ton rassurant et chaleureux.

Les principales stratégies utilisées pour créer un discours positif, communes aux trois espaces culturels, que nous avons identifiées et illustrées ci-dessus, sont les suivantes :

- le haut degré de subjectivité du discours ;
- l'implication du visiteur du site dans le discours ;
- le recours massif à des éléments à visée de captation (logos, slogans, photographies, vidéos) ;
- le rôle fondamental assigné à l'image ;
- le portrait du médecin – élément indispensable de tout site web : le chirurgien-dentiste est envisagé comme personnage positif (un spécialiste qui réalise des services de très haute qualité, un artiste et, en même temps, un ami du patient) ;
- le vocabulaire positif et le lexique affectif (« le sourire » – mot-clé essentiel, l'équivalence « santé – beauté – perfection ») ;

- la focalisation sur les résultats des soins dentaires ;
- la création de pages inédites, originales.

Dans le cas du discours italien et du discours roumain, nous avons remarqué une certaine préférence pour le concret, pour la création de systèmes d'opposition, pour l'expression des sentiments et des émotions, pour l'utilisation constante d'un vocabulaire affectif et pour l'instauration d'une relation très familière avec le patient. Les sites roumains contiennent une abondance d'informations supplémentaires (des explications détaillées des procédures médicales et des traitements), visant à éduquer et à rassurer les patients.

Quand il s'agit d'une comparaison entre des espaces culturels, il y a plusieurs variables qui entrent en jeu. Scavée et Intravaia (1979) ont démontré l'existence de divergences entre les tendances expressives du français et de l'italien. L'italien aurait un degré de subjectivité plus élevé, une prédilection pour le contraste entre l'expression concrète et l'expression abstraite, un goût hédoniste pour la cadence et le rythme des phrases. Des analyses ultérieures permettront de savoir si la prise en compte de ces variables n'aura pas d'influence sur nos conclusions.

Les sites web des chirurgiens-dentistes s'avèrent particulièrement intéressants pour les linguistes et pour les chercheurs en analyse du discours, même si au début ils ont été l'objet d'étude des spécialistes en communication et marketing.

La figure du chirurgien-dentiste est elle aussi surprenante : quel que soit l'espace culturel où il déroule son activité, la clé du succès du praticien de l'art dentaire est de combiner compétence et passion, précision et art, désir de formation permanente et pouvoir magique. Le chirurgien-dentiste n'est plus seulement un thérapeute. C'est un artiste, un bijoutier, un architecte, un esthéticien, un psychologue, un spécialiste de la communication. Parfois il a même des qualités de magicien. Son métier ne cesse d'évoluer et d'interagir avec d'autres spécialités médicales et avec de nombreux autres domaines d'activité.

Le praticien de l'art dentaire promet aux patients de leur redonner le sourire, en réalisant des soins dans une période très courte et sans que le patient souffre. Il construit un discours qui contient beaucoup de promesses, parmi lesquelles la promesse d'une vie meilleure, même celle de la jeunesse éternelle.

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MODULES LINGUISTIQUES ADAPTÉS AU SECTEUR DU TOURISME

LINGUISTIC MODULES ADAPTED TO THE TOURISM SECTOR

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Abstract: Due to the application of new technologies, computers as the new medium of our society have opened a new dimension of teaching languages. Information systems allow for leaving the classroom virtually, finding authentic and topical teaching resources in the target language. The present study shows how teachers can incorporate the internet in teaching foreign languages for specific purposes and aims to outline a new language learning project applying blended learning at the University of Debrecen, Hungary. The project is aiming at reaching language competence levels expected by the job market, and also developing a language teaching program which is adjusted to the new learning routines of the students. This article gives a detailed presentation of a training programme developed in French for students majoring in tourism and hospitality BA education at the University of Debrecen. The curriculum is designed to improve written and oral communication skills in situations arising in the context of tourism. Thus a wide range of topics most important in the world of work and vocabulary development (writing a CV, finding a job, tourism internships, the hotel and the restaurant industry, etc.) are included. The article also presents how job interviews and meetings in foreign languages and other everyday situations can be included in the curriculum. Special attention is paid to motivating students with online materials and introducing internet resources for language practice and information acquisition in order to make language learning more enjoyable. Since Hungarian undergraduate students need to pass a B2 level exam in one or two foreign languages in order to receive a degree, this paper also sets out to present the students' specific language needs. Thus, we demonstrate that our aim is to adjust the course to learners' needs and provide the most suitable materials in order to achieve set goals: to cover the exam requirements and at the same time prepare learners for their future work.

Keywords: information technology, language learning project, tourism, exam requirements

1. Introduction

Dans le monde du travail, la maîtrise des langues étrangères est une compétence clé et constitue un prérequis pour les jeunes diplômés souhaitant s'insérer sur le marché de l'emploi. La présence d'entreprises multinationales sur le territoire national, de même que les possibilités accrues de mobilité au sein de l'espace Schengen, sont autant de facteurs qui poussent les étudiants à renforcer leur attractivité auprès des employeurs en développant leurs compétences en langues

étrangères. Dès lors, nul ne sera surpris de la nécessité pour les établissements d'enseignement supérieur de prendre acte de la situation et d'adapter leurs dispositifs de formation linguistique. (Kurtán & Silye, 2006)

En Hongrie, la politique de formation en langues étrangères est la prérogative des établissements universitaires. Il convient toutefois de constater que l'obtention du diplôme est soumise à des exigences spécifiques établies au niveau national, pour chaque programme d'études. Concrètement, cela signifie que tout étudiant a l'obligation dépasser un examen de langue de niveau B2, général ou professionnel, en rapport avec sa formation.

En termes de politique linguistique, l'enseignement supérieur hongrois définit les priorités suivantes:

- Intégration de l'apprentissage des langues étrangères dans le cursus des étudiants
- Développement de la connaissance de la langue-cible
- Développement de l'enseignement des langues sur objectifs spécifiques
- Offre des cours disciplinaires en L2
- Développement de la prise de conscience de l'utilité de l'apprentissage des langues étrangères (Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006)

Notons que l'enseignement des langues dans les établissements universitaires hongrois poursuit un double-objectif : d'une part, répondre aux besoins du marché du travail ; d'autre part, préparer les étudiants aux épreuves des examens de langue accrédités tout en mettant l'accent sur le développement de compétences linguistiques spécifiques au monde professionnel.

2. Principales méthodes et approches didactiques

De nos jours, l'omniprésence dans tous les domaines de la vie des nouvelles technologies de l'information et de la communication(TIC), en général, et de l'Internet, en particulier, n'est pas sans influencer notre conception de l'enseignement des langues étrangères.

En effet, d'un point de vue rétrospectif, les contenus et les méthodologies de référence dans le domaine de l'enseignement de langues ont toujours été le reflet fidèle des avancées technologiques et des représentations de leur époque. Ainsi, dans une perspective à la fois humaniste et élitaire, la méthode traditionnelle (début du XVIème) – ou méthode « grammaire-traduction » – se focalise sur la lecture des textes anciens et met l'accent sur la grammaire et la mémorisation du lexique. Au tournant du XIXe siècle, en réaction, la méthode directe privilégie l'oral: l'apprenant est confronté à la langue étrangère dans les mêmes conditions que lors de l'aquisition de la langue maternelle en s'appuyant sur une pédagogie d'exploitation de la gestuelle et de l'image. L'apprentissage s'effectue par imitation selon les préceptes des théories acquisitionnistes. Au cours de la deuxième guerre mondiale, on voit apparaître la méthode audio-orale (MAO) qui continue à accorder la priorité à l'oral et fixe pour objectif de communiquer en langue étrangère. Cette méthode subit l'influence du distributionnalisme et du behaviorisme et préconise un usage exclusif de la langue cible. Dans les années 1950, la méthode audio-visuelle met l'accent sur la combinaison du son et de l'image dans une perspective communicative. (Bárdos, 1988) Puis, avec le développement des technologies de l'information et de la communication (TIC) pour la formation, l'apprentissage des

langues assisté par ordinateur (ALAO) voit le jour dans la didactique des langues. L'utilisation de plus en plus répandue des TIC induit de nouveaux usages qui modifient à la fois les postures et les rôles des acteurs dans le processus d'enseignement-apprentissage et favorisent l'émergence du e-learning et de l'apprentissage en ligne. (Hamm & Czellér, 2015) Les évolutions technologiques récentes permettent désormais à l'apprenant d'étudier de façon de plus en plus autonome, à son propre rythme et en fonction de ses propres centres d'intérêt. Lors de l'élaboration des cursus, les enseignants doivent veiller à doser efficacement le ratio médiation/médiatisation des contenus d'apprentissage. D'une part, la variété des outils doit être analysée, maîtrisée et utilisée à bon escient. D'autre part, la nature des interventions change fondamentalement de nature puisqu'il s'agit de plus en plus de guider l'apprenant dans son parcours d'apprentissage. Parmi les différents types de dispositifs existants, nous retiendrons le blended learning – ou formation mixte – qui permet d'alterner les sessions en ligne et les sessions en présentiel.

3. Le projet

L'utilisation des ordinateurs et de l'Internet caractérise et domine notre siècle et influence de plus en plus les processus pédagogiques. L'accès au savoir prend des formes de plus en plus dématérialisées. On constate que les technologies de l'information et de la communication jouent un rôle très important dans l'enseignement des langues étrangères tout en influençant les habitudes et les stratégies éducatives. Les mutations en cours touchent l'ensemble des acteurs de la formation. Outre l'attrait des étudiants pour les nouvelles technologies, les enseignants eux-mêmes doivent se préparer à affronter les défis à venir et adapter leurs cursus aux nouveaux besoins et aux nouvelles exigences. On ne sera donc pas étonné de l'intérêt d'intégrer davantage les TIC et d'introduire de nouvelles approches pédagogiques pour maintenir la motivation des étudiants et renforcer l'efficacité de leurs apprentissages. (Czellér & Hajdu, 2014)

3.1. Objectifs

Dans le cadre de son projet, l'Université de Debrecen a souhaité adapter son offre d'enseignement en langues étrangères aux besoins du marché du travail mais aussi aux nouvelles modalités d'apprentissage des étudiants inscrits dans les différents cursus qu'elle propose.



Figure 1 : Le projet

Source: <http://szaknyelvtudas.unideb.hu/>

Pour ce faire, notre groupe de travail s'est inspiré de référentiels professionnels existants mais a également invité un panel d'employeurs locaux à exprimer directement leurs besoins ressentis en termes de communication professionnelle. Après analyse, ces besoins couvrent toute une gamme de documents et de procédures à l'oral et à l'écrit. Ces derniers nous ont permis de développer des modules thématiques en différentes langues (allemand, anglais, russe, français) et dans des domaines variés (entreprise, tourisme, alimentation). Pendant la phase de construction des modules linguistiques, la motivation des étudiants, le besoin impérieux d'offrir une pédagogie active et communicative et des informations actualisées ainsi que l'intention d'intégrer autant que possible les nouvelles technologies étaient au cœur de nos préoccupations.

3.2. Le module

L'étude qui suit se propose de présenter, dans les grands traits, l'une des réalisations récentes de l'Université de Debrecen. Il s'agit du cursus intitulé *Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique* destiné aux étudiants inscrits en Licence Tourisme et Hôtellerie. Ces étudiants doivent impérativement atteindre le niveau B2 dans les 4 habiletés (CO, PO, CE, PE) et recourir à la langue-cible pour accomplir des tâches professionnelles, ce qui explique le choix des ressources mises à leur disposition.

Liste des objectifs fondamentaux du curriculum

- Présenter les sujets les plus importants dans le domaine du tourisme et de l'hôtellerie
- Améliorer la maîtrise des compétences de communication et de compréhension écrite et orale en relation avec les besoins du marché du travail
- Valider les compétences développées lors des épreuves d'examen de langue
- Introduire des ressources Internet pour la pratique des langues

Les objectifs présentés ci-dessus ont servi de base à la création des 10 unités présentées dans le tableau suivant :

Table des matières	
Unité 1.	Formation en tourisme et hôtellerie
Unité 2.	Job d'été dans le secteur du tourisme et hôtellerie
Unité 3	Stage dans le secteur du tourisme et hôtellerie
Unité 4	Chercher du travail
Unité 5	Entretien d'embauche
Unité 6	Tourisme - secteur créateur d'emplois
Unité 7	Le e-tourisme
Unité 8	Hôtellerie
Unité 9	Restauration
Unité 10	Sport- Loisirs- Voyages

Figure 2 : Table des matières

Source : *Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique*

Dans la formation des étudiants de Licence Tourisme et hôtellerie, nous désirons atteindre le niveau B2 professionnel. Au cours de la formation, on met l'accent sur

le développement des compétences linguistiques complexes ainsi que sur l'enrichissement du vocabulaire utilisé dans le contexte du tourisme et de l'hôtellerie.

Notre objectif est également de permettre à nos étudiants d'améliorer leurs performances aux examens de langue sur objectifs spécifiques. A cet effet, nous nous référerons aux activités et aux tâches caractéristiques de ce domaine.

Une grande partie de notre programme est construite à partir de ressources Internet actualisées, soit en intégrant directement le texte dans l'unité, soit en fournissant une sélection de liens pour guider les étudiants vers d'autres lectures ou pour les aider à recueillir des informations utiles et pertinentes dans leur domaine d'étude.

Naturellement, les manuels actuellement disponibles sur le marché ne sont nullement dénués d'originalité ou d'intérêt. D'une part, leur approche généralement programmatique et/ou systématique offre une réflexion préalable sur les contenus et peuvent, de la sorte, servir de ligne-guide aux enseignants lors de la construction de leurs séquences pédagogiques (Grant, 1987). D'autre part, des ouvrages tels que *Le français du tourisme* ou *Hôtellerie-restauration.com* permettent aux étudiants de découvrir le monde du tourisme et de faire fructifier leurs savoirs et savoir-faire, notamment grâce à leurs activités de vocabulaire spécifique et de grammaire en contexte.

Selon nous, il convient néanmoins d'adapter tous ces contenus aux besoins spécifiques des étudiants hongrois. Le module présenté dans cette étude pourrait ainsi tirer parti des programmes locaux de préparation aux examens de langue sur objectif spécifique.

Ainsi, chaque leçon de ce module s'efforce de développer les quatre compétences en proposant des exercices de compréhension écrite, de production écrite, de compréhension orale et de production orale. Les objectifs de chaque unité sont définis en corrélation étroite avec les contenus des modules. Outre des activités d'enrichissement lexical, les leçons proposent également une aide à la rédaction de documents professionnels et mettent l'accent sur la compréhension de textes authentiques (documents touristiques) ainsi que sur la compréhension orale (enregistrements sonores).

Unité 1. Formation en tourisme et hôtellerie

Objectifs de l'unité

- *Savoir parler de vos études*
- *Comprendre la formation en tourisme et hôtellerie en France*
- *Comprendre comment rédiger une lettre de motivation*
- *Comprendre un texte écrit issu d'un document touristique*
- *Comprendre un enregistrement sonore*

Figure 3 : Objectifs de l'unité

Source : Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique

3.3. L'Oral

Le développement de la compétence de communication est une tâche prioritaire dans l'enseignement des langues vivantes. Le marché du travail cherche des

candidats qui peuvent entrer en communication facilement avec les clients et peuvent également utiliser le vocabulaire spécifique du secteur en question. Ainsi, ce module favorise l'acquisition de compétences pratiques de communication professionnelle à l'oral, entretiens d'embauche, rencontres professionnelles, situations courantes et plausibles dans le secteur du tourisme. Pour améliorer l'expression orale, les activités lexicales occupent une place prépondérante. Internet permet de trouver de nombreuses informations authentiques et actualisées: textes, dialogues, images, diagrammes. Toutes ces ressources amènent l'apprenant à enrichir son vocabulaire. Les images ainsi que les diagrammes sont des supports efficaces et motivants qui aident les enseignants à faire parler les apprenants. L'activité de description d'images avec des mots-clés spécifiques au monde du tourisme développe dans une grande mesure l'imagination et la créativité des apprenants :

Décrire les images

EXPRESSION ORALE

- *Entretien de recrutement*

Qu'est-ce que vous voyez sur ces images? Comment pourriez-vous décrire les scènes et les gens? Vous pouvez utiliser le vocabulaire ci-dessous ou vos propres idées.



<http://www.masculin.com/lifestyle/1536-comment-preparer-entretien-embauche/en-entretien-d-embauche-comme-au-theatre.html>

(intéressé, timide, passionné, dynamique, bonne humeur, capacités d'intégration, confiant, effrayé, nerveux, créatif, heureux, bien habillé, être habillé convenablement, ordonné, stressant, contester, en col blanc, responsable, bureau, convaincre, qualifié)

Figure 4 : Exercice de description d'image

Source : Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique

EXPRESSION ORALE

7.4.1. Présentation de diagrammes.

Observez ces diagrammes et présentez les informations obtenues.



Figure 5 : Exercice de description de diagrammes

Source : Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique

Les ressources disponibles sur Internet offrent également de nombreuses possibilités de développement en termes de compétences communicatives dans des situations professionnelles liées au tourisme: accueillir et orienter un client, réagir d'une manière appropriée, donner des renseignements pratiques, expliquer le déroulement d'un événement, etc. La communication est également évaluée lors des épreuves des examens de langue que nos étudiants doivent passer pour obtenir leur diplôme. Ainsi, ce module propose aux étudiants différents jeux de rôle ou mises en situation. De cette façon, ils s'accoutumant à l'utilisation du vocabulaire en contexte et s'efforcent d'atteindre les objectifs communicatifs et actionnels établis pour chaque personnage qu'ils incarnent. Les activités les plus courantes leur permettent de produire en contexte un certain nombre d'actes de parole spécifiques au domaine touristique, comme « informer les clients », « offrir un service/proposer quelque chose », « convaincre », « expliquer », « orienter », « répondre aux demandes des clients », etc.

Les commentaires de paragraphes ou de textes choisis, de nature variée, peuvent également leur permettre d'améliorer la qualité de leur expression à l'oral, d'enrichir leur vocabulaire, d'automatiser les tournures et expressions utiles :

1.1.1. *Témoignage d'une étudiante*

Lisez le témoignage de Justine et résumez le texte en français.

Justine



"Après avoir obtenu un bac littéraire et suivi des cours à l'école des Beaux Arts, j'ai fait le choix de m'orienter vers un BTS Ventes et Productions Touristiques!

Le tourisme culturelme passionne, j'aime découvrir de nouvelles cultures, et je souhaite partager cette passion. C'est la raison pour laquelle j'ai choisi cette formation pour devenir pourquoi pas guide touristique ou médiatrice dans un musée!

J'ai réalisé mon premier stage à la Cité internationale de la dentelle et de la Mode, j'occupe aujourd'hui un poste stagiaire en tant qu'assistant conseiller voyages chez Nouvelles Frontières en Bretagne.

Pour réussir, il est indispensable d'être motivée et de se donner à fond tant dans les cours que dans l'asso étudiante: en effet dès le début de l'année je me suis investie dans les actions de financement pour diminuer le coût du voyage d'études qui se déroulera en septembre en Islande, grâce à cet investissement la moitié de mon voyage est financé!!!

Motivez-vous et investissez-vous car 2 ans passent à vive allure!! Il faut prendre goût à ce que vous faites!"

<https://sites.google.com/site/vptsophieberthelot/temoignages/etudiants>

Figure 6 : Exercice pour développer l'expression de l'oral

Source : Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique

3.4. Compréhension orale

La nécessité de développer la compétence de compréhension de l'oral devient de plus en plus évidente et fait partie intégrante des approches communicatives. Sans

doute, c'est l'habileté la plus difficile à acquérir bien qu'il s'agisse pourtant du moyen le plus efficace d'immerger l'apprenant dans le contexte naturel de la langue. Ainsi, les documents sonores authentiques occupent une place fondamentale dès le début de l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère. Par conséquent, ce module comprend des activités d'écoute dans le domaine du tourisme et de l'hôtellerie. Tout au long du cursus, il nous semble important de mettre les étudiants en contact avec des situations variées du secteur du tourisme via différents supports sonores : vidéos, extraits de reportage, etc. Avant d'attribuer des tâches précises, nous préparons l'écoute par une présentation et une discussion sur le thème en question pour découvrir et/ou délimiter un peu le sujet de ce que l'on va écouter. Au début, nous nous appuyons sur la compréhension globale du message pour en faire saisir le sens, puis, nous confrontons l'apprenant à plusieurs types d'activités de compréhension et à divers exercices d'écoute semblables à ceux que l'on retrouve dans les épreuves des examens de langue: exercices de repérage, questions ouvertes ou fermées (QROC, QCM, Vrai-Faux), textes lacunaires, exercices d'appariement, etc. Les documents sonores puisés sur Internet peuvent être écoutés plusieurs fois, mis en pause, calés sur les passages les plus pertinents. L'Internet nous offre un grand choix de documents sonores dans le domaine du tourisme. Si l'enseignant sélectionne bien ses ressources sonores, ce type d'exercice peut largement contribuer au développement de cette compétence ainsi qu'à l'enrichissement des connaissances d'ordre professionnel.

6.2. La France première destination touristique

EXERCICE D'ÉCOUTE

6.2.1. Regardez la vidéo et dites si les affirmations suivantes sont Vraies (V) ou Fausses (F)

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3LO-pRWBJWg>



1. La France demeure le pays le plus visité au monde.
2. Le nombre des visiteurs augmente progressivement.
3. Ce sont les touristes venus d'Amérique du Nord qui sont le plus nombreux en dehors de ceux de l'Europe.
4. Les touristes asiatiques viennent moins nombreux.
5. Quant aux touristes Européens, ce sont les Italiens qui visitent le plus la France.
6. Les touristes restent plus longtemps en France qu'avant.

Figure 7: Exercice d'écoute

Source : Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique

3.5. Lecture

La compréhension écrite est indispensable dans tous les domaines de la vie courante. Nous lisons pour obtenir des informations ; par conséquent, cette compétence occupe une place fondamentale. Il est impératif de développer cette habileté pendant le cours de langues étrangères. Les salariés du secteur du tourisme et de l'hôtellerie doivent faire preuve de leur capacité à lire, à comprendre et à interpréter différents types de documents : programmes touristiques, catalogues, brochures, publicités, journaux, magazines et contenus de sites d'Internet pour ne citer que ces exemples. Il n'est dès lors pas suprenant que les examens de langue mettent l'accent sur cette compétence particulière. Ainsi, notre module propose une multitude de documents authentiques dans le domaine du tourisme et de l'hôtellerie accompagnés d'un grand nombre d'exercices destinés à améliorer les techniques de lecture. Les supports, dans leur variété, visent à faire découvrir progressivement les informations et à en faire saisir les éléments les plus importants. Il s'agit pour l'essentiel de programmes de festival, de fiches horaires, de brochures touristiques, d'itinéraires de visites ou de tableaux d'information. A ces activités liminaires succèdent des activités de compréhension un peu plus fines qui n'induisent cependant pas de nos étudiants qu'ils comprennent le sens précis de chaque mot ainsi que la totalité du texte. Notre intention est de les amener à développer progressivement des stratégies avec lesquelles ils pourront tirer des informations ponctuelles et d'attirer leur attention sur quelques détails spécifiques. Les activités de compréhension écrite peuvent être similaires à celles que l'on utilise en compréhension orale. Exemples d'exercices :

- reformulations de texte
- questions à réponses ouvertes
- questions à choix multiples
- questions vrai/faux
- tableaux à compléter

Notons qu'une sélection de texte appropriée stimule l'intérêt de l'apprenant et contribue largement au développement de ses compétences communicatives.

COMPRÉHENSION ÉCRITE

4.1.1. Le tourisme et ses débouchés

Lisez le texte et complétez-le avec les mots ci-dessous:

emplois, horizons, intérêt, un secteur, une place de choix, une nécessité, un personnel, mondialisation, évolution, le monde, l'importance, activité

Avec près d'un milliard de touristes et de voyageurs de part le monde, le tourisme représente en pleine croissance qui est désormais considéré avec le plus grandtant par les pays développés que par ceux du Tiers-Monde pour lesquels il est synonyme de développement. Riche de nombreux atouts (géographiques, gastronomiques, culturels...), la France occupe en tenant le 1er rang des pays récepteurs (76.8 millions de touristes étrangers) devant l'Espagne, les Etats-Unis et la Chine. Le tourisme génère de nombreux(10 000 salariés de plus, en moyenne, chaque année) et agit, directement ou non sur d'autres secteurs : l'hôtellerie, la restauration, le trafic aérien... Il fait appel à

.....qualifié, ayant des capacités d'adaptation linguistique (adjoint de direction hôtelière, traducteur, hôtesse du tourisme...). Avec l'ouverture des frontières et la des échanges, la maîtrise d'une ou plusieurs langues étrangères apparaît comme professionnelle. Indispensable dans le tourisme, elle l'est aussi dans d'autres secteurs professionnels car, très souvent, de carrière et apprentissage d'une langue vont de pair (installation à l'étranger, responsabilité d'une filière internationale...). Avec 80% des traductions, l'anglais tient toujours le haut de l'affiche parmi les 3 000 langues recensées à travers..... .Conscientes de du tourisme, les collectivités territoriales françaises ont décidé, elles aussi, de promouvoir de plus en plus cette Syndicats d'initiatives, offices du tourisme, mairies recrutent sur concours ou entretien : c'est ce que l'on appelle la promotion territoriale. Si découvrir de nouveaux accueillir, créer des liens avec différentes populations et apprendre ou renforcer votre maîtrise d'une langue vous motive, les métiers du tourisme et des langues répondront à votre attente.<http://www.educatel.fr/domaines/23-tourisme>

Figure 8 : Exercice de compréhension écrite

Source :Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique

3.6. Production écrite

Dans la formation en langue de spécialité « tourisme », il nous paraît important de développer la pratique de l'écrit. Le curriculum de ce module intègre également des activités d'écriture prenant en compte les besoins langagiers spécifiques du secteur. Ces activités débouchent sur plusieurs types de productions spécifiques : lettres formelles et professionnelles, lettre de motivation ou de présentation dans le cadre d'une recherche d'emploi, rapport de stage, etc. Nos étudiants apprennent également comment rédiger à la manière d'un professionnel du tourisme des lettres de réservation, des descriptions des programmes d'excursion, des demandes d'information ou bien encore des offres commerciales. Nous traitons plus particulièrement certains aspects typologiques présents dans ces documents professionnels, portant notamment sur l'organisation du texte et la structure des phrases ainsi que sur le choix de mots convenables, d'expressions et de formules précises, appropriées et adaptées au contexte en utilisant des conjonctions et la subordination qui contribuent à la fluidité et à l'efficacité du texte.

Un grand nombre de ressources et de modèles lettres se trouvent en ligne et ces supports authentiques contribuent largement à l'amélioration de la compétence de la production écrite dans le domaine du tourisme.

EXERCICE D'ÉCRITURE

5.2.1. Restauration traditionnelle

Lisez l'annonce parue dans la presse et rédigez une lettre de motivation

RESTAURATION TRADITIONNELLE

RECHERCHE

UNE AIDE DE CUISINE

Niveau CAP ou bonne expérience

(1 à 2 ans en cuisine comme aide)

Service du midi et du soir plus un peu de plonge

Salaire 1400 euros environ

Etablissement fermé le dimanche soir et le mardi toute la journée.

Écrire à M. Duchemin Restaurant de la Licorne 26, rue des Mouettes

33240 Lugon

La réponse de Didier Malo

St André de Cubzac, le

Didier Malo

37 Bd Suchet

33240 St André de Cubzac

Tél.: 05 05 05 05 01

M. Duchemin

Restaurant de la Licorne

26, rue des Mouettes

33240 Lugon

Monsieur,

J'ai relevé avec intérêt votre offre parue dans le journal « l'Hôtellerie ».

J'ai travaillé pendant un an dans un hôtel-restaurant où j'aideais le cuisinier à la préparation des entrées, des grillades et des desserts pour les repas du midi et du soir ; nous faisions entre 30 et 50 couverts par service. Je m'occupais également de la plonge et du tri du linge de table. J'habite à proximité de Lugon et je souhaiterais vous rencontrer pour vous présenter mon CV.

Dans cette attente, je vous prie de croire, Monsieur, à l'expression de mes meilleures salutations.

Signature

<http://www.pole-emploi.fr/file/mmlelement/pj/b4/08/56/49/redigerunelettredereponseaannonce44712.pdf>

Figure 9 : Exercice de production écrite

Source : Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique

9.1.1. Lettre modèle

Lisez les lettres de réclamation ci-dessous.

Lettre de réclamation

Vous avez été malade à la suite d'un repas dans un restaurant à cause de la nourriture (diarrhée, intoxication alimentaire...) Vous avez vu une souris, un rat, un cafard ou une blatte dans la cuisine ou en salle. L'accueil et le service étaient mauvais, déplorables voire incorrects.

Le conseil : adresser une copie du courrier à l'autorité en charge du contrôle de la sécurité alimentaire et de la répression des fraudes compétente afin de les informer que vous avez été malade. Vous n'êtes probablement pas le premier !

[NOM et PRENOM]

[VOTRE ADRESSE]

[NOM DU RESTAURANT]

[SON ADRESSE]

[VILLE], le [DATE]

OBJET : RECLAMATION REPAS DU [DATE]

Madame, Monsieur,

Le [date] à [heure], j'ai mangé dans votre restaurant avec [amis, famille, conjointe...], et je tiens à vous signaler mon mécontentement.

En effet, [expliquer le problème ; ex : "nous avons tous les 6 été malades toute la nuit. Je vous passe les détails, mais ce n'était pas du tout joli à voir et nous en avons beaucoup souffert. C'est scandaleux, la nourriture n'était pas fraîche, et je me demande si c'est en lien avec la souris qu'un de mes amis a vu passer près de vos cuisines."]

Compte tenu du dommage que j'ai subi, je vous remercie de faire un geste commercial et de me rembourser tout ou partie du repas, dont le montant s'est élevé à : xx,xx euros.

A toutes fins utiles, je vous prie de recevoir ci-joint une copie de la facture réglée à votre restaurant.

Je vous remercie pour la prise en compte de ma réclamation. Dans l'attente de votre réponse que j'espère compréhensive et rapide,

Je vous prie d'agréer, Madame, Monsieur, l'expression de mes sincères salutations.

[Nom, prénom et signature]

<http://www.faireunereclamation.fr/M1.html>

Figure 10 : Lettre modèle pour la production écrite

Source : Tourisme et hôtellerie Guide thématique

4. Conclusion

A l'ère de la mondialisation, la maîtrise des langues étrangères est désormais considérée comme une compétence professionnelle à part entière ainsi que comme une source non négligeable de développement personnel. Cette maîtrise requiert par conséquent une attention légitime. Dans le cadre des formations universitaires, l'enseignant doit être en mesure de proposer un cursus ciblé, à la jonction des besoins particuliers des étudiants et des exigences du marché du travail. Pour cela, ce dernier doit guider ses étudiants à travers des activités langagières spécifiques ayant pour objectif l'acquisition des habiletés définies en amont du cursus. Grâce à des routines d'activités dédiées – s'inspirant le plus souvent des typologies d'exercices présentes dans les manuels de référence de français du tourisme et dans les examens de langue – il a pour mission de les amener à développer progressivement des savoir-faire langagiers indispensables à l'exercice de leur futur métier. Force est de constater les apports complémentaires des TIC dans le processus d'enseignement-apprentissage. Les décideurs, les concepteurs de module et les enseignants doivent apprécier le potentiel motivationnel de ces outils auprès des étudiants, analyser leurs atouts et leurs faiblesses pour pouvoir en tirer le meilleur bénéfice au sein de la formation.

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SPRACHLICHE UND KULTURELLE INTEGRATION VON FLÜCHTLINGEN – NEUE HERAUSFORDERUNGEN FÜR DIE ERWACHSENENBILDUNG IN EUROPA DES XXI. JAHRHUNDERTS

LINGUISTIC AND CULTURAL INTEGRATION OF REFUGEES – NEW CHALLENGES FOR ADULT EDUCATION IN XXIST CENTURY EUROPE

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Abstract: Following study deals with the chances of integrating immigrants into European culture. Therefore several aspects are to be analysed like: is there any linguistic and above all cultural integration possible at all, which are the factors potentially playing an important role in this respect, what are the plans for accomplishing the assimilation process, what kind of tools are there or should be developed for measuring the degree of success in integrating immigrants, what is the planned time frame for the whole project? Having a didactic approach the study tries to answer to all of the above questions and to propose methods or tools for supporting the integration process and enhancing its expected outcomes.

There are numerous studies upon cultural, economic and overall integration of immigrants in Europe analysing the situation for the last five to six decades, i.e. measuring the integration rate of respective people until the end of the first decade of the XXIst century. Although these studies come to the conclusion that second-generation immigrants mostly present a native-like behaviour as a sign for successful integration, only Muslim people having some deficiencies in this respect, these findings are not by all means valid for the new wave of immigrants with mainly Muslim background flooding in Europe since 2015. Thus according to my opinion an optimistic view upon the success of the integration of newly come people is not founded at all.

From the various factors supporting integration present study deals with motivation and intermarriage. The internal motivation of each individual to language acquisition necessary for every day and professional life and to adopt a behaviour pattern according to European values could be enhanced by external motivation resulting from political-institutional measures.

In immigrants' integration process not only linguistic, but above all cultural integration should play a crucial role because integration cannot be accomplished in lack of this component. That's why study materials should be conceived according to the principles and tools of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) where content should hint at role and legal position of women and children in European societies. Beside language classes combining linguistic and country-specific cultural elements, intercultural training conducted by experts in this field would be of great help.

By measuring the degree of integration both linguistic and cultural integration rate should be taken into consideration. While in language acquisition advances are much easier to observe and measure, for the time being we lack adequate tools for

evaluating the degree of cultural integration. These tools are still to be developed. Albeit the outcomes of the whole process are not predictable, one thing is sure, in this project collaboration among education policy makers, sociologists, psychologists, education experts and representatives of other scientific branches is needed.

Keywords: linguistic and cultural integration; migration; European cultural values; content and language integrated learning; intercultural training

1. Einleitung

Behandelt man das Problem der Integration von Flüchtlingen, so soll man mehrere Aspekte angehen. Dabei stellen sich Fragen, wie: ist eine sprachliche und vor allem kulturelle Integration eigentlich möglich; welche Faktoren können dabei eine wichtige Rolle spielen; wie gestaltet man den Assimilationsprozess; welche Messinstrumente sind für den Erfolgsgrad der Integration vorhanden oder sollen herausentwickelt werden; in welchen zeitlichen Rahmen plant man das ganze Projekt einzufügen? Vor einer näheren Analyse der aufgezählten Aspekte möchte ich an dieser Stelle festlegen, dass folgende Studie im Gegenteil zu anderen Arbeiten aus diesem Themenbereich nicht soziologisch, sondern fremdsprachendidaktisch gerichtet ist, ihr Schwerpunkt liegt an den Chancen der kulturellen Integration und dem möglichen Beitrag des Fremdsprachenunterrichts zum Erfolg dieses Prozesses.

Im alltäglichen Sprachgebrauch kommen die Begriffe Assimilation und Integration synonymisch vor, manche Soziologen weisen ihnen aber unterschiedliche Bedeutungen zu. Mariya Aleksynska und Yann Algan sehen in der Assimilation einen Einweg-Prozess, hier versuchen die Migranten eine Annäherung ans einheimische Benehmensmodell, während sich am Integrationsprozess auch die Einheimischen teilhaftig machen, indem sie Bereitschaft zeigen, die Einwanderer anzunehmen, ihnen gleiche Rechte und Chancen zur Selbstäußerung und sogar zur potenziellen Bewahrung der kulturellen Unterschiede zu bieten (Aleksynska, M., Algan, Y., 2010). Assimilation und Integration mögen auch parallel laufen, Migranten können in manchen Lebensbereichen assimiliert – siehe Erwerb von Sprachkompetenz, Eingliederung in den Arbeitsmarkt, usw. – während in anderen Segmenten z.B. Kleidung, Religion, Benehmen integriert werden. Wo und zu welchem Maße die aufnehmende Gesellschaft Integration statt Assimilation zulässt, hängt vor allem von ihrer Toleranz ab, als Hauptregel soll aber gelten, dass keiner der betroffenen Teile dabei beeinträchtigt wird.

Wieder andere gehen Integration näher an und unterscheiden dabei vier Dimensionen, so wie die strukturelle, kulturelle, soziale und Identifikationsdimension der Integration. In der Sicht von Heckmann und Schnapper kann man über strukturelle Integration von Migranten sprechen, wenn man diesen Rechte, Mitgliedschaft, bzw. Positionen in Kerninstitutionen der Gastgebergesellschaft gewährt. Kulturelle Integration betrachten sie als Voraussetzung der Teilnahme am Alltagsleben der aufnehmenden Gesellschaft, da sie einen kognitiven und kulturellen Wandel in Verhalten und Ansicht bedeutet. Zwischenmenschliche Beziehungen, so wie Interaktion, Freundschaft, Ehe führen zur sozialen Integration von Einwanderern, während die Identifikation mit der aufnehmenden Gesellschaft durch Mitgliedschaft in Strukturen der

Gastgebergesellschaft und das Gefühl der Zugehörigkeit zur jeweiligen Gemeinschaft zu erreichen ist (Heckmann, F., Schnapper, D., 2003).

2. Chancen einer sprachlichen und kulturellen Integration von Migranten

Das Zuströmen von Migranten nach Europa, bzw. die innereuropäische Migration sind keine neuen Phänomene, sie datieren auf die Periode nach dem II. Weltkrieg oder mit Hinsicht auf manche Zielländer auf die 70er-80er Jahre. Es gibt zahlreiche Studien, die sich mit der Problematik der Integration von Einwanderern auseinandersetzt haben, sie beziehen sich aber auf die Migrationswellen der vorherigen fünf-sechs Jahrzehnte, also bis spätestens 2007-2009.

So wie es aus dem kollektiven Band von Heckmann und Schnapper herausgeht, gibt es verschiedene Nationalmodelle für den Integrationsversuch, obwohl es europaweit an einer proaktiven, bewusst vorgeplanten, nationalen Integrationsstrategie mangelt. In Frankreich möchte man Einwanderer um eines einheitlichen Nationalbildes willigen assimilieren, in England un Holland plädiert man für Multikulturalismus, hier wird also eher Integration als Assimilation verfolgt, während die deutsche Regierung bereit ist, die Einwanderer ins soziale Netzwerk aufzunehmen, ihnen finanzielle, soziale und andere Unterstützung zu gewähren, ohne aber auch Staatsangehörigkeit zu geben. Also in Deutschland wird Integration als die Einbeziehung, Aufnahme von neuer Bevölkerung in soziale Strukturen des Gastlandes "inclusion of new population into existing social structures of the immigration country" (Heckmann, F., Schnapper, D., 2003, S. 10) definiert. Das ist umso interessanter, da sich Deutschland bis zum Ende der 90er Jahre als kein Einwanderungsland, die Präsenz von Ausländern im Lande als etwas Zeitweiliges betrachtet hatte. Demgemäß empfand man kein Bedürfnis nach Integrationsmaßnahmen und Erweiterung, bzw. Änderung der Bildungspolitik in dieser Hinsicht.

Da das französische Modell die Assimilation von Migranten anstrebt, werden hier kulturbedingte Äußerungen nur im privaten und sozialen Bereich, nicht auch in der Öffentlichkeit und im politischen Leben zugelassen. Assimilation wird durch Sozialisation in Frankreich, den französischen kulturellen Werten entlang erreicht und den Höhepunkt dieses Prozesses bildet der Erhalt der französischen Staatsbürgerschaft. Das geht im Falle der zweiten Migrantengeneration, der Kinder von Einwanderern also, problemlos, da sie die Schule schon in Frankreich besucht haben. So kommt die Aufgabe der Integrierung und Durchführung der Akkulturation von Immigranten in die französische Gesellschaft der Schule und damit den Lehrern zu. Obwohl diese zweite Migrantengeneration eine bessere wirtschaftliche Position angesichts der Gehälter hat, und linguistisch besser assimiliert sein mag, scheinen sie im Vergleich zu ihren Eltern und vor allem zu den Eingeborenen eher unter Diskrimination und Arbeitslosigkeit zu leiden und das ist für Länder, wie Frankreich, Belgien, die Schweiz umso gültiger, so Aleksynska und Algan in ihrer Studie von 2010. Diese Frustration mag dann schlimmstenfalls in Terroranschlägen und Massakern Ventil finden, wie es leider die Ereignisse von Herbst 2015 an bestätigen.

Spricht man über kulturelle Integration von Einwanderern und Integration überhaupt, sind die von John W. Berry 1997 identifizierten Akkulturationsstrategien unumgänglich. Diese Strategien lassen sich im Umgang sowohl mit der Mehrheitsgruppe der Eingeborenen als auch mit der Minderheitsgruppe der

Immigranten erkennen und konturieren sich als gegensätzliche Polen auf der Messlatte der Integration/Assimilation. Integration, also starke Identifizierung mit beiden vorher erwähnten Gruppen, steht Marginalisation, Entfernung und Trennung von beiden Gruppen entgegen, während den Gegenpol zur Assimilation – starke Identifikation mit der Mehrheitsgruppe, schwache Beziehung zur Herkunftskultur – Separation, der große Abstand zur Mehrheitsgruppe und starke Verbindung mit der eigenen Kultur, bildet.

Indem sie das Phänomen und den Grad der Integration von Einwanderern in sieben europäischen Ländern und den USA analysierten, sind die Autoren des kollektiven Bandes Cultural Integration of Immigrants in Europe (2012) zu teilweise unterschiedlichen und doch konvergierenden Ergebnissen gekommen. Obwohl sich die zweite Migrantengeneration an die Einheimischen angesichts Lebensweise und Benehmens näherte, zeigen vor allem nordafrikanische muslimische Immigranten in Frankreich in Bereichen wie Religion, Familienleben und Ehegewohnheiten (Endogamie) weiterhin starke Verbindung zu den Traditionen der Herkunftskultur auf. In Deutschland ist dank der besseren Sprachkompetenz und größeren Identifikation mit dem Aufnahmeland ein höherer Konvergenzgrad bei der zweiten Migrantengeneration zu registrieren. Das ist der Fall auch in Italien und Spanien, im letzteren Land präsentieren die Immigranten aus Lateinamerika sinngemäß weit weniger Unterschiede zu den Einheimischen als Einwanderer aus muslimischen Kulturen. In Schweden lassen sich Migranten von unterschiedlicher Herkunft langsamer integrieren, während bei Einwanderern in der Schweiz, vor allem bei Paaren derselben Migrantenerkunft, in ihrem geschlechtsspezifischen Verhalten spürbare Unterschiede zu Einheimischen zu beobachten sind.

Allgemeines Fazit der einzelnen Untersuchungen ist, dass die Integration der zweiten Migrantengeneration überall in Europa in großen Linien erfolgreich ist, Bevölkerung muslimischen Hintergrunds – Migranten aus den Maghreb-Staaten, dem Nahosten und der Türkei – zeigt zwar einen gemäßigteren Fortschritt in dieser Hinsicht auf.

Dieses Fazit lässt sich aber nicht bedingungslos und unmittelbar hinsichtlich der neuen Flüchtlingswellen ab 2015 gültig machen. In den letzten zwei Jahren ist nämlich eine solch zahlreiche neue Population in Europa angekommen, wie früher in mehreren Jahrzehnten. Dass ein Großteil davon muslimisch ist, vertieft womöglich die Divergenz zur einheimischen europäischen Population noch weiter. So ist die Erwägung der Chancen einer angemessenen Integration von Migranten gar keine einfache Aufgabe. Die Ereignisse der jüngsten Vergangenheit in Frankreich und Belgien scheinen das zu unterstützen und mit den Befunden Aleksynskas und Algans angesichts der Frustgefühle der zweiten Migrantengeneration in diesen Ländern zu konvergieren. Man sollte beide Modelle hinsichtlich Bildungspolitik und des Bildungswesens an allen Stufen analysieren, um herauszufinden, was die Franzosen und Belgier möglicherweise falsch gemacht haben. Haben sie aber ihren Schuldanteil an der Herausentwicklung von parallelen Gesellschaften, kann man die nationale Bildungspolitik auch besser gestalten, sind Fragen, die einer Antwort bedürfen. Wie komplex die Problematik ist, zeigen auch minderheitspolitische Aspekte, die Migration aufdeckt: sollten Einwanderer wie eingeborene Minderheiten behandelt werden, sollte man ihnen,

wenn zahlenmäßig gerechtfertigt, dieselben Rechte¹ gewähren wie der ersteren Kategorie? Zieht man außerdem auch die Tatsache in Betracht, dass Frankreich sowie Belgien angesichts der Eingliederung von Einwanderern in die Mehrheitsgesellschaft eine viel bessere Ausgangsposition hatten als andere europäische Staaten, da es im Falle von Immigranten aus der Maghreb-Region und Afrika im Allgemeinen wohl keine sprachliche Integration bedurfte, gibt man der völligen Integration keine großen Chancen.

3. Einflussfaktoren im Integrationsprozess

Einflussfaktoren können im Integrationsprozess sowohl in positiver als auch negativer Richtung wirken. Von den integrationsfördernden Faktoren möchte ich auf dieser Stelle Motivation und Mischehen herausgreifen. Die interne Motivation jedes einzelnen Individuums, die zum Alltags- und Berufsleben nötige Sprachkompetenz zu erwerben und sich in Verhalten und möglichst auch Weltanschauung nach den europäischen Werten zu richten, lässt sich auch durch eine äußere Motivation stärken. Der Einsatz von politisch-institutionellen Maßnahmen wie die Verweigerung von Sozialhilfeleistungen an diejenigen, die keine Sprachkurse besuchen und im Laufe der Zeit kein Zeichen von Integrationsbemühungen zeigen, sowie die Ausschiebung im Falle von krimineller Tätigkeit, könnte für die Einwanderer wahrscheinlich motivierend genug wirken.

Weiterhin könnten Mischehen unter Immigranten und Einheimischen zu einer besseren und schnelleren Integration der Ausländer beitragen. In ihrer Studie über die Integration von Einwanderer in Deutschland meinten die Autoren Amelie Constant, Olga Nottmeyer und Klaus Zimmermann: "Intercultural marriage rates depict an intimate link between immigrants and the native population. This can be seen as a special integration measure possibly even fostering economic integration. In general, the bigger the single ethnic group the less likely their members are to intermarry." (Cultural Integration of Immigrants in Europe, 2012, S. 110). Der Ausklang des Zitats mag ein mögliches zukünftiges Szenario von scheiternder Integration im Falle der Neukömmelinge projizieren, die ab 2015 in kompakten ethnischen Gruppen in Europa angekommen sind.

4. Gestaltung des Assimilations-/Integrationsprozesses aus didaktischer Perspektive

Im Integrationsprozess von Migranten ist in meiner Sicht der kulturellen Komponente dieselbe, wenn nicht sogar größere Bedeutung zuzumessen als dem Erwerb von Sprachkompetenzen (siehe Terroranschläge in Paris und Brüssel), denn völlige Integration ist nur durch Aneignung von beiden möglich. Wie stark die kulturbedingte Komponente im Integrationsverfahren ist, zeigen auch die jahrhundertelange Versuche, die einheimischen (europäischen) Roma- und Sinti-Gemeinschaften in die Gesellschaften zu integrieren, in denen sie leben. Ein Teil der Migranten verfügt schon sowieso über etliche Englischkenntnisse, was das Erlernen einer weiteren Fremdsprache erleichtert, es fehlt ihnen aber der Kontakt

¹ Siehe in dieser Hinsicht z. B. in Rumänien die Verwendung in der Verwaltung der Muttersprache der jeweiligen Minderheit bei Erreichen der Quote von 20 Prozent von der Bevölkerung der betreffenden Ortschaft.

mit westlichen kulturellen Werten und womöglich auch die Bereitschaft, diese an- und aufzunehmen. Deshalb sollten die für die Migranten dargebotenen Sprachkurse integriert gestaltet werden, sodass sie den Lernenden die sprachlichen Aspekte mit einer starken kulturellen Betonung beibringen. Die Lesetexte, Dialoge, behandelten Situationen sollen, ohne propagandistisch zu wirken, die europäischen kulturellen Werte in den Vordergrund bringen und dabei die Rolle und Rechtslage von Frauen und Kindern, den Wert des menschlichen Lebens in westlichen Gesellschaften thematisieren.

Unabhängig von der zu erlernenden Sprache und des Sprachniveaus lassen sich folgende Aspekte ins Lernmaterial eingliedern. In Dialogen, die das Sich-Vorstellen oder Situationen aus dem Berufsleben thematisieren, sollten weibliche Gestalten bewusst und zielorientiert eingesetzt werden: laut Dialogsszenario sollten sie frei nicht nur untereinander diskutieren, aber auch mit männlichen Figuren sprechen und sich des Studiums an jedwelcher Stufe teilhaftig machen können. Beide Ideen lassen sich z.B. durch ein Zwiegespräch unter Studenten an der Universität oder während eines Freizeitprogramms beibringen. Es ist hilfreich, wenn in beruflichen Situationen je mehr Frauengestalten, sogar in Führungsposition auftauchen. So könnten beispielsweise in Texten über einen Besuch beim Arzt oder Krankheiten die Ärztefiguren Frauen und die Kranken womöglich Männer sein, um auf eine sanfte Weise zu illustrieren, dass in europäischen Kulturen durchaus akzeptabel ist, dass Frauen mit fremden Männern in Kontakt kommen und in manchen berufsbedingten Bereichen Pluswissen über das jeweilige Problem haben. Im Fachsprachenunterricht können die behandelten Texte je nach Sprachniveau eine Frau beim Kauf von Geschäftskleidung, im Büro oder Sprechzimmer vorstellen, oder ab Stufe B1 Zeitungsartikel über ein frauengeführtes Unternehmen oder über Managerfrauen, einen von einem weiblichen behandelnden Arzt unterschriebenen Entlassungsschein aus dem Krankenhaus, oder zur Aneignung der Rechtssprache Auszüge aus einem Ehevertrag reproduzieren, in dem die Ehepartner schriftlich festlegen, welches Vermögen jeder Einzelne in die Ehe mitgebracht hat.

In Texten über Freizeit und Reisen sollte man bewusst junge Frauen, bzw. Mädchen- und Frauengruppen auftreten lassen, die gemeinsame Programme veranstalten oder sogar alleine reisen, Auto fahren, was früher die europäische Norm war und es hoffentlich weiterhin dabei bleiben kann, ohne die persönliche Sicherheit zu gefährden. Sollte das Sujet der Lerneinheit der Tagesablauf sein, könnte der didaktische Text Einblick ins Alltagsleben von Haus- und berufstätigen Frauen in der betreffenden Gesellschaft gewähren. Das Thematisieren des Familienlebens, der Verwandtschaftsbeziehungen und des Wohnens erschließt die Möglichkeit, die im Vergleich zu den meisten asiatischen und afrikanischen Kulturen viel individualistischeren europäischen Gesellschaften vorzustellen, wo in einem Haushalt größtenteils nur die Kleinfamilie lebt, Alleinerziehende und von den Eltern separat lebende junge Leute, Wohngemeinschaften von geschlechtlich unterschiedlichen Menschen vor allem im deutschen Sprachraum zum Alltagsbild gehören.

Diese Texte sollten auch auf die Stelle, Rolle und Rechte der Kinder in den meisten europäischen Gesellschaften hinweisen, vor allem auf ihr Recht auf ein Leben im Frieden, ohne Gewalt, auf Bildung unabhängig vom Geschlecht und auf Meinungsäußerung, ohne dass der Respekt Erwachsenen, älteren Menschen gegenüber zu kurz kommt. Diese Letztere könnte etwa durch einen Dialog beim Tisch übermittelt werden, so wie es im Lehrwerk für den Deutschunterricht Limba

germană pentru afaceri. Manual pentru anul I, Wirtschaftsdeutsch für Anfänger. Lehrbuch 1 (Hamburg, 2013) vorkommt. Darin dürfen die im Dialog auftretenden Kinder vom Menü auswählen, was sie essen möchten und ablehnen, was ihnen nicht schmeckt. Ob es dem verfolgten Ziel diente, dass die Lehrkräfte, die den Unterricht an Immigranten führen, Frauen wären, oder es bei der Zielgruppe eher die gegensätzliche Wirkung, Ablehnung und Abschirmung der Botschaft gegenüber hervorriefe, ist schwer zu sagen. All das bewährt sich in der Praxis. Natürlich sollte man auf das Gleichgewicht zwischen Männer- und Frauengestalten und die möglichst objektive und realitätsnahe Darstellung der europäischen Alltagssituationen in den Lehrmaterialien achten, sonst wirkt das Vorgestellte allzu leicht propagandistisch.

Die Betonung der vorher detaillierten Aspekte ist in der Erwachsenenbildung besonders wichtig, denn in ihrem Falle sind die mitgebrachten kulturellen Schemata viel stärker ausgeprägt als bei Kindern. Nur so hätte man die Chance, der muslimischen Indoktrination und den extremistischen Lehren entgegenzuwirken. Nützlich wäre den üblichen, um landeskundliche Elemente bereicherten Sprachunterricht auch mit interkulturellen Simulationsspielen – Beispiele dafür gibt es in The Role of Foreign Language Teachers in Developing Students' Intercultural Communication Skills (Hamburg, 2014) – und interkulturellem Training unter der Führung von Experten zu ergänzen. Dabei liege der Erfolg des Integrationsprozesses bildungsmäßig nicht nur in den Händen von Sprachlehrern und sie wären auch keine Alleinträger der Verantwortung dafür, so wie es in einer anderen Studie schon darauf hingewiesen wurde (Hamburg, 2016).

5. Messen des Erfolgsgrades und zeitliche Eingrenzung des Integrationsprozesses

Bei der Messung des Integrationsgrades sollte man beide vorher erwähnten Bestandteile – sprachliche und kulturelle Integration – in Betracht ziehen. Während der Fortschritt im Spracherwerb leicht messbar, die sprachliche Integration am Zureckkommen am Arbeitsplatz ablesbar sind, gibt es vorläufig keine geeigneten und verlässlichen Messinstrumente für den Grad der kulturellen Integration. Deren Herausentwicklung scheint aktueller zu sein denn je. Vermutlich lassen sich Migranten mit Tertiärbildung leichter und schneller integrieren, da sie während ihres im Heimatland oder woanders durchgeföhrten Studiums womöglich schon Kontakte zum Ausland hatten und mit den westlichen Verhaltensregeln und Werten in Berührung gekommen sind. Meines Erachtens ist auch in ihrem Falle hauptsächlich nur über eine wirtschaftliche, nicht aber auch geistige Integration zu sprechen.

Durch Mischehen unter Einwanderern und Einheimischen, Freundschaftsbeziehungen, gesellschaftliche Interaktion könnte man trotz eventueller Konflikte der völligen oder fast vollkommenen kulturellen Integration näherkommen, das stoßt aber beiderseits oft auf Hindernisse, weder die Ersteren suchen die Gesellschaft und Freundschaft der Einheimischen noch diese zeigen Bereitschaft, Fremde in ihre Gemeinschaft aufzunehmen. So sollte man sich mit einer relativen Integration, dem friedlichen und toleranten Nebeneinanderleben von Europäern und Immigranten zufrieden geben. Wenn diese friedliche Koexistenz Zustande kommt, ist das in meiner Sicht schon ein Maßstab zum Erfolg der Integration.

Welchen Zeitraum man dem ganzen Prozess zuräumen kann und sollte, wann die ersten Resultate zu erwarten sind und es sinnvoll wäre, Bilanz zu ziehen, ist schwer zu sagen. Fest steht aber, dass er einige Jahrzehnte umfassen wird und dabei sowohl Bildungspolitiker, als auch Vertreter weiterer Wissenszweige, wie Soziologen, Psychologen, Bildungswissenschaftler, usw. eine Meinung zu sagen haben.

6. Danksagung

Auf dieser Stelle möchte ich mich beim Fachverband für Deutsch als Fremdsprache (FaDaf) für die Anregung zur Behandlung des Themas und ihre Zustimmung bedanken, vorliegende Studie, die konzeptionsmäßig ihren Vorstellungen nicht entsprochen hat, auf anderen Foren zu publizieren.

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BOOK REVIEW

ANDREA HAMBURG'S TRILINGUAL DICTIONARY FOR TOURISM. GERMAN - ROMANIAN - HUNGARIAN

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Reviewed work:

Trilingual Dictionary for Tourism
German - Romanian - Hungarian

Original title:

Dreisprachiges Wörterbuch für Tourismus
Deutsch-Rumänisch-Ungarisch

Author: Andrea Hamburg

Published by: Traugott Bautz

Nordhausen 2016

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A recent (December 2016) release of Traugott Bautz, Nordhausen, a 384 pages trilingual dictionary of tourism terminology is written by Andrea Hamburg, lecturer at the Faculty of Economic Sciences, University of Oradea, Romania, author of several books published by various publishing houses in the country or abroad.

Among other works, Andrea Hamburg published two more dictionaries with the University of Oradea Publishing House (*Small dictionary of tourism, Romanian - German, German - Romanian*; original title: *Mic dicționar de turism. Român-german, German-român*, in 2015, as single author and *Dictionary of Business - English, German, French, Italian, Hungarian*; original title: *Dicționar de afaceri - engleză, germană, franceză, italiană, maghiară*, in 2004, as a coordinator and co-author). Her constant didactic preoccupation as an academic, teaching German and related disciplines at the Faculty of Economic Sciences University of Oradea, materialised in several course books published with ISBN, i.e. courses of German language (five works between 2002 and 2011), courses of German for Business (2 works in 2014), and speciality books such as *Deutsche Grammatik mal anders – 100 Übungen mit Spaß* (2003), *Wirtschaftliche Wortfamilien* (2004) and *Interkulturelle Kommunikation. Deutschkurs für das Magisterstudium* (2010). Her doctoral thesis, defended in 2006 at the University Lucian Blaga, in Sibiu, entitled *Zwischen Verriss und Bestsellertum. Die Rezeption von Johannes Mario Simmel*

was published by Peter Lang Publishing House, in Frankfurt am Main, in 2012. Among the many studies that shape Andrea Hamburg's research work published in various journals, fourteen articles are in journals indexed in international databases.

The writer's vast expertise in the field of German for business and economics, received in almost twenty years of teaching at the Faculty of Economic Sciences, backed up by the correlated research undertaken all along, is put to good use in the exhaustive endeavour of producing a trilingual dictionary of touristic terminology.

Andrea Hamburg's trilingual dictionary, besides being quite unique in this very concept of correlating three languages, is wisely structured in three large sections of dictionaries of terms from the broad field of tourism (first German - Romanian - Hungarian, second Romanian - German - Hungarian and third Hungarian - German - Romanian). The dictionaries proper are preceded by forewords, written in all three languages, in which the authoress explains the undertaking of producing this trilingual dictionary, its usefulness, to whom it is addressed and how it is structured. A final section consists of glossaries of terms representing names of countries, cities, mountains, waters in all three languages, selected by relevance for each country in particular, and tables depicting the nationalities and languages for several countries, again in each of the three languages.

One may argue why it is precisely these three languages that this dictionary tackles. The reason is quite transparent: The writer is a specialist in German, with an experience of nearly two decades of teaching this language and related topics at the University of Oradea. Her national language is Romanian and her mother tongue Hungarian, like with many people in her geographical area (Transylvania). Hence, it is only natural that the trilingual dictionary is constructed on these three languages. The uniqueness of this approach in conceiving a dictionary reinforces its usefulness.

As the authoress mentions in the foreword, the trilingual dictionary for tourism addresses to all lay readers interested or in need to find various terms, such as tourists, and at the same time to those who specialise in the field of tourism, i.e. students at various levels in this economic field. We would add that the dictionary will also constitute a quite useful tool for educators, teachers, academics working in the field of tourism, for language instructors in this field and not only, and for translators as well. The foreword also presents details on how the dictionary is conceived - for didactic and informative purposes as well - and hence instructions on how it should be used and read. For instance, clarifications are given concerning the symbols standing for terms that are singularia tantum or defective of plural, explanations are offered on how concepts are completed, words being followed by suffixes for genitive singular and nominative plural or by a hyphen if the particular word does not have such a suffix. The authoress herself stresses the innovative nature of the final sections of her work, containing the lists of proper names of a geographical and administrative character specific to each of the three countries. Indeed we consider that these give originality, added value and fairly increased usefulness to the trilingual dictionary. Remarks on the content of the tables at the end, with reference to the number and gender shown on the columns

with names of nations, depending on the specificities of the three languages are also presented in the same foreword. All these explanations provided from the very beginning make the dictionary a straightforward work of much use for didactic purposes and as an informational tool.

The first part, the German - Romanian - Hungarian dictionary, ranging between pages 13 and 123, prove from the start the comprehensive nature of the material. We encounter not only an alphabetical list of terms and notions carefully selected as relevant for the domains of tourism and travelling, with their Romanian (ro.) and then Hungarian (magh.) versions underneath, as expected from the title, but also the most common phrases or structures that can be formed with some of the terms, where the case, or an entire word family when germane to the field. Thus, for instance, we are provided with terminology and translation for a series of Conventions and Agreements concerning tourism and transportation, under the word *Abkommen* (such as, among others: *Hilfs- für Saharareisen, internationales ~ im Tourismus, Luftverkehrs-, das ~ von Brüssel*). As another example, for the word *Kultur* (meaning culture, cultural), the reader immediately finds several derived notions, such as *Kulturstadt, Kulturhauptstadt, Kulturmonat* or *Kulturerbe* for which some standard constructions are presented as well: *Rettung des ~erbes* and *Welt~erbe*. Or, for *Urlaub*, it is not only several types of vacations and holidays, or related expressions, that we are presented with, such as: *Abenteuer~, Langzeit~, Sonder~, Traum~, Winter~,* but also the pertinent word family: *Urlauber, Urlaubsort, Urlaubssplitting, Urlaubszeit*.

Of doubtless usefulness for students, learners, professional trainees and teachers or other stakeholders in didactics and research, this section is of great use also for travellers and tourists familiar with German language that find themselves in need to get the Romanian or the Hungarian version of a term or a structure, as visiting these countries or the neighbouring regions or elsewhere encountering speakers of these languages.

A similar number of pages (from 127 to 232) is allocated to the section comprising the Romanian - German - Hungarian dictionary. Vast and accurate representation of touristic terminology and corresponding or related notions welcome the reader, as in the first section. Again expressions, collocations, linguistic structures and word families are included, when appropriate. To consider only one example, we find that the specifications for each term in the word family *oferi - ofertant - ofertă* are followed by numerous structures that can be formed with the last term, such as: *~ avantajoasă, ~ excesivă, ~ fermă, ~ specială, ~ turistică inclusivând doar cazarea sau transportul*. Quite amusingly, the last phrase, for instance, though quite long in Romanian, is represented in German (ge.) by a single word (*Teilpauschalreise*) not even excessively long - as relatively common for this language. Derived forms, important constructions or phrases accompany most words and happily complete the basic terms. Accurate and thorough understanding is thus granted and it can be said that even a sort of reinforcement is assured, besides the direct goal which is the provision of the proper communicational elements and structures.

Where only ready-made phrases - and not the constituent words - represent structures of interest for the field, it is of course just these that are included (at the right alphabetical place, but without discussing the first word which is of no significance, as such, in the context of tourism). So, we find plenty of phrases such

as: *Bine ați venit!, centură de siguranță, de efect, lumină polară, ștergere din registru, lucrat manual, mic dejun, mijloc de plată*, etc. Where adequate, more complex expressions will follow, which are formed from the initial ones (like various types of breakfast or of payment methods for the last two examples given above). Moreover, the particularities of the language are well spotted and carefully considered, all semantic aspects being taken into account. For example, the equivocal Romanian verb *a închiria* and the derived noun *închiriere* are thoughtfully provided with bracketed disambiguation: *a da* respectively *dare în chirie* - lend, lending - and *a lua* respectively *luare în chirie* - borrow, borrowing. The polysemantic *serviciu* (service) represents another example where, first, clarifications are offered (*oficiu* - office, *prestare* - service offering, *servire* - serving) and then a whole set of phrases are given (almost two columns), among which: telephonic assistance service, dry-cleaning service, room-service, German Air Traffic service a.s.o.

In part three (pp. 234-340), the Hungarian - German - Romanian dictionary, the structural concept is, naturally, preserved, this rendering a unitary character to the trilingual dictionary, and the endeavour to provide an exhaustive range of concepts yet of relevance to tourism is again successful. Same pattern is noticed: words are selected by criteria of relevance and appropriateness, an initial constituent word is omitted from the alphabetical list if not particularly important while significant compounds and collocations are listed and carefully tackled. To give an example, we note that though the word *lég* (air) is not present, we find *léghajó* (aircraft) and then a series of structures formed with *légi* and compounds of *lég* - spreading on a column and a half - among which: *légi betegség*, *légiforgalom*, *légi személyzet*, *légkondicionáló berendezés*, *légtér használata*.

Peculiar or unexpected structures met at times can make the reading into a delightful one, not boring at all - which would be rare for a dictionary. It is pleasantly surprising for instance to find a phrase such as *Autómentes Svájci Települések Egyesülete* which refers to *Car-free villages in Switzerland* but sounds quite funny in a direct translation (Association of Swiss localities free of car traffic) especially as it is very likely that many readers have not heard of the existence of such a thing as yet. A feature of the Hungarian language and cultural style, the kind, advising tone and the close relation to the collocutor, may seem excessively explanatory when out of the context of the discourse, i.e. unless in the regular speech register. Such is here, for instance, the dictionary entry *autópálya*, *mely a valamikori Jugoszlávián áthaladva összeköti Ausztriát Görögországgal* which to non-natives can sound somewhat too explicit or over-detailed (for a dictionary 'term') and can be felt as a little farfetched. The English version is a quite specific one, Brotherhood and Unity Highway, while the Hungarian entry looks like a rather long rephrasal used in the absence of a synthetical structure (a direct translation being as follows: the highway crossing the former Yugoslavia and connecting Austria to Greece). In our opinion, such structures are evidently introduced for the reason of closely following a simple organising rule, that of mirroring the entries in the three languages. Obviously the leading language in this conceptual parallel is German, where these - otherwise complex lexical constructions - are simple terms (*der Autobahn*, for the example above), or synthetical but still very natural structures.

Such a parallel construction is not at all easy to manage and accomplish and the production of this trilingual dictionary is, in the light of these considerations, even

more appreciable and worthy, a sign of hard work and diligence, a measure of consistence and a proof of competence.

The auxiliary section, of 42 pages that bring up vocabulary denoting geographical elements, administrative divisions and related data, is both a wise choice, for reasons of usefulness, and also a mark of novelty and a sign of originality. The annex begins with the states of the world in German, then in Romanian and finally in Hungarian - all translated, as the words in the dictionaries before, in the two other languages, a pattern which is preserved all along this final section, as well.

Then comes a selection of most important Romanian and then Hungarian cities and towns, which are followed by the most relevant cities in the world, then mountains, rivers, lakes and seas/oceans. These all are first introduced in German, then comes the Romanian subsection and then the Hungarian one. The selection is made not only on the criterion of importance but also considering the existence of lexical variations between the versions. Thus, in the German subsection, for instance, there are numerous names of Hungarian cities that are very distinct from the original while in the Romanian subsection there are just a few names of Hungarian cities presented, because their original, Hungarian language name is preserved. That is why there are differences in entries from one language subsection to another.

The three large tables in the end of this final, auxiliary section - one extensive table for each of the three languages - bring selections of countries, with their corresponding nations and languages, appearing as previously mentioned - according to the writer's specifications in the foreword. Thus, the tables for German and Romanian contain gender and number variants in the column for people (nation) while in the table for the Hungarian subsection there is only number specification, the language being defective of gender.

The trilingual dictionary ends in two pages of bibliography, arranged on two categories, printed works first and then online resources, all being recent or very recent.

A perfectionist nature, a calculated person and a very well prepared and organised professional, the writer does not allow any shortcomings, flaws or compromises to her work. Extensive comprehension and sharp ingenuity are the two dimensions that best denote the manifestation of Andrea Hamburg's professionalism in this complex and yet straightforward piece of work.

REZENSION

HIDASI JUDIT, OSVÁTH GÁBOR, SZÉKELY GÁBOR (Hrsg.) **CSALÁD ÉS ROKONSÁG NYELVEK TÜKRÉBEN** (Familie und Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen in verschiedenen Sprachen)

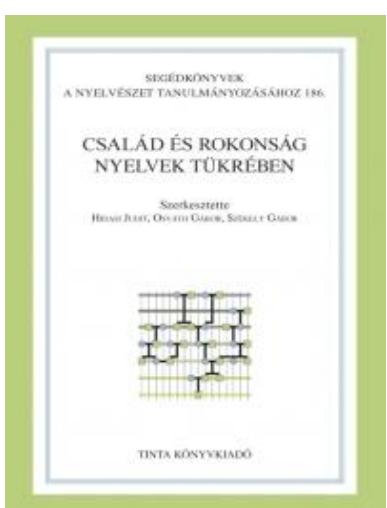
BOOK REVIEW

FAMILY AND TERMS OF KINSHIP THROUGH THE PRISM OF LANGUAGES

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Rezension zu:

**Család és rokonság nyelvek tükrében
(Familie und Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen
in verschiedenen Sprachen)**

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Die Familie bildet den Forschungsgegenstand von mehreren Wissenszweigen, je nach dem, welchen Aspekt der Thematik man untersuchen möchte.

Család és rokonság nyelvek tükrében, ein Sammelband von 14 Autoren von dem akademischen Bereich (Andrić Edit, Philosophische Fakultät, Neusatz - Novi Sad; Cs. Jónás Erzsébet, Universität von Nyíregyháza; Dobos Erzsébet, Wirtschaftsuniversität von Budapest; Gulyás Csenge, Pázmány Péter Katholische Universität; Hidasi Judit, Wirtschaftsuniversität von Budapest; Laczik Mária, Universität von Nyíregyháza; Megyery Friederike, Kölcsény Ferenc Reformierte Pädagogische Hochschule; Minya Károly, Universität von Nyíregyháza; Nagyné Schmeltz Erika, Universität von Nyíregyháza; Nagy Sándor István, Eötvös Loránd Wissenschaftliche Universität; Osváth Gábor, Wirtschaftsuniversität von Budapest; Répási Györgyné, Universität von Nyíregyháza; Székely Gábor, Universität von Nyíregyháza und Tukacs Tamás, Universität von Nyíregyháza) beschäftigt sich mit dem Begriff der Familie und den zahlreichen Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen aus der Sicht der vergleichenden

Sprachwissenschaft. So geht das Buch den Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen im Ungarischen und neun weiteren europäischen und drei Sprachen aus dem Fernosten auch mit Bezug auf übersetzungstechnische und -stilistische Aspekte näher an. Es werden Termini der Blutsverwandtschaft (geradlinige und kollaterale), erworbenen Verwandtschaftsbeziehungen (Verbindung durch Eheschließung und Lebensgemeinschaft) und Termini zum Ausdruck des Aufhörens dieser Beziehungen in Betracht gezogen. Als Ausgangs- bzw. Bezugspunkt gilt das Ungarische, methodologisch gehen die Autoren synchronisch, doch teilweise veraltet wirkende Ausdrücke nicht ausgrenzend, um und beachten die Regeln der kontrastiven Linguistik. Dementsprechend werden die Termini in den einbezogenen Sprachen angesichts ihrer Kongruenz, – d.h. nicht nur inhaltliche und funktionelle, sondern auch förmliche Entsprechung – bzw. der Art ihrer Inkongruenz untersucht:

A magyar és idegen nyelvi terminusok egybevetésekor mindenkor mindig azt vizsgáljuk, hogy azok mikor „egybevágóak”, illetve mikor nem egybevágóak, és eltérés esetén milyen az eltérés jellege.

(Bei der Vergleichung der Termini in dem Ungarischen und der Fremdsprache untersucht man stets, wann diese „kongruent”, bzw. inkongruent sind, und wenn sie nicht übereinstimmen, welches die Art dieser Abweichung ist.) S. 13

Schon in der Einführung weisen die Herausgeber darauf, dass es in den europäischen Sprachen an die 150-200 Lexemen pro Sprache für die Bezeichnung der Familienmitglieder, Verwandtschafts-bezeichnungen vorhanden sind. Diese Zahl ist dank des kollektivistischen, großfamiliären kulturellen Hintergrunds über 300 im Falle von Sprachen aus dem Fernosten. Auf den Seiten des Buches erfährt der Leser auch, wie sich die gesellschaftlichen, geschichtlichen Umwandlungen in der Änderung der Termini im untersuchten Bereich widerspiegeln.

Die strikte linguistische Analyse wird durch eingefügte Bilder, ethnographische Fragmente (Sprichwörter, Darstellung von Volksbräuchen) und populärwissenschaftliche Abschnitte, obwohl stellenweise mit der behandelten Problematik nur marginal verbunden, aufgelockert und leserfreundlicher gemacht. So lädt Székely Gábor unter anderem zur Reflexion über bestimmte, Familienmitglieder bezeichnende ungarische Sprichwörter ein und dasselbe tut Hidasi Judit hinsichtlich japanischer, Osváth Gábor angesichts koreanischer Sprichwörter. Weiterhin berichtet die Erstere über das System der Adoption von Erwachsenen in Japan für die Weiterführung des Familienunternehmens und – namens mangels entsprechenden Erben, Tukacs Tamás stellt ungewöhnliche zeitgenössische männliche und weibliche Vornamen im Englischen vor, Laczik Mária betont die Rolle der Großeltern in der italienischen Gesellschaft und bezieht sich dabei auf ein erfolgreiches italienisches TV-Serital, *Un medico in famiglia*, bzw. auf den „Tag der Großeltern“ (Festa dei nonni), an dem die ältere Generation gefeiert wird. Répási Györgyné und Székely Gábor wenden sich in ihrem Beitrag erneut der Volksweisheit zu und suchen nach ungarischen Entsprechungen für einige russische Sprichwörter.

Das 1. Kapitel, gezeichnet von Székely Gábor, beschäftigt sich mit den Verwandtschafts-bezeichnungen im Ungarischen. Der Autor geht in seiner Studie von einer Zweiteilung dieser Bezeichnungen aus, nämlich Termini für die

Benennung der Blutsverwandtschaft und der Verbindung durch Eheschließung. So wie schon in der Einleitung darauf hingewiesen, werden diese „klassischen“ Bezeichnungen dank der ständigen gesellschaftlichen Umwandlungen mit modernen Termini wie „Patchworkfamilie – *pechwörk család*“ (die aus dem Englischen ins Ungarische umgesetzte Form), „Leihmutter- *béranya*“ oder „Designerbaby - *designerbaba*“ zur Bezeichnung von einem durch künstliche Befruchtung aus dem genetischen Material von drei unterschiedlichen Personen geborenen Kind erweitert. Es werden aber auch ältere Benennungen in der gegenseitigen Beziehung unter fünf Generationen der Familie in Betracht gezogen. Das Ungarische verfolgt nämlich die Äußerung der Angehörigkeit zu einer Familie in der Zeitspanne von fünf Generationen, so gibt es darin Termini für die Benennung der Großeltern des Urgroßvaters, bzw. der Urgroßmutter (*szépszülők*): *szépapa* (Großvater des Urgroßvaters/der Urgroßmutter), *szépanya* (Großmutter derselben) und sinngemäß auch für die jüngste Generation der Kinder im Verhältnis zu ihren fünf Generationen älteren Vorfahren: *szépunoka* (Enkelkind der Großeltern). In der Studie werden auch Wörter zur Bezeichnung des Aufhebens/Aufhörens von Verwandtschaftsbeziehungen durch Tod oder Scheidung aufgezählt – siehe *árva* (Waisenkind), *özvegy* und seine geschlechtsspezifische Formen *özvegyember* (Witwer), *özvegyasszony* (Witwe), *elvált férfi / elvált nő* (geschiedener Mann/geschiedene Frau).

Im 2. Kapitel untersucht Tukacs Tamás dieselbe Problematik im Englischen und findet einerseits eine Dreiteilung der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen in blutmäßige Verbindungen mit zwei Unterkategorien: Abstammung in gerader Linie (“*nuclear family*”) und Abstammung in der Seitenlinie (“*collateral terms*”, wie Onkel, Tante, Neffe, Nichte, usw.) und Verbindungen durch Eheschließung (“*affinal terms*”), die durch den Suffix “*in-law*” verzeichnet werden, andererseits aber eine Vierteilung derselben. Die vier Kategorien sind: Blutsverwandte (*consanguineals*), Verwandte durch Eheschließung (*affinals*), Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen mit dem Präfix *Stief-* (*step*) und Ehepaar (*spouses*). Im Englischen gibt es auch von gesellschaftlichen Umwandlungen resultierende Neologismen wie Leihmutter – *surrogate mother/host mother*, Patchworkfamilie - *stepfamily/blended family* (interessanterweise wird im Englischen das englische Wort “patchwork” zur Bezeichnung dieser Art der Verbindung nicht verwendet). Die Anwendung der zahlreichen Variationen und Koseformen für die Benennung der Elternteile (*dad, daddy, pa, pop, mummy/mommy, mum/mom*) hängt von dem Alter und der gesellschaftlichen Angehörigkeit des Sprechers ab – während *dad/daddy* im Sprachgebrauch der mittleren Schichten, *papa* in aristokratischen Kreisen, *mommy/daddy* bei den Kindern vorkommen, verwenden Erwachsene im Bezug auf ihre Eltern die Termini *dad/mum*.

Weiterhin wird die Aufmerksamkeit auf englische Eigentümlichkeiten wie den Terminus “*double cousin*” und umgangssprachliche Formulierungen wie “*claunch/pibling*”, usw. gelenkt, die in anderen Sprachen unbekannt sind. Der Erstere bezeichnet die Verbindung unter den Kindern eines mit einem Bruderpaar verheirateten Schwesternpaars, die Letzteren beziehen sich als zusammengezogene Wörter auf den Onkel und die Tante, bzw. die Geschwister der Eltern eines Individuums (*siblings of one's parents*).

Wie es um Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen in der finnischen Sprache steht, erfährt der Leser im 3. Abschnitt, gezeichnet von Minya Károly. Die nicht blutmäßige Elternschaft wird hier, dem Ungarischen gleich, ebenfalls mit einer Zusammensetzung ausgedrückt, wo der eine Bestandteil des Wortes „halb/Teil“ bedeutet; *äitipuoli/isäpuoli* (Stiefmutter/Stiefvater) bezieht sich eigentlich auf eine halbe Mutter/Teilmutter und einen halben Vater/Teilvater. Dieselbe Struktur weist auch der Terminus *lapsipuoli* (Stieffkind) auf. Das Finnische verfolgt Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen ebenfalls fünf Generationen entlang, drückt dabei mit mehrfacher Verwendung des Wortes „lapses“ eine weitere Generation kinderseits und mit ebenfalls mehrfacher Wiederholung der Vorsilbe „iso-“ je eine frühere Generation im Verhältnis zu den Großeltern aus.

Informationen angesichts der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen in der französischen Sprache verdankt man Nagyné Schmelczer Erika, die den 4. Abschnitt mit einer Kurzanalyse der auf Geschlecht und Alter basierenden Struktur und Zusammensetzung der französischen Familie ansetzt. Die Termini *père/mère* werden von einem Possessivpronomen begleitet, um Verwandtschaftsbeziehung zu bezeichnen, sonst finden sie verschiedene Bedeutung und Anwendung: *mère nourrice* (Erzieherin), *mère maquerelle* (Leiterin eines Bordells) oder *petit mère* (Tante, ältere Bekannte). Im Bereich der Verwandtschaftsbeziehungen durch Eheschließung stößt man im Französischen – so die Autorin – auf den Mangel der Eindeutigkeit: *beau-fils/belle-fille* mögen sowohl Stiefsohn/-tochter als auch Schwiegersohn/-tochter bedeuten und diese Zweideutigkeit wiederholt sich in den Termini *beau- père/belle-mère* (Stiefvater/-mutter oder Schwiegervater/-mutter). Diese Verwirrung lässt sich durch die Verwendung von kontextbedingten Synonymen wie *gendre/bru* (Schwiegersohn/-tochter) wenigstens, was die jüngere Generation betrifft, beheben. Die gesellschaftlichen Umwandlungen und Annahme von unterschiedlichen sexuellen Normen resultierten auch im Französischen in Neuformulierungen wie *homoparentalité* (Gleichgeschlechtigkeit der Eltern), *couple homoparental/ famille homoparentale* (Familie/Paar desgleichen Geschlechts). Laut Autor geht diese Tendenz weiter, die Mitglieder oben genannter Familien werden ein paar Jahrzehnte später auch entsprechende rollenspezifische Namen tragen.

Das vielleicht komplexeste und mehrschichtigste System für die Anrede des Anderen kommt in der japanischen Sprache vor. Einblick in diese Komplexität gewährt dem Leser Hidasi Judit im 5. Abschnitt des Sammelbandes. Jede Sprache operiert mit unterschiedlichen Mitteln zum Ausdruck der Hochachtung, Ehrenerweisung anderen gegenüber, was das Japanische jedoch darunter einzigartig macht, ist seine Fähigkeit, Höflichkeit und Ansehen nicht nur auf lexikalischer, sondern auch auf grammatischer, syntaktischer und pragmatischer Ebene zur Geltung zu bringen. Für die Äußerung der Ehre einer anderen Person gegenüber wird diese höher positioniert und sich durch die sogenannte demutsvolle Form niedriger gestellt.

Mindkét esetben létrejön a vertikális távolságteremtés – azaz a nyelvi megformálásban kifejezést nyer a társadalmi hierarchia.

(In beiden Fällen wird ein vertikaler Abstand geschaffen – d.h. in der sprachlichen Formulierung kommt die gesellschaftliche Hierarchie zum Ausdruck.) S. 77

Da dieser Komplexität der Verhältnisse jüngere Japaner immer schwerer gerecht werden können, wurde das Äußerungssystem in der letzten Zeit viel vereinfacht. Doch bleibt es viel komplexer als in anderen Sprachen; so gibt es mehrere kontextbedingte Formen für die Bezeichnung der Familienmitglieder. Spricht man über einen Vater im Allgemeinen, – es ist keine Rede über den Vater des Sprechers – so verwendet man den Begriff *otōsan*. *Chichi* steht für den Vater des Sprechers, funktioniert aber nicht als Anrede. Sinngemäß bezeichnet *okāsan* eine jedwelche Mutter, während *haha* in Bezug auf die Mutter des Sprechers verwendet wird. Diese sonderbare Kommunikationsform ergibt sich aus dem Bedürfnis, das Verhältnis des Sprechers nicht nur zum Gesprächspartner (Höflichkeit), sondern auch zum „Objekt“ des Gesprächs zu veranschaulichen. Dieselbe Dualität ist auch auf der Ebene der Bezeichnungen für die Nachfahren gültig. *Musuko-san* bzw. *o-jō-san* stehen für den Sohn/die Tochter irgendwelcher Person, – *san* figuriert als Höflichkeitssuffix – den eigenen Sohn/die eigene Tochter nennt man *chōshi/chōnan* (erstgeborenen Sohn), *chōjo* (erstgeborene Tochter) oder *jinan* (Zweitgeborenen), *jijo* (Zweitgeborene). Merkwürdigerweise sprechen Familienmitglieder einander nicht mit dem Vornamen, sondern mit der Bezeichnung ihrer Stelle in der Familie an. Als Beweis für die weltweite Eroberung der englischen Sprache bringt uns die Autorin Beispiele für Lehnwörter englischer Herkunft in der japanischen Sprache: *kappuru* (couple – Paar), *waifu* (wife – Ehefrau), sogar *maiwaifu* (my wife – meine Frau). Diese kommen natürlich im Sprachgebrauch der jüngeren Generation vor.

Einblick ins ebenfalls komplexe System der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen im Chinesischen verdanken wir Gulyás Csenge im 6. Abschnitt des Buches. Die über 350 Termini zur Benennung der familiären Verbindungen kommen teilweise zustande, da es in dieser Sprache für jede Verwandtschaftsbezeichnung wenigstens zwei Wörter, eins in der gesprochenen und eins in der schriftlichen Sprache verwendet werden und außerdem gibt es auch separate Benennungen, je nach dem, ob man väterlicher- oder mütterlicherseits zur Familie gehört. Andererseits lässt sich das Phänomen mit der Vielfalt der örtlichen Variationen in der gesprochenen Sprache erklären. Die Bedeutung der Hierarchie kommt in der Großzahl der Termini für die Bezeichnung der männlichen Verwandten zum Ausdruck, der Wortschatz bezüglich der weiblichen Familienmitglieder ist nämlich viel beschränkter. Viele Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen werden durch den Sachverhalt erklärende Zusammensetzungen ausgedrückt, so steht z. B. *yifumū* (fremd/unterschiedlich + Vater + Mutter) für Stiefeltern, oder *dàiyūnmǔqin* (statt + Schwangerschaft + Mutter) für Leihmutter. Da Katholizismus in China eine anerkannte, obwohl nur beschränkt praktizierte Religion ist, gibt es im Chinesischen Ausdrücke für die Taufe, Taufpatin, bzw. den Taufpaten.

Im 7. Kapitel wird über Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen im Koreanischen berichtet. Der Autor, Osváth Gábor, weist darauf hin, dass wegen des starken chinesischen Einflusses auf die koreanische Kultur und der Tatsache, dass auf der Basis der koreanischen Sprache eine altertümliche Version des Chinesischen steht, eine Großzahl der koreanischen Lexemen chinesischen Ursprung und sogar chinesische Synonyme hat. Was die Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen anbelangt, ist das umso gültiger, noch mehr, ferne familiäre Verbindungen lassen sich nur durch

chinesische Termini ausdrücken. Ursprungsmäßig und der grammatischen Struktur nach können Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen in drei Gruppen geteilt werden: echte koreanische Wörter, sinokoreanische Termini (chinesischen Ursprungs, aber außerhalb Chinas entstanden) und Mischwörter gebildet aus den vorherigen zwei Kategorien. Zur Veranschaulichung des komplexen Bezugs- und Ehrenerweisungssystems zählt der Autor nicht weniger als 16 Varianten für den Begriff ‚Ehefrau‘ auf; unter ihnen befinden sich koreanische wie *ane* (neutral), *csip'szaram* (über die eigene Ehefrau im Gespräch mit einer hochachteten Person), sinokoreanische Termini *puin* (offiziell zur Ehefrau einer beachteten Person), oder englische Lehnwörter *vaiphu* (zur Gattin des Lehrers). Dank der zahlreichen christlichen Gemeinschaften in Süd-Korea, sind auch im Koreanischen die mit der Taufe verbundenen Termini bekannt.

Das Autorpaar Friedericke Megyery und Székely Gábor bietet im 8. Kapitel eine Darlegung der bisher verfolgten Thematik in der deutschen Sprache. Es wird betont, dass bei den deutschen Nomina natürliches Geschlecht und grammatisches Genus nicht immer übereinstimmen, das mag auch bei der Bezeichnung der Familienmitglieder der Fall sein, wenn diese in Koseform, verkleinert vorkommen. Oft verwendet man im Deutschen Komposita für die Formulierung der Verwandtschafts-bezeichnungen, aber Ableitungen lassen sich auch vertreten. So werden die Termini für die Benennung der Familienmitglieder in der auf- und absteigenden Linie neben dem Bestimmungswort ‚Groß-‘ auch mit Hilfe des Präfixes ‚Ur-‘ gebildet. Obwohl sich heutzutage das Bezugssystem der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen beachtlich vereinfacht hat, zeugen noch veraltete Wörter davon, dass es früher auch im Deutschen verzeichnet wurde, ob jemand väterlicher- oder mütterlicherseits mit der Familie verwandt war.

Das 9. Kapitel – Autorin Laczik Mária – wird der Analyse der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen im Italienischen gewidmet. Darin wird dem Leser beigebracht, dass die Benennung der Familien-mitglieder meist aus demselben Stamm hervorgeht, indem Maskulina die Endung ‚-o‘, den femininen Entsprechungen die Endung ‚-a‘ zugewiesen wird (*il figlio* – der Sohn/*la figlia* – die Tochter; *il cugino* – der Cousin/*la cugina* – die Cousine, usw.). In der Pluralform bekommen Verwandtschafts-bezeichnungen die Pluralendung der Maskulina, haben aber neutralen Wert, d.h. sie zeigen kein Genus (*i figli* – die Kinder; *i genitori* – die Eltern).

Répási Györgyné und Székely Gábor wenden sich im 10. Abschnitt den Verwandtschafts-bezeichnungen in der russischen Sprache zu und stellen dabei fest, dass es dem Deutschen gleich, wohlaus auch im Russischen vorkommen kann, dass bei Lebewesen das grammatische Genus mit dem biologischen Geschlecht nicht übereinstimmt. Genus ergibt sich im Allgemeinen auch hier aus der Wortendung. Im Falle der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen durch Eheschließung werden in der Alltagssprache eher Umschreibungen als konkrete betreffende Termini verwendet. Es soll vermerkt werden, dass der Mangel der Umschrift der zyrillischen Buchstaben in den aufgeführten Beispielen undstellenweise auch der Übersetzung der russischen Texte einen Nachteil bildet, so wird das Verständnis und die Verwendbarkeit des Beitrags im Kreise der Nicht-Russischkundigen beachtlich erschwert.

Im Gegensatz zu den deskriptiven Studien des Bandes ist Nagy Sándor Istváns Darlegung der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen in der rumänischen Sprache eher schematisch. Diesen Schematismus und die bündige Aufzählung der betreffenden Termini brechen die zwei erzählenden Fragmente über Hochzeitsbräuche in verschiedenen Gebieten Rumäniens.

Einblick in die Eigentümlichkeiten der spanischen Sprache angesichts der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen gewährt uns Dobos Erzsébet im 12. Kapitel des Buches. Die Tatsache, dass diese Sprache weltweit von fast 400 Millionen Menschen in unterschiedlichen Regionen der Erde gesprochen wird, resultiert in einer solchen Vielfalt an Variationen, die auf den Seiten einer Studie umzufassen, beinahe unmöglich wäre. So setzt sich die Autorin als Ziel, neben der Terminologie der spanischen Standardsprache bezüglich der Familie und Verwandtschaft, einen Überblick über die familiengebundenen Gewohnheiten, Traditionen, Glauben der spanischsprachigen Gemeinschaften rund um die Erde zu bieten. Es wird eine Parallele zwischen der spanischen und italienischen Terminologie hinsichtlich der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen gezogen und festgestellt, dass die männlichen und entsprechenden weiblichen Varianten im Spanischen ebenfalls einen gemeinsamen Stamm aufweisen, nur Maskulina enden auf ‚-o‘ und Feminina auf ‚-a‘ (z. B. *el hijo* – der Sohn/*la hija* – die Tochter; *el abuelo* – der Großvater/*la abuela* – die Großmutter, usw.).

Die Gestaltung der Verwandtschaftsterminologie in der serbischen Sprache wird im 13. Abschnitt verfolgt; die Autorin Andrić Edit stellt dabei fest, dass diese trotz der Abschlankung der ehemaligen Großfamilie zur Kernfamilie und demgemäß der Verringerung der Zahl der Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen in Verwendung im Vergleich zu ihrer ungarischen Entsprechung viel differenzierter aussieht. Außerdem hängt sie von manchen Faktoren wie Art der Verwandtschaft (in der geraden oder Seitenlinie, Blutsverwandtschaft oder Verbindung durch Ehe), Geschlecht der Bezugsperson (Ego), bzw. der verbindungsbildenden Person, usw ab. So werden im Serbischen die Brüder der Mutter und des Vaters und sogar ihre Gattinnen unterschiedlich verzeichnet (*stric* – Bruder des Vaters/*ujak* – Bruder der Mutter; *strina* – Ehefrau des Bruders des Vaters/*ujna* – dieselbe aber mütterlicherseits). Diese Komplexität wird auch auf der Ebene der Cousins väterlicher- und mütterlicherseits, der Schwägerschaft (Schwager, Schwägerin) vom Gesichtspunkt des Ehemannes/der Ehefrau der Bezugsperson (Ego) weitergeführt.

Der 14. Abschnitt ist übersetzungsstilistischen Aspekten, wie Bezugnahme auf den sozio-kulturellen Hintergrund sowohl in der Ausgangs- als auch in der Zielsprache angesichts der Verwandtschaftsterminologie gewidmet:

A világmegismerés folyamatának leképződése és a temporalitás kérdése a fordítás folyamatában többszörösen nyomon követhető, hiszen itt két, sőt három világlátás kognitív, nyelvi és magatartás-esztétikai világkép találkozik: az eredeti nyelvi formák világa, a fordító és célnyelvi olvasó vagy nyelvhasználó szövegértelmezése.

(Der Ablauf des Kennenlernprozesses der Welt und das Problem der Temporalität lassen sich im Übersetzungsprozess mehrfach verfolgen, da

hier sogar drei Arten von Weltanschauungen einander begegnen, das kognitive, sprachliche und benehmensästhetische Weltbild: die Welt der originellen Sprachformen, die Interpretationsweise des Übersetzers und die des Sprachverwenders oder Lesers in der Zielsprache.) S. 189

Im abschließenden Teil des Buches werden Schlussfolgerungen hinsichtlich gemeinsamer, bzw. unterschiedlicher Eigentümlichkeiten der untersuchten europäischen Sprachen einerseits und der auf der sinozentrischen Kultur basierenden asiatischen Sprachen andererseits gezogen und denen gemäß Sprachkategorien aufgestellt, in die die behandelten Sprachen eingereiht werden können. Trotz der stellenweise qualitativen Ungleichmäßigkeiten unter den Beiträgen bietet das Buch eine aufschlussreiche, weiterführende Lektüre sowohl für Fachleute als auch Sprachlernende oder nur neugierige Laien, die sich gewiss auf den nächsten komparativistischen Band in Vorbereitung zum Thema der Farben freuen werden.