Exploring Language Variation, Diversity and Change

Edited by

Marinela Burada,
Oana Tatu and Raluca Sinu

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LANGUAGE EXPLORATIONS

LANGUAGE EXPLORATIONS: INTRODUCTION

RALUCA SINU

The contributions included in this chapter explore different aspects pertaining to the structure of natural languages. Adopting a contrastive approach, the papers deal with various linguistic constructions and phenomena, such as types of correlative constructions in Romanian and English, infinitival clauses in Romanian, *any* as a polarity sensitive item and as a Free Choice item, the theory of pronoun resolution, analysing their features and mechanisms, and at times assessing their role in language acquisition, or in language teaching and learning.

On the English and Romanian Correlatives 'both … and', 'atât … cât' (Mihaela Tănase-Dogaru) deals contrastively with two types of correlative constructions: the 'both … and' construction in English and its Romanian equivalent 'atât … cât', but also the conjunction doubling of the type 'și … și' 'and … and'. The author attempts to explain the existence in Romanian of two equivalents for the English structure 'both … and' by presenting the differences between the two structures in terms of single/multiple-event reading and of distributivity based on various examples. She highlights the fact that conjunction doubling encodes two events with distributive interpretation, while correlative coordination facilitates the distributive reading.

Concentrating on infinitives in Romanian, **On Agreeing and Non-Agreeing Infinitives in Romanian** (Maria Aurelia Cotfas) discusses the behaviour of infinitival clauses in subject position, more specifically infinitival complements selected by (*fi-*)passivized transitive verbs. The aim of the author is to use the examples in the available corpora in order to distinguish between agreeing/raising vs non-agreeing/control constructions, and to investigate the properties of the complement clause (temporal reference, shared or own subject) in relation to specific triggers and clause-size. The data consists of examples extracted from the CoRoLa corpus and using the Google search engine. Among the results of the analysis, the author shows that, for example, raising variants occur more often not only with typical ECM verbs, but also with futurate verbs.

The focus in *Any* **Problems in Translation?** (Mihaela Zamfirescu) is on the training of future translators, more specifically on the impact that a sound knowledge of syntax might have on the quality of the translation process. The author proposes a comparison of polarity sensitive *any* and free choice *any* emphasizing their different behavior and distribution. Then she reports on an experiment involving second year students of the Translation and Interpretation study programme at the Faculty of Foreign Languages and Literatures of the University of Bucharest, aimed at testing the way they cope with the translation into Romanian of sentences containing *any* items. The results of the experiment indicate that students experience problems in the translation of some of the contexts, which prompts the author to conclude that a better understanding of syntax would help students overcome these problems and, thus, improve the quality of their translation work.

In **Pronoun Resolution and the Factors that Influence It** (Sofiana I. Lindemann), the author provides an overview of the literature dealing with the intersentential factors involved in pronoun resolution from the point of view of interpretation. She introduces key aspects in the research on pronoun resolution, such as the notions of accessibility, salience and prominence as associated with referents. Then, five of the most discussed factors contributing to the prominence of referents are reviewed, namely givenness, distance, syntactic function, thematic roles and animacy. The paper also argues that the causality implicit in verbs influences the prominence of a referent in terms of likelihood of subsequent pronominalization. As stated by the author, the perspective adopted is concerned mainly with predictions pertaining to the most likely antecedent of an already given pronoun.

ON THE ENGLISH AND ROMANIAN CORRELATIVES 'BOTH … AND', 'ATÂT … CÂT'

MIHAELA TĂNASE-DOGARU

Abstract: The present paper investigates two types of correlative constructions: the 'both … and' construction in English and its Romanian equivalent 'atât … cât', on the one hand, and the conjunction doubling of the type 'și … și' 'and … and'. It aims at showing that, while English possesses only the 'both … and' type of 'and' reinforcement, Romanian has two types of 'both … and' coordination: 'și … și' 'and … and' and 'atât … cât' 'both … and'. In Romanian, conjunction doubling is ambiguous between a single-event and a multiple-event reading while the 'both … and' coordination always introduces a multiple-event reading. Similarly, while simple coordination entails a single-event reading and is underspecified for distributivity, initial coordination is either focus-oriented ('și … și' 'and … and') or distributive-oriented ('atât … cât' 'both … and').

Keywords: correlative coordination, conjunction doubling, single-event reading, multiple-event reading, distributivity

1 Introduction

English, besides simple 'and' coordination structures (1a), possesses the correlative structure 'both … and' (1b):

(1)   a. I have visited Mary and John.
        b. I have visited both Mary and John.

Languages like French, Italian, or Serbo-Croatian lack the correlative reinforcing structure of the type 'both … and'. On the other hand, these languages possess a strategy known as conjunction doubling (see Progovac 1999):

(2)   a. Jean connait et Paul et Marie.
             Jean knows and Paul and Marie.
             'Jean knows both Paul and Marie'
       b. Sono arrivati e Anna e Roberto
             are arrived and Anna and Roberto
             'Both Anna and Roberto have arrived'
       c. I Marija i Milan donose vino
             and Mary and Milan bring wine.
             'Both Mary and Milan will bring wine'

In contrast to both types of languages exemplified before, Romanian, besides simple 'şi' 'and' coordination structures (3a), has two ways of reinforcing the conjunction 'and': the correlative structure 'atât … cât' 'both and' (3b) and conjunction doubling 'şi … şi' 'and … and' (3c):

(3)   a. Am mâncat mere şi pere.
             I-have eaten apples and pears.
       b. Am mâncat atât mere cât şi pere.
             (I) have eaten both apples and pears.
       c. Am mâncat şi mere şi pere.
             (I) have eaten and apples and pears.
             'I have eaten both apples and pears'

Therefore, one of the main questions that this paper will be trying to answer is the following: if a language contains both conjunction doubling and reinforcement by 'both and', what is the semantic and syntactic difference between these two structures and how can this difference be grasped?

2 Single and multiple-event interpretations of coordinations (Progovac 1999)

Generally, the literature on coordination assumes a correlation between the presence of an extra conjunction marker and a multiple-event interpretation (see Progovac 1999, Bîlbîie 2008, de Vries 2005, Skrabalova 2003).

According to Progovac (1999, 142), there is a systematic semantic difference between coordinations with 'and' and coordinations with 'both … and'. While 'and' coordinations may involve a single theta-role assignment to a group of individuals, 'both-and' coordinations involve multiple theta-role assignments to each conjunct, which leads to a multiple-event interpretation.

Coordinations with 'and' alone are unspecified for one event or two events readings, the result of the assignment of a single theta-role to the conjunction phrase (Progovac 1999, 142-143)

(4)   [Maria and Peter] will bring a bottle of wine.
(5)   I visited [Maria and Peter].
(6)   I gave a rose to [Maria and Peter].   (Progovac 1999, 142)

In (4), the conjunction phrase 'Maria and Peter' sits in subject position, in (5), it sits in object position, and in (6), the conjunction phrase occupies the position of object of preposition. If we assume that the conjunction phrase is assigned a single theta-role (see Link 1983 a.o.), the group made up of the individuals Maria and Peter receives a single theta-role of Agent in (4), Theme in (5), and Goal in (6).

In contrast, the reinforcement by 'both' results in an interpretation where the conjunction phrase contains two separate participants in two events (see Lasersohn 1995 a. o.):

(7)   [Both Maria and Peter] will bring a bottle of wine.
(8)   I visited [both Maria and Peter].
(9)   I gave a rose to [both Maria and Peter].   (Progovac 1999: 142)

Again, in (7) the conjunction phrase 'both Maria and Peter' sits in subject position, in (6), it sits in object position, and in (7), the conjunction phrase occupies the position of object of preposition. Since an event can have at most one Agent, Theme, or Goal (see Carlson 1982, Chierchia 1984 a.o.), the 'both-and' coordinations in the examples (7)-(9) necessarily receive an interpretation involving two grammatically encoded events of wine-bringing, visiting, and rose-giving (Progovac 1999, 143). Therefore, the example in (7), for instance, entails that Maria will bring a bottle of wine and Peter will bring a bottle of wine, while the example in (4), without reinforcement by 'both', does not bear such an entailment.

Progovac (1999, 144) concludes that 'the use of "both" as a correlative partner of the conjunction "and" is never semantically vacuous. Rather, its use always implies separate assignment of theta-roles to each conjunct and thus a multiple-event interpretation.'

It is assumed that the same effect obtains with conjunction doubling in languages like French (10), Italian (11), or Serbo-Croatian (12) (see Progovac 1999, 145-146).

(10)   J'ai visité et Marie et Marcel.
          I have visited and Marie and Marcel.
          'I visited both Marie and Marcel'.
(11)   Sono arrivati e Anna e Roberto.
          Are arrived and Anna and Roberto
          'Both Anna and Roberto have arrived'   (Progovac 1999: 146)
(12)   I Marija I Milan donose vino.
          And Mary and Milan bring wine
          'Both Mary and Milan will bring wine'   (Progovac 1999:146)

Starting from the observation that the examples involving conjunction doubling have the same interpretation as the examples involving reinforcement by 'both … and', Progovac (1999, 146) formulates the *n*-Coordination generalization (13):

(13)   *n*-Coordination: Where one-piece coordination (1-coor) is unspecified for the number of events / states, two (or more) - piece coordination (2-coor) necessarily implies multiples events / states.
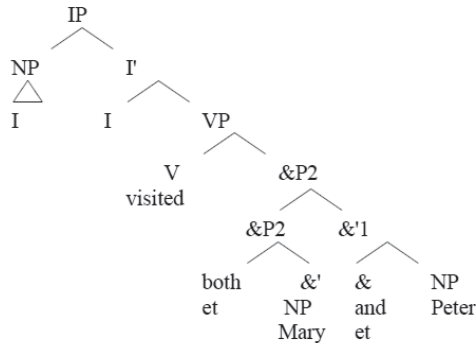
In Progovac's (1999) view, 2-coor stands for coordination reinforced by correlative 'both' in English or by conjunction doubling in languages like Italian, Serbo-Croatian, or French.

However, languages like Romanian allow both for conjunction doubling (14) and for 'both … and' reinforcement (15). At this point in the analysis, both (14) and (15) encode multiple events. However, reinforcement by 'both … and' seems to encode a further aspect, namely focus on each conjunct.

(14)   Au venit şi Ion şi Maria.
          Have arrived and Ion and Maria
          'Both Ion and Maria have arrived'
(15)   Au venit atât Ion cât şi Maria.
          Have arrived both Ion and and Maria
          'Both Ion and Maria have arrived'

The rest of the paper is devoted to capturing the syntactic and semantic differences between the two structures.

3 Conjunction doubling and distributivity in Romanian

3.1 Initial coordination as AdvP

The descriptive grammar of Romanian assumes that the correlative / initial 'şi' ('and') has a conjunctional value (GALR 2005, 638) (16), to be distinguished from the homonymous form behaving like an adverb (17).

(16)   (Şi) Ion şi Maria au venit.
          (and) Ion and Maria have come
          'Both Ion and Maria have come'
(17)   Şi Ion a venit.
          And Ion has come.
          'Ion has come, too'

Moreover, it is seen as a cumulative adverb in groups such as 'ci şi' ('but and') or 'dar şi' ('but and'), where the first element behaves as a conjunction while the second as an adverbial.

(18)   Nu numai Ion ci şi Maria a venit.
          Not only Ion but and Maria has come.
          'Not only Ion but also Maria has come'

What we have called conjunction doubling is present in Romance languages, with the exception of Spanish, where the pair 'y … y' is disallowed:

(19)   Extracted from Bîlbîie (2008, 29)

French	Italian	Spanish	Romanian
et … et	sia … sia	*y … y	şi ... şi
à la fois ... et	sia ... che	a la vez ... y	

(20)   Et Jean et Marie sont venus à la fête. (French)
             Sia Gianni sia Maria sono venuti alla festa. (Italian)
             Și Ion și Maria au venit la petrecere. (Romanian)
          *Y Juan y Marìa han venido a la fiesta. (Spanish)
             'Both John and Mary came to the party'   (Bîlbîie 2008, 29)

Bîlbîie (2008) enumerates several arguments against the conjunctional status of the initial coordinator 'şi' ('and') and in favor of its adverbial status.

First, 'şi' ('and') can be preceded by a coordinating conjunction which can exclusively realize the coordinating relation in other contexts (21):

(21)   Manolescu scrie şi poezie [şi / dar] şi proză.
             Manolescu writes and poetry [and / but] and prose.
             'Manolescu writes both poetry and prose'   (Bîlbîie 2008, 35)

However, the conjunction 'dar' ('but') can only coordinate sentences and is excluded from nominal coordination structures; it would be safer to assume that, in structures like (21), it is 'şi' ('and') that realizes the coordination relation while 'dar' ('but') encodes a different semantics, such as focus. Moreover, the pair 'şi … şi' ('and … and') in structures like (21), though possible in principle, is avoided both in speech and writing for reasons of euphony.

A second argument in favor of the adverbial status of 'şi' ('and') in conjunction doubling structures is its occurrence in structures like (22), where it is assumed to function outside coordinated phrases (Bîlbîie 2008: 35):

(22)   La petrecere vor veni şi prietenii lui Ion.
             At party will come and friends.the of Ion
             'Ion's friends will come to the party, too'

However, although the adverbial status of 'şi' ('and') in structures like (22) is generally acknowledged by Romanian grammars, it might be better to assume that it is a part of a correlative structure where only the first conjunct is pronounced (23). The reason why the second conjunct is not pronounced has to do with old information; the speaker and hearer know that Ion's parents are going to come to the party and, therefore, the information is backgrounded.

(23)   La petrecere vor veni şi prietenii (şi părinţii) lui Ion.
             At party will come and friends.the (and parents.the) of Ion
             'Both Ion's friends and his parents will come to the party'

A third argument concerns the fact that, prosodically, the constituent modified by 'şi' ('and') receives special intonation, in a fashion similar to phrases modified by 'cam' ('rather'), 'chiar' ('even'), 'doar', 'numai' ('only'), 'nici' ('neither'), which are called semiadverbs in traditional grammars (Ciompec 1985, Bîlbîie 2008).

(24)   **Chiar** Ion a venit
          Even Ion came
(25)   Am **doar** trei copii
          I have only three children
(26)   **Şi** Ion a picat examenul
          Also Ion has failed exam.the
          'Ion failed the exam, too'

However, if one applies the same line of reasoning as before, 'şi' ('and') in initial position is still a conjunction, which is part of a conjunction phrase with a non-pronounced first conjunct. The only way to understand (26) is by means of (27), which clearly shows that 'şi' ('and') has conjunctional status:

(27)   [[Maria a picat examenul] şi [Mihaela a picat examenul]] şi Ion a
          picat examenul.
          Maria has failed exam.the and Mihaela has failed exam.the and Ion has
              failed   exam.the
          Maria failed the exam and Mihaela failed the exam and Ion failed the exam.

From this perspective, initial 'şi' ('and') represents a case of n-coordination (Progovac 2008), where the first conjunct(s) is not pronounced. The reason has to do with general economy principles, captured by Progovac (1999, 149) as (28):

(28)   Minimize Pronunciation: do not pronounce that which is recoverable.

Other arguments for the adverbial status of initial 'şi' ('and') and / or 'şi' ('and') in conjunction doubling structures concern the (im)possibility of inserting incidental elements between 'şi' ('and') and the phrase it modifies. It is assumed (Bîlbîie 2008, 36) that, while incidental phrases can intervene between the correlative 'fie' ('either') and the phrase it modifies, no such material can intervene between 'şi' ('and') and its phrase, which is taken as an indication of the conjunctional status of 'fie … fie' (29) ('either … or') and the adverbial status of 'şi … şi' ('and … and') (30).

(29)   Ion vine fie azi fie poate / pare-se mâine.
            Ion comes either today or perhaps / it-seems tomorrow
            'Ion is coming either today or perhaps tomorrow'
(30)   *Ion vine și azi și poate mâine.
            Ion comes and today and perhaps tomorrow
            'Ion is coming both today and perhaps tomorrow'.

       However, the judgments of the grammaticality in the cases of (29)
and (30) differ dramatically from one speaker to the next. In my dialect,
there is nothing wrong with (30), if the incidental material is treated as
such and the relevant pause is produced. Similarly, not all native speakers
of Romanian would agree with the grammaticality of (29), where even the
relevant pause fails to produce acceptability.
       From what has been said so far, it seems safe to assume that the
difference between simple 'și' ('and') coordination and conjunction
doubling does not necessarily lie in a difference in syntactic status, i.e.
conjunction or adverb but rather in the assignment of one versus more than
one theta-roles, which in turn results in a single event / state versus a
multiple event / state interpretation. In other words, the difference lies in a
distributive versus collective interpretation. This receives additional
support from coordinate structures involving adjectives:

(31)   E deșteaptă și frumoasă.
            Is smart.fem and beautiful.fem
            'She is smart and beautiful'
(32)   E și deșteaptă și frumoasă.
            Is and smart.fem and beautiful.fem
            'She is both smart and beautiful'

       In (31), 'smart and beautiful' are predicated collectively about her,
as if the properties were a package containing a single state; in (32), 'both
smart and beautiful' are predicated distributively, by means of which
process two properties are assigned.

3.2 Initial coordination as a distributive operator

       Skrabalova (2003) shows that the initial coordinator is a
distributive operator, in the sense that its presence always entails a
distributive reading. She argues that French initial 'et' ('and') and Czech
'i' ('and') are distributive heads.
       In French, the initial coordinator forces the distributive reading, a
fact which also holds for Romanian, and which becomes evident when
using collective predicates:

(33)   Carole et Eric se sont embrassés.
           Carole and Eric refl are kissed
           'Carole and Eric kissed'
(34)   *Et Carole et Eric se sont embrassés.
           And Carole and Eric refl are kissed
           'Carole and Eric kissed'
(35)   Et Carole et Eric sont venus à la conférence.
           And Carole and Eric are come to the conference
           'Both Carole and Eric have come to the conference'

        In Czech, there is a special conjunction 'i' which forces the distributive reading, contrary to the conjunction 'a' ('and'):

(36)   Karla a Erik se polibili
           Karla and Erik are kissed
           'Karla and Erik kissed'
(37)   *Karla i Erik se polibili
           Karla and Erik kissed.
(38)   Karla i Erik přišli na konferenci
           Karla and.distr Erik came to conference
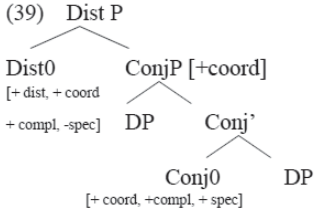   'Both Karla and Erik came to the conference'

        Following Johannesen (1998), who proposes that initial coordinators are adverbs adjoined to the Conjunction Phrase, adverbs which are sensitive to the type of head of the Conjunction Phrase that they attach to, Skrabalova (2003) analyzes initial coordinators as distributive operators which occupy a position wherefrom they c-command the XP they distribute over.
        Skrabalova (2003) proposes an analysis of conjunctions and distributive operators in terms of the semantic features [coordinated / coordinating], [distributive], and [additive] as well as the formal features [complement] and [specifier].
        It is the features [coord] and [dist] which allow us to distinguish between the coordinating and the distributive 'et' in French, 'sia' in Italian, and 'şi' in Romanian. The feature [+ coord] entails the features [+ compl] and [+ spec], because a conjunction has two arguments. The feature [+ dist] entails the features [+ compl] and [- spec], with the feature [+ coord] on the complement. The feature [additive] allows us to distinguish between simple coordinating 'and' and initial non-distributive 'and'.
        The syntactic structure proposed by Skrabalova (2003) captures both the semantic features that characterize distributive heads versus

conjunctions and the intuition according to which distributive operators are distinct heads which take coordinations as complements.

(39)   Dist P

Dist0   ConjP [+coord]
[+ dist, + coord
+ compl, -spec]   DP   Conj'

Conj0   DP
[+ coord, +compl, + spec]

In French and Romanian, the 'and' which has the [+ coord] feature will be generated in the position of the conjunctive head, while the initial 'and', having the feature [+ dist], will be generated in the position of the distributive head (40):

(40)   Dist P

Dist0   ConjP [+coord]
[+ dist, + coord
+ compl]   DP   Conj'
et / și
Conj0   DP
[+ coord, +compl, + spec]
et / și
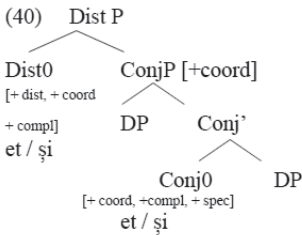
4 The correlatives 'atât...cât' 'both...and' and distributivity

The vast majority of the literature on correlative conjunctions makes little distinction between conjunction doubling and 'both … and' reinforcement. De Vries (2005, 84) treats on a par all types of coordination with initial coordinators in Dutch:

(41)   Hij is en slim en knap
           He is and smart and handsome.
           'He is both smart and handsome.'
(42)   Je moet kiezen: of (wel) dit, of (wel) dat.
           You must choose: either this or that
(43)   Hij is zowel voorzitter als penningmeester.
           He is both chairman and treasurer.

(44)   Hij is noch snel, noch precies.
        He is neither fast nor meticulous.
(45)   Hij is niet alleen goedgekleed, maar ook rijk.
        He is not only well-dressed but also rich.   (de Vries 2005, 84)

According to de Vries (2005, 85), initial coordinators are not conjunctions, in the sense that not each conjunct is in its own coordination phrase, and not in the sense that these initial coordinators do not do the coordinating job.

First, an initial coordinator sometimes has a form which differs from the conjunction, as in the case of 'neither … nor' and 'both … and'. Second, in the case of multiple coordination, the conjunction is repeated, not the initial coordinator (which he calls INICO), which suggests that there is a difference in status encoding a difference in semantics between simple and multiple coordination.

(46)   He is neither smart nor handsome nor rich.
(47)   Ik zag zowel Joop als Jaap als Joep als Job
        I saw INICO Joop and Jaap and Joep and Job   (de Vries 2005, 84)

Romanian does not fit nicely in the picture, however, for a number of reasons. In the cases of multiple coordination, the conjunction is repeated, unlike in Dutch, English, etc. (40). Similarly, the equivalent of (47) is ungrammatical in Romanian, where 'atât … cât' ('both … and') is limited to two conjuncts, encoding duality (49).

(48)   Nu e nici deștept, nici frumos, nici bogat.
        Not is neither smart, neither handsome, neither rich
        'He is neither smart, nor handsome, nor rich'
(49)   I-am vizitat atât pe Ion cât și pe Maria *cât și pe Silvia cât și pe Mihaela
        CL.acc.pl-have visited both DOM Ion and and DOM Maria * and and
            DOM   Silvia and and DOM Mihaela
        'I have visited both Ion and Maria *and Silvia and Mihaela'

Thirdly, an initial coordinator tales scope over the coordination as a whole, i.e. it is monovalent, while a conjunction is bivalent. Fourthly, an initial coordinator always triggers focus, while a conjunction is neutral.

A fifth argument listed by de Vries (2005, 85) is the fact that initial coordinators can be found in different positions (higher up in the clause, inside the first conjunct, or directly preceding the conjunction), while the conjunction immediately precedes the second conjunct.

(50)   Noch heeft hij gezegd [dat ze moet blijven], noch dat ze weg moet gaan.
          Neither has he said that she has to stay, neither that she away has-to go
          'Neither has he said that she has to stay, nor that she has to go away'
(51)   [Joop leest en een boek] en [hij schrijft een brief]
          Joep reads and a book and he writes a letter
          'Joep is both reading a book and writing a letter'
(52)   Hij leest [boeken] zowel als [tijdschriften]
          He reads books as well as magazines

       Even more importantly for the purpose of the present paper, an
initial coordinator triggers an obligatory distributive reading (see also
Progovac 1999). In (54), no collective reading is available.

(53)   Bill and Anna are going to be married. (one or two weddings)
(54)   Both Bill and Anna are going to be married. (two weddings)

       Following Skrabalova (2003), who, as we have seen, argues that
French initial 'et' and Czech 'i' are distributive heads, de Vries (2005)
argues that there is a functional projection Distributive Phrase DistP on top
of the Conjunction Phrase, which can host an adverbial phrase. Some
initial coordinators are the head of the Distributive Phrase Dist; others are
Adverbial Phrases and surface in the specifier of the Distributive Phrase.
The Conjunction Phrase CoP is selected by the distributive head Dist,
which is in a specifier head relation with the Adverbial Phrase.
       Furthermore, if either the head Dist or the specifier of the
Distributive Phrase is filled, the coordination is interpreted as obligatorily
[+distributive], which is the case of initial coordinators, as in (56). If there
is no initial coordinator, the head Dist or the specifier of the Distributive
Phrase is lexically empty and the coordination is lexically underspecified
for distributivity and, therefore, ambiguous. The coordination may be
interpreted as either [+ distributive] or [- distributive], as in (55).
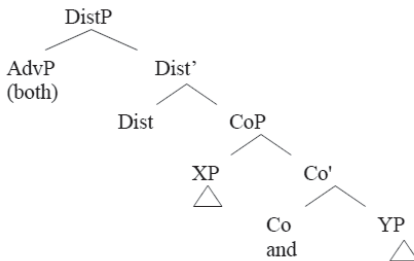
The feature [+ /- distributive] is believed to reside in the head Dist.

(55)   John and Anna are getting married - either distributive or collective
(56)   Both John and Anna are getting married - only distributive

5 Back to the issue

The paper started from the assumption that Romanian possesses three modes of 'and' coordination: simple 'and' coordination, initial 'and' coordination, and a type of 'both and' coordination (see the examples in (3), repeated here for convenience as (57 a-c).

(57)   a. Am mâncat mere și pere.
            (I) have eaten apples and pears.
          b. Am mâncat atât mere cât și pere.
            (I) have eaten both apples and pears.
          c. Am mâncat și mere și pere.
            (I) have eaten and apples and pears.
           'I ate both apples and pears'

While the semantics of the simple 'and' coordination is straightforward, the question addressed in the paper concerns the differences between initial 'and' coordination and the 'atât ... cât' 'both and' coordination.

The results of the analysis so far can be summarized as follows: simple 'and' coordination entails one event, which can be interpreted either collectively or distributively, depending on the type of the predicate involved (see Skrabalova 2003), or which is lexically underspecified for distributivity (see de Vries 2005):

(58)   I-am vizitat pe Ion și pe Maria. - as a group or in turns
          CL.acc.pl-have visited DOM Ion and DOM Maria
          'I visited Ion and Maria'
(59)   Ion și Maria s-au întâlnit în parc. – only as a group
          Ion and Maria refl-have met in park
          'Ion and Maria met in the park'

The example in (58) may have a collective or a distributive interpretation, while (59), because it involves a collective predicate, can only have a collective interpretation.

A second result of the analysis is the fact that initial coordination is seen as encoding two events with distributive interpretation. The example in (60) shows initial coordination with subject conjuncts that receive Agent theta-roles, the example in (61) shows initial coordination with object conjuncts that receive Theme theta-roles, while the example in (62)

shows initial coordination with indirect object conjuncts that receive Goal theta-roles.

(60)   Au venit și Ion și Maria.
           have come and Ion and Maria
           'Both Ion and Maria have come'
(61)   Am văzut și un papagal și un pelican.
           (I) have seen and a parrot and a pelican
           'I have seen both a parrot and a pelican'
(62)   Am dat o carte și băiatului și fetei
           (I) have given a book and boy.dat and girl.dat
           'I have given a book to the boy and the girl each'

As far as initial coordination of subjects is concerned (60), repeating the initial coordinator on both conjuncts can easily be seen as triggering a distributive reading, one in which Ion and Maria take turns to participate in the arriving event. The same can be claimed about the example in (62), which involves coordination of indirect objects with Goal theta-roles.

Turning to the example in (61), which involves initial coordination of objects bearing Theme theta-roles, although it is less obvious to identify two events, i.e. the distributive reading of the coordination, when the sentence involves two Theme arguments (see also Progovac 1999), it can still be claimed that (61) involves multiple theta-role assignment and, thus, a distributive reading. The claim is further strengthened by the observation that the so-called initial coordination can be multiplied several times:

(63)   Am văzut și un papagal și un pelican și un struț și un pinguin.
           I-have seen and a parrot and a pelican and an ostrich and a penguin
           'I have seen a parrot and a pelican and an ostrich and a penguin'

When the initial coordinator is repeated several times on each conjunct, as in (63), the 'list' reading becomes available. In this reading, each conjunct receives a Theme theta-role and these Theme participants in the perception event are perceived distributively.

However, it can be safely assumed that initial coordination of subjects is more likely to trigger the distributive reading than initial coordination of objects, which may be seen as ambiguous between a distributive and a collective interpretation.

When one turns their attention to 'both … and' reinforcement of subjects (64), objects (65), and indirect objects (66), it is to be noticed that the distributive readings obtain with all configurations.

(64)   Au venit atât Ion cât şi Maria.
          have come both Ion and and Maria.
          'Both Ion and Maria have come'
(65)   Am văzut atât un papagal cât şi un pinguin.
          I-have seen both a parrot and and a penguin
          'I have seen both a parrot and a penguin'
(66)   Am dat o carte atât băiatului cât şi fetei
          have given a book both boy.dat and and girl.dat
          'I have given a book both to the boy and to the girl'

In contrast to initial 'şi … şi' 'and … and' coordination, 'atât … cât' 'both … and' correlative coordination facilitates the distributive reading with Theme and Goal conjuncts.

Going back to the initial research question, namely the right way of capturing the distinction between 'atât … cât' 'both … and' reinforcement and initial 'şi … şi' 'and … and' coordination, what 'atât … cât' 'both … and' reinforcement seems to do is disambiguate between the collective and distributive interpretations in the case of coordinated objects bearing Theme theta-roles. 'Atât … cât' 'both … and' reinforcement unambiguously triggers the distributive interpretation.

In the context of the specific distributivity marker 'câte', both the 'şi ... şi' 'and … and' coordination and the 'atât … cât' 'both … and' correlative structure get an unambiguous distributive interpretation; when the specific distributivity marker is absent, the initial coordinator marks focus.

(67)   Am dat câte o carte şi băiatului şi fetei
          (I) have given distr a book and boy.dat and girl.dat
          'I have given a book both to the boy and to the girl'.
(68)   Am dat câte o carte atât băiatului cât şi fetei.
          (I) have given distr a book both boy.dat and and girl.dat
          'I have given a book both to the boy and to the girl'.

This interpretation is reinforced by the fact that the 'atât ... cât' 'both and' coordination is odd in the absence of the distributivity marker 'câte' in specifically distributive contexts, such as (69), where clitic doubling unambiguously selects for the distributive interpretation:

(69)   Le-am dat ?(câte) o carte atât băiatului cât şi fetei
          CL.dat.pl.-have given distr a book both boy.dat and girl.dat
          'I have given a book both to the boy and the girl'

6 Conclusions

The present paper started from the observation that, besides simple 'and' coordination, Romanian has two types of 'both … and' coordination: 'şi ... şi' 'and … and' coordination, which has been referred to as conjunction doubling, and 'atât ... cât' 'both … and' coordination, which has been referred to as correlative reinforcement.

The paper has shown that, while simple coordination 'and' coordination entails a single-event reading and is underspecified for distributivity, initial coordination is either focus-oriented, in the case of 'şi ...şi' 'and … and', i.e. conjunction doubling, or distributive-oriented, in the case of 'atât … cât' 'both … and', i.e. correlative reinforcement. In the latter case, the presence of the distributive marker 'câte' unambiguously points to a distributive reading.

Simple 'and' coordination entails one event, which can be interpreted either collectively or distributively, depending on the type of predicate involved (see Skrabalova 2003) or which is lexically underspecified for distributivity (see de Vries 2005).

Initial coordination or conjunction doubling is seen as encoding two events with distributive interpretation. As far as initial coordination of subjects or Goal indirect objects is concerned, conjunction doubling triggers a distributive reading. In the case of initial coordination of objects bearing Theme theta-roles, the distributive reading is less obvious. Therefore, it can be safely assumed that initial coordination of subjects is more likely to trigger the distributive reading than initial coordination of objects, which may be seen as ambiguous between a distributive and a collective interpretation.

In contrast to initial 'şi … şi' 'and … and' coordination, 'atât … cât' 'both … and' correlative coordination facilitates the distributive reading with Theme and Goal conjuncts. 'atât … cât' 'both … and' reinforcement disambiguates between the collective and distributive interpretations in the case of coordinated objects bearing Theme theta-roles. 'Atât … cât' 'both … and' reinforcement unambiguously triggers the distributive interpretation.

In the context of the specific distributivity marker 'câte', both the 'şi ... şi' 'and … and' coordination and the 'atât … cât' 'both … and' correlative structure get an unambiguous distributive interpretation; when the specific distributivity marker is absent, the initial coordinator marks

focus, an interpretation which is reinforced by the fact that the 'atât ... cât' coordination is odd in the absence of the distributivity marker 'câte' in specifically distributive contexts.

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ON AGREEING AND NON-AGREEING INFINITIVES IN ROMANIAN

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Abstract: The paper looks at subject infinitives selected by passivized transitive verbs in Romanian. One interesting property is that they can appear in two variants: agreeing and non-agreeing, corresponding to raising or control configurations. That is, there is a shared subject which agrees in phi-features with the main predicate (agreement is visible on the auxiliary and the participle) or the matrix predicate appears in the default third person singular while the infinitive features a disjoint overt or a null subject. While believe-verbs clearly prefer the agreeing variant, this is also quite pervasive with futurate verbs, which is surprising if their complements are tensed and able to check case on their embedded subject. We account for the raising/control behaviour by drawing on recent claims about the phi-specification of finite CPs in Romanian, such that control infinitives resemble these and are endowed with phi-features, while agreeing variants are not.

Keywords: infinitives, agreeing, non-agreeing, control, raising, case, tense

1 Outline and Scope

Before we tackle the two types of infinitives in Romanian, let us start with a brief overview of infinitive clauses and their properties. First of all, it is a known fact that infinitive clauses can be either arguments or adjuncts (the latter when preceded by prepositions of time and purpose such as *pentru a..., înainte de a...*. Our focus here will be on infinitive complements, so those infinitive clauses in argument position. As arguments, infinitives can be subjects or objects, and in object position they have a rather restricted distribution, given that the subjunctive has come to replace the infinitive in the domain of verb complementation.

Infinitival complements have a complete functional domain: they have a(n optional) complementizer (*de*), (clausal) Negation, possibility to host lexical subjects, clitics, auxiliary (perfective) *fi*, as shown in (1).

(1)   (de)   a   nu   o   fi   căutat nimeni niciodată
         de inf.prt not   her-Acc have looked nobody never
         (C) > Fin > Neg > Pers > T > Asp > Su ..v ………….

With respect to subject licensing, Romanian infinitives can license their own subjects not only in NOC contexts (subject, adjunct), but also in some OC contexts (e.g., with (one-way) implicative verbs – on the pattern of 'restricted subjunctives', see Cotfas (2012)); however, the majority of these subjects are [- agentive] (not External arguments), i.e., there seems to be a preference for Theme subjects as shown in (2).

(2)   a. Am încercat/izbutit [a   primi toți elevii   câte un bonus]
            I tried / managed inf.prt receive all pupils-the each a bonus
         b. între timp s-a încercat [a   avea loc program de consiliere cu…]
                                                                 (google example)
            meanwhile was tried inf.prt take place counselling program with …

In this paper, we will be focusing on infinitival clauses in subject position. The typical distribution of subject infinitival clauses in Romanian is illustrated in (3a, b) and (3c). As specified, the former pair exemplifies the selection of an infinitive complement by a copulative predicate (*be* + adjective), whereas the latter example – the type we will be looking at – shows infinitive complements selected by passivized transitive verbs in the main clause (so the 'be' verb here is no longer a copula, but a passive auxiliary).

- be_{cop} + adjective (modal; emotive-evaluative, manner adjectives)

(3)   a. Este interzis/posibil/obligatoriu (de) a..........
              is forbidden/possible/obligatory to.....
         b. Este esențial/important/ușor/greu (de) a ......
              is essential/important/easy/difficult to.....

- be_{aux} + past participle of transitive verbs

         c. Era stabilit / plănuit / Fusese decis   [(de) a transfera circulația în..]
             was settled /planned /had been decided (de) to transfer the traffic in ...

An interesting property of the distribution in (3c) is that it may appear in two types of construction that can be informally dubbed 'agreeing' (4c) (see the agreement on both the auxiliary and the participle) and 'non-agreeing' (4a, b) (default third person agreement) and which would syntactically correspond to a raising vs control (NOC/NC) pattern (i.e., implicit control):

(4)   a. **Este/ A fost** estimat [a (se) organiza mai multe demonstrații stradale]
          is/ has been estimated [a refl organize several street demonstrations]
       b. **Era** estimat   [a avea loc mai multe demonstrații].
            was estimated to take place several demonstrations
       c. Demonstrațiile$_i$ **sunt**   estima**te** [a avea loc mâine t$_i$].
            demonstrations-the are estimated to take place tomorrow

An observation is in order here: clausal subjects (finite and non-finite) prefer *se*-passives to *fi*-passives, but the *fi*-passive is gaining ground, possibly under the influence of English – see Cornilescu (2017) for instances of hyper-raising (raising out of finite (subjunctive/indicative clauses) with matrix *fi*-passives).

Traditionally (Stowell 1981, among many others), – and for languages like English, the control/raising divide has been correlated with specific properties of both the main clause triggers and the complement. On the one hand, Rasing (or E(xceptional) C(ase) M(arking)) triggers were believe-type verbs (*believe, know, consider, reckon...*) (also called B-verbs, cf. Abush 2004). The (raising) complements of these verbs do not allow episodic interpretation or future orientation, as shown in (5a). They convey simultaneity with respect to the matrix tense temporal specification, have stative interpretation and realis modality (i.e., they have Indicative paraphrases). As such, they were taken to be untensed, so that the case of the embedded subject had to be assigned clause-externally, across a smaller-sized boundary (IP/TP). On the other hand, control triggers are futurate verbs (*intend, decide, plan, hope*, etc.) (or F-Verbs). Their complements do allow episodic readings (5b), so they were analysed as tensed domains, such that the case of the embedded predicate's external argument was taken care of clause-internally, within a full-fledged clause-size (a CP).

(5)   a. *The boys$_i$ **are believed** [t$_i$ to eat a carrot]./
         a'. The boys$_i$ are believed [t$_i$ to eat a pear *every day*] (habitual, overlapping)
           b. John$_i$ decided/planned [PRO$_i$ to eat an apple (every day)]
         b'. **It was decided/planned/anticipated** [PRO to eat an apple (every day)]
         (episodic; if habitual, the habit is future-oriented w.r.t. the matrix)

More recent amendments have shown that not all control complements are tensed (see Landau's 1999 and subseq.). Exhaustive Control infinitives are analysed as untensed ([-T])), while not all raising complements are untensed (Wurmbrand 2014).

For the Romanian instances in (3) above, we aim to determine how and to what extent the data and the available corpora can be used to

differentiate between agreeing/raising vs non-agreeing/control constructions and (dis)confirm assumptions about a) the properties of the complement clause (temporal reference, shared or own subject), b) specific triggers, and c) clause-size. More precisely, one question is whether the raising/agreeing vs control/non-agreeing distinction correlates with the expected main clause triggers. Another question pertains to clause-size: given that infinitives in Romanian can be *a*-Inf or *de*-Inf, to what extent does clause-size correlate with the agreeing/raising vs non-agreeing control variant? A third and more difficult question is how we analyze the data. But before that, let us see what the data is.

2 The data

One intuitive way to check the distribution of examples like (3a, b) vs (3c) above would be to either a) verify examples with individual predicates (futurate or not) in the (non-)agreeing pattern, i.e., a.1.) with default 3rd person singular auxiliary and singular masculine participle (for non-agreeing) or a.2.) with plural auxiliary and plural participle (either masculine or feminine) or singular auxiliary followed by feminine participle (for agreeing variants); or b) use a system which allows one to build a generic search query which can then be used to generate the desired examples. The a) choice can be done on Google, but the more lucrative b) variant is available due to the CoRoLa[1] corpus.

With CoRoLa, there is no need to look for examples with specific predicates, as long as the initial query is defined properly. Once this is achieved, it will (hopefully) generate relevant examples on the basis of which the typology of main verbs can be determined. Examples (6) and (7) below specify the queries for the two types of construction under analysis:

a) a query with default 3rd person singular auxiliary + masculine singular past participle (+ a-Infinitive or de-Infinitive)
→ *este/era/a fost$_{sg}$ (is/was/has been) + past participle$_{sg}$ (+ a V-inf// de+a+V-Inf):*

(6)   [drukola/m=ctag:va3s   &   drukola/m=**number:singular**   & drukola/m=**person:third** &
drukola/m=type:auxiliary   &   drukola/m=verbform:indicative]
[drukola/m=ctag:vpsm &
drukola/m=**gender:masculine** & drukola/m=**number:singular** &
drukola/m=type:main   &   drukola/m=verbform:participle]
[drukola/m=ctag:qn &
drukola/m=pos:**particle** & drukola/m=type:**infinitive**]

b) a query with plural (present or past) marking on the auxiliary + plural past participle (unspecified for gender) or 3rd singular auxiliary + feminine past participle

→ *sunt/erau/au fost$_{pl}$* (are/were/have been) + *past participle$_{pl}$*
  este/era/a fost$_{sg}$ + *past participle$_{fem}$ (+ a V-inf// de-a+V-Inf)*

(7) [drukola/m=ctag:va3p & drukola/m=**number:plural** & drukola/m=person:third &
     drukola/m=type:auxiliary & drukola/m=verbform:indicative]
     [drukola/m=ctag:vppf
     & drukola/m=**number:plural** & drukola/m=verbform:participle]
     [drukola/m=ctag:qn &
        drukola/m=pos:**particle** & drukola/m=type:**infinitive**]

Useful though these queries are, they are not flawless. The first option in (6) runs into the problem of yielding ambiguous results. More precisely, (8) and (9) were both obtained following the query in (6), but in spite of their surface similarity they have a different underlying syntax: the examples under (9) are actually agreeing/raising examples, but agreement is established with a 3rd person, masculine (shared) subject vs (8), which features non-agreeing (NOC) variants.

(8) a. (Pe mese) **era** **stabilit** **a** *se* aşeza......
        (on tables) was settled/arranged-masc.sg to be laid...
     b. (pt elevi) **este** **recomandat** **a** *se* înfiinţa……
         (for students) is recommended-masc.sg to be set up

(9) a. *Filmul* **este** **aşteptat** **a** avea premieră ...
         movie-the is expected-masc.sg to have the premiere ...
     b. *Peştele* **este** **considerat** **a** fi un aliment care...
         fish-the is considered-masc.sg to be a product that....

(examples from CoRoLa)

There are, however, disambiguating hints: in (8) there is a null subject in the matrix and passive *se* in the infinitive, so there is no overt shared subject. Moreover, the embedded verbs are transitive and eventive (episodic interpretation, futurate irrealis). In (9) there is an overt shared subject which surfaces in the main clause and we have stative/unaccusative embedded predicates in the complement, with a generic interpretation (9b); in (9a) we do have a future reference, but with a "scheduling interpretation", which is allowed with some believe-verbs (Abusch 2004).

The second option in (7) runs into the problem of interpreting as similar examples such as the ones in (10), which again have a similar

surface structure but different underlying syntax. The same problem occurs in English when it comes to teasing apart direct object control from Acc + Infinitive/ECM constructions. In (10a), we have an instance of object control (with 'oblige'): the subject is base-generated in the main clause (an argument of 'oblige') and is then passivized, resulting in participle agreement: *pacienții$_i$ sunt obligați t$_i$ [PRO$_i$ a pune....],* whereas in (10b) we are dealing with an instance of raising/agreement with a nominal base-generated in the infinitival clause, but which happens to surface in the main clause: *veteranii sunt considerați [a fi … t$_{Su}$......]*

(10)   a. pacienții **sunt   obligați   a** pune la dispoziția medicului….
              patients-the are obliged-masc.pl to put at the disposal of the doctor….
           'The patients are obliged to put at the doctor's disposal…'
         b. Veteranii **sunt   considerați   a** fi niște bătrâni asistați
              veterans-the are considered-masc.pl to be some assisted old men
           'The veterans are considered to be a bunch of assisted old men.'

<div align="right">(CoRoLa examples)</div>

What we can conclude from the above is that the examples have to be weighed attentively and one has to use one's syntactic knowledge of argument structure (i.e., that D.O. control verbs are three-argument verbs (DP V DP PP/CP), while (passivized) ECM/raising triggers are two-place predicates (DP V CP)). There are also contextual hints regarding the class of matrix trigger or the type of embedded predicate (eventive with control (10a) – *put sth at sb's disposal*), stative with raising (10b) – copula *fi* 'be'). One other reliable test would be to consider whether the subject can appear embedded, in which case a raising analysis is at stake (understood as long distance agree); for (10), this would show that while the subject in (10a) cannot be moved into the infinitival clause (cf. (11a), this is possible with "the veterans" in (10b), cf. (11b):

(11)   a. *sunt obligați a pune (pacienții)   la dispoziția medicilor (pacienții)...
              are obliged-masc.pl to put   (patients-the) at disposal of doctors (patients-the)
           (* if the patients are to be understood as the 'obligees')
                ≠ The patients are obliged to ....
                 ≈ They are obliged to put the patients at the doctors' disposal
         b. sunt considerați a fi asistați veteranii
                 are considered-masc to be assisted-masc.pl veterans-the
                 = The veterans are considered to be ....

What the queries have revealed is that many believe-type verbs are well-represented in the corpus (in the passive). The most pervasive are *a*

socoti 'reckon', *a considera* 'consider', *a dovedi* 'prove', *a bănui* 'suspect', *a ști* 'know', *a descoperi* 'discover', *a (se) aștepta* 'expect', *a estima* 'estimate'[2]. Well-behaved believe-verbs (*consider, know, suspect, prove*) appear in agreeing/raising variants in CoRoLa, even when the (passivized) matrix verb is marked for singular (+ (default) masculine participle) (12). Extremely few exceptions like (13) were found (i.e., (13) is a non-agreeing instance). The query in (6) yielded examples which are instances of raising and display the typical properties: stative embedded predicates (most of them with the copula *be*, stative verbs (often marked with inherent or inchoative *se*), the shared subject appears in the matrix, generic non-episodic interpretation).

(12)   a. Pământul **era   considerat   a se** roti în jurul
              earth-the was considered-masc.sg to SE spin around …..
          b. Capul acestei conspirații **era considerat a fi** un grup de …
              head-the of this conspiracy was considered-masc.sg to be a group of
          c. poemul **era   suspectat   a fi** plagiat
              poem-the was suspected-masc.sg to be plagiarized
          d. fumatul **este   dovedit   a fi** principala cauză de mortalitate …
              smoking is proved-masc.sg to be   main   cause of mortality …
          e. Ben Carson **este   bănuit   a fi** următorul președinte
              Ben Carson is suspected-masc.sg to be the next president

(13)   Deși   **este   dovedit   [a fi**   eficientă,   terapia……]
                                                            (CoRoLa example)
          Although is proved-**masc.sg** to be efficient-**fem**, therapy-the.**fem** ….
          'Though it has been proved that the therapy ..../ the therapy is proved to be efficient …'

         De-Infinitives do not seem to be allowed in these instances, with the exception of *a bănui* 'suspect', which is probably due to lexical selection of *de* as a preposition, i.e., *a bănui pe cineva de ceva* 'suspect somebody of something'

(14)   [A.P.] **este bănuit   de a fi** colaborat   cu   fosta Securitate
              A P   is suspected-masc.sg de to have collaborated with the former
              Intelligence Service

         Agreeing/raising variants on the pattern in (7), i.e., plural marking on auxiliary and participle are numerous and well-represented, particularly with *a considera* and clearly disallow de-Infinitives

On Agreeing and Non-Agreeing Infinitives in Romanian

(15)   a. Reacțiile   adverse care **sunt   suspectate a** fi în relație cu…
                reactions-fem.pl adverse which are suspected-fem.pl to be related to
          b. Probele   (..) **sunt   bănuite   a** fi pozitive
                samples-fem.pl   are suspected-fem.pl to be positive
          c. ambii candidați **sunt   considerați   a** fi la fel de inacceptabili
                both candidates are considered-masc to be equally unacceptable
          d. [nu sunt acceptate ingrediente]..dacă **sunt   știute a** fi   contaminate
cu …
             [ingredients are not accepted   if   are known-fem to be contaminated-
fem with…

        As for futurate verbs (*a plănui* 'plan', *a preconiza* 'forsee', *a
planifica* 'schedule', *a anticipa* 'anticipate', *a aranja* 'arrange', *a estima*
'estimate'), they do appear in the non-agreeing/(implicit) control variant,
as expected, but most of the examples with these verbs are actually
agreeing/raising instances, even with passivized verbs in the (default) 3rd
person marking.

(16)   *a preconiza* 'foresee, anticipate'
          (NO) Control/non-agreeing
          a. **era   preconizat**   [a exista un moment "Kashmir"2.]
             was anticipated-masc.sg to exist a moment Kashmir"2
          b. Procedura   care inițial **era   preconizat   a** fi   instituit**ă**
             (topicalization)
             procedure-**fem** that initially was anticipated-**masc**.sg to be instituted-
             fem
          Raising
          c. acord   ce **era   preconizat   a** fi semnat la …
             agreement that was foreseen-masc.sg to be signed-masc
          d. Întâlnirile   **sunt   preconizate   a** se desfășura…
              meetings-fem.pl are anticipated-fem.pl to unfold
          e. Deschiderea oficială   **era   preconizata a avea** loc
             opening-fem official-fem   was anticipated-fem.sg to take place

(17)   *a estima* 'estimate'
          (NO) Control/non-agreeing
          a. În 2012, în Europa era   estima**t**   [a fi diagnostica**te**   74.000 de
          cazuri de….]
             In 2012, in   Europe was estimated-**masc** to be diagnosed-**fem.pl**
          74,000 cases of..
          b. aceasta **sumă   era   estimat   a se** atinge pe parcursul
          întregului an…
             this amount-**fem** was estimated-**masc**.sg to be attained throughtout
          whole year
          Raising

c. Mormântul **este estimat**   **a** avea 9500 ani
   grave-the   is estimated-masc.sg to have 9,500 years
d. relocarea   capacităţilor de producţie **era   estimată   a** se finaliza în acest an
   relocating of capacities for production was estimated-fem to be finalized this year
e. Profiturile (…) **sunt estimate a** creşte…
   profits-the   are estimated-pl. to rise
f. aceşti bani **sunt estimaţi a** se încasa până la sfârşitul ….
   this money-pl is estimated-masc.pl to be cashed till the end….

(18)   *a planifica* 'plan', 'schedule'
        (NO) Control/non-agreeing
        a. Iniţial   **era   planificat**   [**a** se construi 120 de ecranoplane model A-90]
           initially was planned-**masc.sg** to be built 120 screenplane**s** model A-90
        b. in zilele   când **era   planificat**   **a se** filma o căţărare a ….(in situ subject)
           in days-the when was planned-masc.sg to be filmed a climb-fem of
        c. Între anul I şi II de studiu   **era   planificat   a** se executa stagiu la   unităţi …
           between study year 1 and 2 was planned-masc.sg to be done internship with units
        Raising
        d. Iniţial   mausoleul   **era   planificat a** fi ridicat la cota 536
           initially mausoleum-the was planned-neut.sg to be erected at height 536
        e. Sensul giratoriu **era   planificat   a** se realiza …
           roundabout-the was planned-masc.sg to be done….
        f. lucrările   **erau planificate a** se termina în 6 luni ..
           works-the were   planned   to be finished in 6 months
        g. În   vara   acestui an, compania **era planificată a** fi listată pe bursă
           in summer of this year, company-the was   planned   to be listed on the stock exchange

(19)   *a plănui* 'plan', 'intend'
        (NO) Control/non-agreeing
        a. ..un **teren …..   pe care era   plănuit**   [a se construi un bazin de înot]
           a patch of land on which was planned-masc.sg to be built a swimming pool
        b. Absolut   toate   este   plănuit   a fi ruinate, distruse
           absolutely all-fem.pl is planned-masc.sg to be ruined-fem.pl, destroyed-fem.pl
        Raising

    c. bulevard   care **era plănuit   a** fi   lărgit
       boulevard-the which was planned-masc.sg to be enlarged-masc.sg
    d. Evenimentul **era   plănuit   a** se desfăşura la Mediaş
       event-the   was   planned-masc.sg to take place in Mediaş
    e. Întâlnirea   **era   plănuită   a** avea loc în iunie
       meeting-the-fem.sg was planned-fem.sg to take place in June
    f. Acestea   **fuseseră planificate   a** se disputa în noiembrie
          these-fem.pl had been planned-fem.pl to be discussed in November
.

(20)   *a anticipa* 'anticipate'
          (NO) Control/non-agreeing
    a. Creşterea economică a   zonei euro **este   anticipat   a** fi
    susţin**ă** de….
       economic growth-fem of   euro zone   is anticipated-masc.sg to be
       sustained-fem.sg
    b. direcţia principală de deplasare […] **este   anticipat   a** fi tot
    prin Cumpenei.
       The main direction of the route-fem.sg is   anticipated-masc.sg to be
       still through C.
    Raising
    c. Excedentul ….   **era   anticipat   a** creşte
       overstock-the-masc.sg was anticipated-masc.sg to grow …
    d. Acestea   **erau anticipate   a** avea loc   pe parcursul lunii iulie
       these-fem.pl were anticipated-fem.pl to take place   over month-the of
       July

Futurate verbs do not seem very compatible with *de*-infinitives, either in the control or raising variants – with one notable exception, the verb *a preconiza* 'anticipate, foresee', which seems to more easily allow a *de*-Infinitive in the control/non-agreeing variant (21a) as well as in raising instances (21b)

(21)   a. **Era   preconizat** [**de a** avea cca. 10000 de tranzistoare]

                                                              (CoRoLa)

          was   anticipated   DE A have cca 10,000 of transistors
    b. în   Donduşeni **sunt preconizate   de a** efectua **lucrări** de...
       (backward raising)
          in Donduşeni are anticipated-fem.pl DE A start   works-fem.pl ….

For the other tested F-verbs, both Google and CoRoLa seem to show roughly the same picture:

(22)   Google results:
        a. este prevăzut **de a** - **0 matches** / sunt prevăzute **de a** - 1 match
        b. este plănuită **de a** - **0 matches** / sunt plănuite **de a** - **0 matches**
        c. este anticipată **de a** - **1 match** / sunt anticipate de a – **0 matches**
        d. Este preconizată **de a** – 589 results, all with embedded stative verbs/
           sunt preconizate **de a** – 824 results, idem

(23)   CoRoLa results:
        a. **sunt** considera**te a** ... – 1,598 matches /a'. **sunt** considera**te de a** … - **0 matches**
        a''. **era** considera**tă a** ... – 84 matches / a'''. **era** considera**tă de a** ... - **0 matches**
        b. **sunt** estima**te a** … – 28 matches / b'. **sunt** estima**te de a** … - **0 matches**
        c. este concepu**tă a** ... – 9 matches / c'. este concepu**tă de a** ... – **0 matches**
        d. este aștepta**tă a** … - 4 matches / d'. este aștepta**tă de a** ... – **0 matches**
        e. **erau** preconiza**te a** ... - 2 matches / e'. **erau** preconiza**te de a** … - **0 matches**

3 Taking stock and accounting for the data

        What we see from the above is that, while typical B-verbs instantiate raising (see (12), (15)), F-verbs seem to allow both patterns (see (16)-(20)), though the raising/agreeing option is more pervasive than the non-agreeing variant (at least with infinitive clauses). Also, neither class is particularly compatible with a *de-a*-Infinitive, but B-verbs seem to disfavour these complements more than F-verbs.
        It would seem therefore that the raising/agreeing option is available not only with typical believe-verbs (*consider, know, prove, suspect*), but also from the complements of futurate (future irrealis) verbs (*plan, schedule, intend, decide, anticipate, foresee*). If we go along with the assumption that these complements are tensed, so that the embedded subject should be able to be case-licensed within the clause, this evidence is surprising, since there should be no reason for the subject to raise or to backward agree (when it remains *in situ*) with the main verb. Moreover, infinitives in Romanian are stronger domains than those in Romance or English: Romanian infinitives seem more like subjunctives in that they are able to license their own subjects (particularly theme subjects, see (2) above). What is more, hyper-raising (raising out of finite complements, which are clearly phasal domains) is also available in similar contexts (i.e., with *fi*-passive main verbs), cf. Cornilescu (2017):

(24)   a. **A   fost dovedit** [**că**   aceşti politicieni   au   furat   din
        buget].
            has.**3rd sg** been proved   that these **politicians** have.**3rd.Pl** robbed from
        budget
        'It was proved that these politicians have stolen money from the budget'
        b. [Aceşti politicieni]   au   fost   dovediţi   [că   au   furat
        din buget]
            these **politicians**   have.**3rd.Pl** been proved.**masc.pl** that have.3rd.Pl
        stolen from budget
            'These politicians were proved to have stolen from the budget.'

Restating the question, what is to be explained is why we see raising (or agree) in (24), as well as in (4) and (16)-(21), since the embedded subject appears in a tensed (finite or non-finite) complement, which is able to case-license it. What is clear from the above is that whatever has been proposed for the pattern in (24) should be extended to our contexts involving N(O)C subject infinitives (selected by F-Verbs).

The account must depart from the traditional motivation for raising, accounted for by the need of the embedded subject to get case from an external case-assigner (since it cannot be licensed in the embedded domain). This is clearly not the case in (24), where raising occurs from a finite indicative domain, clearly a phrasal/full-fledged domain; it is also problematic for Romanian infinitives (especially those which are future irrealis), which can license their own lexical subjects.

More recent claims (Halpert 2016, Hartman 2010) – in a minimalist framework relying on feature-checking – focus on the need of the higher Probe (in our case, matrix Tense) to have its features checked, and not the case requirements of the embedded subject itself. As such, raising (or agree) is triggered by the need to satisfy the properties of a higher Probe rather than the need to satisfy case on the lower subject. Central to this claim is the requirement that Spec, TP be occupied by a nominal element, since T is endowed not only with phi-features (gender, number, person), but also with a [uD] (case) feature. While DP/nominal subjects can straightforwardly satisfy these features on Tense, with clausal subjects the checking is more complicated: the uninterpretable phi-features ([$u$phi]) on the matrix T may be checked by a CP which is marked for phi-features (which has interpretable phi-features, i.e., [$i$phi]), while different strategies may be used for the checking of uninterpretable case ([uD]): either the clause gets a DP shell or else it needs an expletive in the main clause, with which the CP forms a chain.

For Romanian, it has recently been shown (Cornilescu 2017) that finite CP subjects (e.g. (24)) are phi-endowed, which means they can

satisfy [*u*phi] on matrix Tense. As for the [*u*D] feature on matrix T, it is satisfied either via a) *pro*$_{expl}$ – CP chain (24a), cf. (25a)[3] or b) raising of the embedded Subject (i.e., hyper-raising) (24b), cf. (25)

(25)   a. *pro*$_{expl i}$ **A fost dovedit** [**că**   aceşti politicieni   au   furat   din
        buget]$_i$.
            has.**3rd sg** been proved that these **politicians** have.**3rd.Pl** robbed from
        budget
        'It was proved that these politicians have stolen money from the budget'
        b. [Aceşti politicieni]$_i$ au   fost   dovediţi   [că   au   furat
        t$_i$ din buget]
            these **politicians**   have.**3rd.Pl** been proved.**masc.pl** that have.3rd.Pl
        stolen from budget
            'These politicians have been proved to have stolen from the budget.'

Turning now back to infinitives, we cannot help but notice the similarity in behaviour between (24) and our control infinitives in (4a, b) and (16)-(21). This naturally leads to the claim that (subject) control infinitives should have the same properties as finite CPs, whereas raising infinitives (those selected by typical B-Verbs and which only allow the raising/agree option) have different properties which force the shared subject to raise. The question that rises is then what this property is, which likens control/non-agree infinitival CPs (future irrealis) to finite CPs and which differentiates these from raising/agree infinitives (B-verbs)?

Like finite CPs (in (24)), control infinitives[4] should possess *phi*-features that enable them to interact with the matrix clause Tense; hence they can then use the *pro*$_{expl}$ - CP strategy (the non-agreeing variant), where this expletive *pro* is the null counterpart of expletive *it* in English. Alternatively, the raising/agree variant can be used, whereby the matrix T features are checked by a nominal element, i.e., the shared subject itself.

(26)   a. *pro*$_i$ **Era   preconizat** [**de a** avea cca. 10000 de **tranzistoare**]$_{CPi}$
            was   anticipated DE to   have cca 10,000 of transistors
        b. In 2012, (..) *pro*$_i$ **era   estimat**   [a fi diagnostica**te** 74.000 de
        cazuri de….]$_{CPi}$
            in 2012,   was estimated-**masc** to be diagnosed-**fem**.**pl** 74,000
        cases of..
        c. *pro*$_i$ **era planificat [a** se construi 120 de **ecranoplane** model A-90]$_{CPi}$
            was planned-**masc.sg**   to be built 120 screenplane**s** model A-90
        d. *pro*$_i$ **Era important [**(de) a primi   toţi copiii câte un premiu]$_{CPi}$
                was   important de to receive all children each a prize

Conversely, raising infinitives are not endowed with phi-features, so they cannot use the option of a *pro*$_{expl}$ - CP to satisfy the properties of

matrix Tense. The only option for the latter to be checked is by agreeing with and/or raising of the embedded subject argument. This nicely correlates with the unavailability of *de*-Infinitives (i.e., raising infinitives may be FinPs, not (full) CPs).

We now have to see whether the arguments used to support the existence of phi-features and of this null expletive with finite CPs (24) also work for our control contexts with infinitive complements. Like a finite clause (27a), a control infinitive can antecede a thematic *pro* or even the nominal *asta* 'this' (27b) (proof for phi-specification)[5]:

(27)   a. Era stabilit [**că**   plecăm   mâine]$_i$, deși   *pro$_i$/asta$_i$* era cam complicat.
            was decided that leave-1.pl tomorrow, though pro/this was rather complicated
        b. Fusese planificat [**a** (se) construi trei autostrăzi]$_i$, dar *pro$_i$/asta$_i$* nu s-a (mai) întâmplat.
             had been planned to be built three highways but pro/this   not has more happened

As evidence for the existence of the null expletive with finite subject CPs, its ability to bind floating quantifiers (which also determine verb agreement) is quoted (28a):

(28)   a. [Că vom da   faliment] și [că proprietarul va fugi] au fost ambele anticipate de mult.
            that we shall go bankrupt and the owner shall flee have been both anticipated long ago
        b. [A (se) planta pomi] și [a (se) vopsi gardurile] a / au fost fiecare (din ele)/ambele   plănuită/te   // planificată/te cu mare atenție.
            to (be) plant(ed) trees and to (be) paint(ed) fences has/have been each (of them) /both   planned-sg/pl/scheduled-sg/pl carefully

What still needs to be addressed is the correlation between the presence/absence of phi-features on the clause and its temporal properties, that is, the fact that only full-fledged/tensed CPs seem to display properties of phi-specification. We leave this for further research.

4 Conclusions

In the present paper, we have focused on subject infinitive complements in Romanian in a particular distribution, namely those infinitival complements selected by (*fi-*)passivized transitive verbs. Romanian infinitive subject clauses selected by passivized transitive verbs

may appear in two distribution patterns: a) the agreeing or raising variant (where the shared subjects agrees in phi-features (person, gender and number) with the matrix auxiliary and past participle), and b) the non-agreeing or control variant, where there is no agreement on the matrix predicate (which thus appears in default third person marking, in spite of the presence of a plural (or feminine) embedded subject).

What the data have shown is that, surprisingly, raising variants are the most pervasive and are not confined to typical raising/(passive) ECM verbs, being widely available with futurate verbs and from future irrealis complements, which have been analysed as tensed domains able to check case on embedded subjects, which should then not need to establish agreement with outside elements (such as matrix Tense). This, compounded with the robustness of infinitives in Romanian and the availability of hyper-raising, prompts us to look for another account for raising/agree instances, one that does not draw on the case requirements of the embedded subject, but instead on the need to check features on the matrix tense. The fact that these features can be checked only by raising/agree in the case of B-Verbs but also have a pro_{expl}-CP option (i.e., the non-agreeing variant) – besides the raising option – in the case of futurate verbs brings non-agreeing/control infinitives closer to finite CPs in similar distribution, such that the difference between raising and control infinitives seems to reside in the absence vs presence of phi-features on the infinitival clause.

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Endnotes

[1] http://corola.racai.ro/

[2] It is not clear whether *estimate* is a true or well-behaved ECM/raising verb, but expect does display ECM in English. Both may allow a future interpretation if this is a 'scheduling' one. i.e., if the embedded event can be scheduled

[3] The contribution of this *pro*expl is to provide the categorial D feature for securing the nominality of the subject. Thus, CPs provide *phi*-features and must form a chain with an expletive, which provides the D-feature and thus the chain satisfies feature requirements of the matrix T Probe

[4] This should apply both to subject control infinitives selected by passivized transitive verbs (the ones analysed here) and to those selected by copula+adjective

[5] (27) shows that CPs may be specified for phi-features, just like regular nominals. That is, CPs, too, can be nominal in nature (this is also visible in English, cf. *[That John left early] is/seems strange*). On the other hand, there are properties that distinguish nominal DPs from nominal (i.e., phi-endowed) CPs, such as lack of plural agreement with coordinate CPs (either finite or non-finite), vs coordinate DPs, which do trigger plural agreement with the verb.

Any Problems in Translation?

Mihaela Zamfirescu

Abstract: The aim of the present paper is to investigate the contexts in which *any* – polarity items and *Free Choice any* are allowed, and to see if the translation process would benefit if students in translation studies had knowledge of the fact that there are two types of *any* items. The question we would like to answer by the end of this paper is whether exposure to such information would diminish students' doubts when translating *any* sentences from English to Romanian.

1 Introduction

The aim of the present paper is to offer a brief presentation of PS-*any* and FC-*any* as put forward in numerous studies on the syntax and semantics of polarity items in order to highlight the importance of proper grammar knowledge when attempting to graduate a translation studies programme and to work as a translator. The purpose of the experimental study that we will present in this paper is to stress the importance of adequate syntactic descriptions in EFL classes, and to argue that students' lack of proper exposure to grammatical information is the very source of cases of ungrammaticality in the translation task that our second year students in translation studies have undertook.

2 Introductory notions on polarity sensitive *any* and Free Choice *any*

The word *any* has been at the heart of many studies and debates concerning its status and description. Many studies focused on the polarity sensitive *any,* an item which is sensitive to the polarity of the sentence, and whose occurrence is restricted to negative sentences or negative-like

sentences, as shown under (1) below where *any* and *either* are felicitously used in negative sentences but are ungrammatical in assertive contexts.

(1)   a.   Sylvia didn't finish *any* of the worksheets.
          b.   Sylvia didn't come *either*.
          c.   * Sylvia finished *any* of the worksheets.
          d.   * Sylvia came *either*.

Even though at times it seems there are regular correspondences between negative polarity items (NPIs) and positive polarity item[1] (PPIs), in case we are dealing with grammaticalized PIs, there is no negative or affirmative correspondent for a particular lexical polarity item, as shown in the table below.

Tabel 1. Grammaticalized and lexical polarity sensitive items

Grammaticalized PIs	
Negative	**Positive**
Any	Some
Yet	Already
Anymore	Still
Either	Too (also)
Lexical PIs	
Negative	**Positive**
Can't seem to	I'll be damned/ hanged if
Don't bother/ care to	Would rather
Not sleep a wink	Long since
Not give a fig/ damn/ red cent	

Not as many, but still a significant number of studies focused on contrasting polarity sensitive *any* to the Free Choice *any,* an item which is restricted from occurring in a great number of contexts where polarity item *any* is felicitously used. Free choice *any* is the item that has received this name as it is argued by several linguists to have universal quantificational force and to express indifference of choice. The following serves as an example of Free Choice *any.*

(2)   Anyone can solve such problems.

Since an important number of linguists argue that neither polarity sensitive *any* nor Free Choice *any* has been studied enough and that there are still empirical properties on which there has not been shed enough light, our aim is not to do justice to the domain and claim that we can list

all of their empirical properties, but to enumerate some of the contexts where they are felicitously used so as to help students differentiate between them and make a wise choice in the subsequent rendition of the sentences in their mother tongue.

2.1 NPI Licensing mechanisms

Throughout time, several accounts have been proposed for the licensing of polarity item *any* and this item's felicitous occurrence in different contexts was explained in terms of a syntactic relation, a semantic property or pragmatic inferences. With respect to syntactic accounts, broadly speaking, the syntactic relation that is thought to be at the core of the licensing system is the c-command relation, or in other words, an item must be in the immediate scope of a licensor as in (3a) where *any* is in the immediate scope of the negative adverb. By contrast, (3b) is not grammatical because the negative polarity item cannot be licensed across the clause boundary. That is, following Klima's (1964) proposal, *any* as a negative polarity item is not grammatical unless it is governed by negation.

(3)   a.   I don't like *any* of your friends.
         b.   *It's not normal that I have *anything* to say.

With respect to explanations based on a semantic property, broadly speaking, *any* items are licensed in contexts that facilitate inferences from sets to subsets. Contexts which license negative polarity items are said to bear a property that Ladusaw (1979) called downward-entailing property. Semantic accounts of polarity items made use of pragmatic scales and the notion of monotonicity[2]. As defined by Ladusaw (1979, 59-61) an expression X is in the scope of another expression Y (the c-command relation) if X denotes an argument to the function which Y denotes; any expression contained in X is also in the scope of Y. The following example clearly demonstrates that negation is an operator that bears the downward-entailing property as it is possible to license inferences from sets *vegetables* to subsets *broccoli*. In the example under (4) the negative polarity item *any* is legitimate as its occurrence is felicitous due to the presence of the negative operator *not,* which nevertheless bears the property of being downward-entailing.

(4)   Sylvia didn't eat vegetables for lunch. → Sylvia didn't eat any broccoli.

Sometimes it was the case that a type of negation was not visible, overt in the clause but yet something allowed for the presence of the negative polarity item. Among such cases one can enumerate the case of comparatives, questions or conditionals, to mention just a few, which license negative polarity items, as in the following examples.

(5)   a.   She passed with a better mark than *anyone* had expected.
        b.   Do you have *any* new books on nutrition?
        c.   If *anyone* asks about me, text me immediately.

Such cases were either explained by resorting to Ladusaw's (1979) downward-entailment property or by resorting to pragmatic explanations such as Linebarger's (1980), who argued that negation need not be actually visible in the sentence where the NPI occurs, but may be understood since a negative statement may be entailed by it. In the following example, *anything* gets licensed under (6a) because it is in the immediate scope of negation, which acts as a licensor. The example under (6b) is still correct and the negative polarity item gets licensed; even though no visible negation is present in the sentence, it generates the implicature under (6c). In (6c) we understand that even if Sylvia almost did not write anything she at least wrote a word.

(6)   a. Sylvia didn't write anything in class.
        b. Sylvia barely wrote anything in class.
        c. Sylvia almost did not write anything in class. (conventional implicature)

2.2 Veridicality

In an attempt to obtain a better description of the contexts that allow the presence of negative polarity items, Zwarts (1995) arrived at the conclusion that negative polarity items can be grouped in classes depending on the negative strength of the context that licenses them. In this hierarchy, classical negation *not* is the most restrictive type of negative context. Classical negation is an anti-morphic operator, licensing only a small number of polarity items. An operator Op is anti-morphic[3] if and only if Op(A) and Op(B) is equivalent to Op(A or B), and Op(A) or Op(B) is equivalent to Op(A and B). For example, *Sylvia did not eat at noon* and *Sylvia did not sleep at noon* is equivalent to *Sylvia did not eat or sleep at noon*; and *Sylvia did not eat at noon* or *Sylvia did not sleep at noon* is equivalent to *Sylvia did not (both) eat and sleep at noon* as in (7a, b)*. The following example shows that *nu* (not) is an anti-morphic operator in Romanian, in (8c, d).

(7)   a. Sylvia did not eat at noon and Sylvia did not sleep at noon. ↔
            Sylvia did not eat or sleep at noon.
         b. Sylvia did not eat at noon or Sylvia did not sleep at noon. ↔
            Sylvia did not (both) eat or sleep at noon.

In terms of the contexts' restrictiveness, next in line is the class of anti-additive operators, a class which is not as strong from the point of view of negative strength as the class of anti-morphic operators, to which classical negation belongs. Emblematic examples of anti-additive operators are: *refuse* and *without.* A function f is anti-additive if for all x, y such that f(x ∪ y) = f(x) ∩ f(y). In other words, *Sylvia refuses to eat or sleep* is equivalent to *Sylvia refuses to eat* and *Sylvia refuses to sleep*[4]. Imagine a young schoolboy and what his nanny would say:

(8)   Sylvia refuses to eat or sleep. ↔ Sylvia refuses to eat and Sylvia refuses to sleep.

Anti-additive contexts license a wider range of polarity items than anti-morphic contexts, and Zwarts (1995) argues that the conditions in this hierarchy are downwards applicable, which means, in other words, that if a polarity item is licensed by an anti-additive context then it is automatically licensed by an anti-morphic one as well.

Less restrictive in terms of negative strength are downward-entailing contexts, the ones that allow inferences from sets to subsets. Typical examples of downward-entailing operators are *few* and *at most.* In the following example, if the first sentence is true then the less specific sentence, which is entailed, is true as well.

(9)   a. Sylvia didn't eat any fish this week. → Sylvia didn't eat any trout this week.
         b. Few children eat fish. → Few children eat trout.

If an item is licensed by a downward-entailing context then it is by all means grammatical in an anti-additive and an anti-morphic context.

Starting with Giannakidou (1998) a new category of negative strength was described. The least restrictive category in terms of negative strength is the class of non-veridical operators. The truth of propositions, generated by the use of non-veridical operators, is neither asserted nor entailed. Typical examples of non-veridical contexts are: questions, imperatives and conditionals.[5]

(10)   a. *I have not talked to her* does not entail *I have talked to her.*
      b. *If she talked to him...* does not entail *she talked to him.*
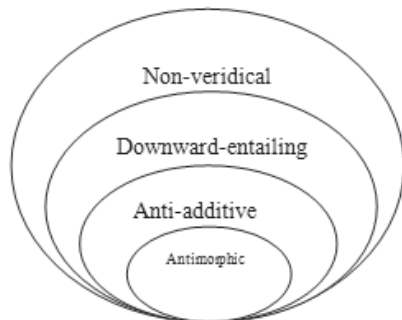
Figure 1. An extended version of Zwarts' (1995) hierarchy of negative strength, figure proposed by Hoeksema (2012)

      Assertive contexts are *veridical* which means that they *entail the truth of the proposition*, or in other words, we commit ourselves to the truth of the proposition expressed by the sentence. Syntactically negative contexts are *anti-veridical* which means that they entail the falsity of the proposition p. Nevertheless, we should keep in mind that there are sentences which entail neither the truth of the proposition nor its falsity, which express uncertainty, lack of commitment to the truth of the sentence and which we call *non-veridical*. (Non)veridicality for propositional operators as put forward by Giannakidou (2006, 589) is

"a. A propositional operator F is veridical iff Fp entails or presupposes that p is true in some individual's epistemic model ME(x); otherwise F is nonveridical.
b. A nonveridical operator F is ANTIveridical iff Fp entails that NOT p in some individual's epistemic model: Fp N ! p in some ME(x)[6]."

    Anti-veridical operators are a proper set of the non-veridical. Negation and *without* are anti-veridical operators that license strong NPIs. The following examples are examples of non-veridical contexts:

(11)
a. The conditional complementizer *if*, more generally hypothetical clauses, e.g. If *anybody* cancels, let me know as soon as possible.
b. The question complementizer (the Q/wh morpheme), introducing direct or indirect questions, e.g. Is there *anything* I can get you?

c. psychological-emotive verbs such as *surprise, amaze*, etc.); directive-attitude verbs: *want, insist, suggest, allow*), e.g. She's surprised that *anyone* had called to congratulate her. He's amazed that he recognizes *any* of his former colleagues.
d. quantifiers: *few, little, every,* only DP, quantifying adverbials: *whenever, wherever,* e.g. Few children have *any* shred of decency nowadays. Only Mary did *any* of the research.
e. incorporated negatives: *doubt, dislike, unlikely,* etc., e.g. We doubt that he respects *anyone*.
f. negative frequency adverbs: *seldom, rarely*, e.g. They have rarely met *anyone* like him.
g. *comparatives/superlatives,* etc., e.g. She's the smartest one that *anybody* knows.
h. relative clauses headed by indefinite or negative determiners like *any, no, every, a,* e.g. No teenager who has *any* sense would start taking drugs.

2.2.1 Distribution of *any*

The fact that *any* is a referentially deficient item and its interpretation is context dependent will be of great importance for the didactic purpose of the presentation.

2.2.1.1 Existential *any*

a. In negative sentences, and other anti-veridical contexts, *any* has the same interpretation as *no*, and basically has the same underlying structure, but such syntactic analysis is not the purpose of this paper. In the following sentences *any* is a *negative existential quantifier*.

(12)   a. She ate nothing.
          b. She didn't eat anything.
             ¬∃x [She ate x]
             (There is no X such that she ate X)

(13)   a. They saw nobody at the crime scene
          b. They didn't see anybody at the crime scene.
             ¬∃x [They saw x]
             (There is no X such that they saw X)

b. In episodic questions and other non-veridical contexts *any* continues to be existential, but it is the equivalent of *some*.

(14)   a. Did *anyone/someone* ring me, while I was out?
                ?∃x [x called, while I was out?]
          b. If *anybody/somebody* cancels, let me know as soon as possible.
                If ∃x [x cancels, let me know as soon as possible?]

2.2.1.2 Free choice *any*

Throughout time several accounts for the distribution of Free Choice *any* in English have been put forward but, to my knowledge, no consensus has been reached with respect to its analysis. There are proposals that analyze FC *any* as a universal and others that treat it as an indefinite. There is also the debate if English PI *any* and FC *any* are to be treated as two distinct items or if there is only one unitary understanding of the item. Before summarizing the main ideas of these two directions of analysis we shall enumerate the contexts that are most often discussed when investigating how FC *any* is licensed.

One of the claims that has often been put forward is that Free Choice *any* is allowed in generic sentences, as in (15a) but not in habitual ones, as in (15b), and Free Choice *any* is not grammatical in episodic sentences unless it is modified by an appropriate relative clause or another phrasal modifier as in the following examples under (15c, d):

(15)   a. Any lion eats meat.
          b. *Any of these lions eats meat.
          c. Sylvia played with any toy she found on the shelf.
          d. Sylvia played with any of the toys she found.

In modalized contexts, Free Choice *any* is acceptable in the domain of possibility modals, but is not grammatical in the domain of necessity modals when it takes a partitive, as in the example under (b).

(16)   a. Sylvia may play with any of these toys/ may play with any of the toys she finds.
          b. *Sylvia must read any of these books.

There insertion is not likely with FC *any* but very common with NPI *any*.

(17)   a. There isn't anyone home. (NPI)
          b. * There is anyone that can cook this dish. (FC)

Unfortunately, not all sentences are that straightforward and speakers correctly indicated that an example such as the following is ambiguous:

(18)   If *anyone* can move this stone, I'll be amazed. (Carlson 1981, 31)
          a. If there is a person who can move this stone, I'll be amazed.
          b. If every person can move this stone, I'll be amazed.

Dayal's (2009) is one of the proposals that argue in favour of an analysis of FC *any* as a universal, "whose domain of quantification is the set of possible individuals of the relevant kind, rather than a set of particular individuals" (Dayal 1998, 447). One other important claim that she makes is that *any* is appropriate only in contexts which provide vagueness[7] about the individuals assumed to have the relevant property. She makes an interesting point with respect to indeterminacy, namely that Free Choice *any* cannot be used to answer questions requiring full specification. The following examples are taken from Dayal (2009, 11-12). "The indeterminacy of FC any is strong in the sense that the identity of the relevant set is not known to the speaker, because it is, in principle, not knowable: the set varies across worlds." (Dayal 2009, 13)

(19)   Speaker A: Which books did Bill read?
         Speaker B: He read any book he found.
         Speaker A: Yes, but I want to know exactly which books.
         Speaker B: Oh, I couldn't tell you exactly which ones.

(20)   Who would like dessert?
         #Anyone would like dessert.

One of Dayal's (1998) main arguments for interpreting FC *any* as a universal is the fact that it allows modification by adverbs like *almost,* in sentences such as the ones in the following example.

(21)   a. Absolutely any of the children can win the competition. (FC)
         b. Can absolutely anyone wait backstage? (FC)
         c. I can cook any of these dishes. (FC)
         d. Can she bring any of her CDs? (FC)
         e. * He didn't find absolutely any of the pens. (NPI)
         f. * If absolutely anybody enters, show them out. (NPI)
         g.* They didn't bring almost any umbrellas. (NPI)
         h. * Did you see almost any of the stars? (NPI)

Giannakidou (2001) is among the ones who claim that this type of test does not necessarily guarantee the success of the universality reading proposal. In an example such as the following one, Giannakidou (2001, 23) argues that *almost* has a neutral, mathematical reading of 'rounding-up to' and it allows for the inference that one dollar is enough, which in Lee and Horn's (1994) account means that *any* is associated with high scalar values, and that even low scalar values can be read as high, if such an inference is facilitated by the context.

(22)   A local phone call from the hotel room costs almost one dollar! (Giannakidou 2001, 23)

"Sentences like the above suggest that the prerequisite for *almost* modification is some kind of implicated plurality rather than universality." (Giannakidou 2001, 24).

Lee and Horn (1994) argue that the NPI *any* is an existential, while FC *any* is a generic indefinite, and that these interpretations are visible whenever we associate *any* with *a,* as in the following examples.

(23)   a. Sylvia didn't buy any lollipop.
          Sylvia didn't buy a lollipop.
          ¬∃x(x:lollipop) (Sylvia bought x)
          There is no x, where x is a lollipop, such that Sylvia bought x. (!! X does not exist)
        b. Any lollipop doesn't have two sticks.
          A lollipop doesn't have two sticks.
          ∀x(x:lollipop)¬(x has two sticks)
          Whatever x you look at, where x is a lollipop, it is not the case that x has two sticks (!! x exists)

What the previous sentences demonstrate is that whenever they occur in negative sentences and are interpreted existentially, as in (23a), both *any CN* (Common Noun) and *a CN* take narrow scope with respect to negation, but when they occur in sentences such as the ones in (23b), they are interpreted generically and the indefinite article and *any* take wide scope with respect to negation. Lee and Horn's (1994) proposal for the analysis of *any* is summarized by Sohng (2014, 144) in the following table.

Table 2. Lee and Horn's (1994) analysis of *any* as summarized in Sohng (2014, 144)

	NPI *any*	**FC *any***
Paraphrases	*Even a single/ the least bit*	*Even + superlative*
Scale projected	quantity	kind

"Lee and Horn assume two types of scales for sentences with any: (1) a quantity scale and (2) a kind scale" (Sohng 2014, 144), as illustrated by Sohng with the help of the examples presented under (24) and (25) below.

(24)   a. Elements on the scale: quantity of CN, e.g. a boy, two boys, etc.
         b. The low end: the quantity of CN for which the proposition schema P is
         likely to hold = the minimum quantity CN, e.g. a boy

(25)   a. Elements on the scale: kind of CN, e.g. the most delicious food, the
         most awful food, etc. in their generic or "quantificational" sense
         (crucially not in their referential sense)
         b. The low end: the kind of CN for which the proposition schema P is
         least likely to hold (Sohng 2014, 144)

Taking into consideration the previously mentioned proposal, a
sentence as in (26a), uttered by a receptionist, can be paraphrased as in
(26b). As previously mentioned, *any* is interpreted as a negative polarity
item, it has got an existential reading and is equivalent to *no.* In sentences
where the common noun is a mass noun, as in (26c) the paraphrase would
be that under (26d).

(26)   a. 'There isn't any room available for that period, I'm afraid' said the
         receptionist.
         b. 'There isn't even a single room available for that period, I'm afraid'
         said the receptionist.
         c. 'There isn't any duck meat left, I'm afraid' said the waiter.
         d. 'There isn't even the least bit of duck meat left, I'm afraid' said the
         waiter.

Free choice *any* in (27a) can be paraphrased as in (27b), by
employing *even,* if the context allows it, plus a superlative.

(27)   a.   Any chocolate is fine, if you ask Sylvia.
         b.   Even the blandest chocolate is fine, if you ask Sylvia.

Even if Lee and Horn's (1994) proposal is not one hundred percent
productive, as the following example shows, I believe that their proposal is
worth being mentioned in class as it can save students a lot of trouble,
even if some of the paraphrases might seem a little far-fetched. In the
following imperative, an environment typical for Free Choice *any,* the
even + superlative paraphrase might sound unconvincing to many native
speakers.

(28)   Press any key to continue. = ? Press even the smallest key to continue.

One of the main arguments in Lee and Horn's (1994) paper that FC
any is not to be treated as having universal reading is that *any,* just like

indefinites, can be bound by an operator, which is not the case of a universal.

(29)   a. If a farmer owns a donkey, he beats it.
         b. If any farmer owns a donkey, he beats it.
         c. *If every farmer owns a donkey, he beats it.

Giannakidou (2001) argues that if the universal interpretation were to be true then it would be impossible for *any* to manifest properties characteristic to indefinites.

(30)   a. Any children, no matter their age, should visit their relatives.
         b. Any teacher must be out celebrating, school's over.

As a counterargument to Dayal (1998), Giannakidou (2001) claims that it is not the case that the Free Choice has universal reading in examples with epistemic necessity and deontic necessity. It is the modal operator that functions as a quantifier with a universal reading, and that is why we obtain a universal reading of the FC *any*.

Giannakidou (2001) argues in favour of an analysis of Free Choice *any* as an indefinite with a quasi-universal reading whose occurrence is limited to non-veridical and non-episodic contexts. She claims that *any* is grammatical only in contexts providing alternatives (worlds or situations), and non-veridical contexts cover the environment satisfying that condition. Conversely, Free Choice *any* is excluded from episodic sentences as such sentences provide no alternatives. In the following examples, Free Choice *any* is grammatical in the example under (a) where modalized contexts denoting possibility are non-veridical, but, by contrast, Free Choice *any* is excluded from episodic sentences as in (b).

(31)   a. Any child can do that type of flip.
            $\forall x(x{:}child)$ (x can do that type of flip)
         b. *Yesterday, Sylvia talked to anybody.

As a generalization and based on the interpretation of Free Choice *any* Giannakidou (2001) proposes as a rule that:

"A FCI α is grammatical in a sentence S iff:
(i)   α is in the scope of a nonveridical operator β; and
(ii)   S is not episodic." (apud Sohng 2014, 149)

Free Choice Items, *any* included, are described by Giannakidou (2001) as intensional[8], meaning that they feature a world-dependent variable that must be bound by an operator and cannot be free. Such an operator is the Q-operator, i.e. a generic, habitual, modal, intensional operator. The Free Choice determiner must combine with an intensional NP and not an extensional one:

> "The basic idea will be that FCIs are intensional indefinites that can be interpreted in a sentence only if the sentence provides possible worlds which can serve as identity alternatives inducing variation. Nonveridical sentences (modal, generic, habitual, etc.) are such cases. Veridical and episodic sentences, on the other hand, do not provide the kind of alternatives needed for the interpretation of FCIs, hence FCIs are ruled out." (Giannakidou 2001, 7)

Dayal (2009) brings as counterargument to Giannakidou's (2001) proposal the following examples where Free Choice *any* is acceptable in negative episodic sentences if the universal takes scope over negation, and if we assume a special intonation or in the domain of the adverb *just,* as in the following example.

(32)   a. Sylvia didn't read any book.
         b. Sylvia didn't *just* read any book, she read *The Diary of a Wimpy Kid.*

The $\neg\forall$ reading is improved by special intonation, as in the following examples, where Free Choice *any* is linked to the indefinite *any.*

(33)   a. Sylvia played with a toy, not just any toy.
         b. To pass to the next level in this game, press any key, any of these keys.

Some other examples might be problematic for the analysis proposed by Giannakidou (2001) because there are contexts that are not nonveridical and that nevertheless license the occurrence of *any.*

(34)   a. Exactly three families had any desire to help the evicted family.
         b. You'll be glad you went on any of those trips.
         c. Only Sylvia had any shred of regret for what had happened.

All of the analyses presented in this section make important claims about the type of contexts where NPI *any* and FC *any* are licensed and, in spite of the fact that there is no consensus if we should have a unitary analysis of *any* or not and if FC *any* is a universal or not, what counts for

our didactic purposes is that both NPI and FC *any* are licensed in nonveridical contexts, and FC *any* is more likely to occur if the licensing context has an appropriate modal or generic meaning.

3 Experiment *Any* – items in translation

The aim of the present section is to present the results we obtained in a translation experiment we conducted with second year students of the Translation and Interpretation study programme at the Faculty of Foreign Languages and Literatures of the University of Bucharest. Given that the students had already studied negation in their syntax classes we were curious to see how aware they were of the phenomenon of polarity sensitivity, to test whether they had difficulties in translating sentences with *any* – items, to see if syntactic knowledge on the topic might improve their performance.

Prior to presenting the sentences and their translations, it is worth mentioning that Fălăuş (2008) investigates the status of *vreun* in Romanian and starts her analysis by saying that, when asked to give an equivalent for a sentence like *I don't have any dream that has come true,* a Romanian speaker has two options for the NPI *any,* either the n-word *niciun* or the determiner *vreun* (Fălăuş 2008, 5).

(35)   I don't have any dream that has come true. (Fălăuş 2008, 5)

Nu	am	niciun	vis	care	să	se	fi
împlinit.							
NEG	have.1.sg.	no	dream	which	SUBJ	REFL	be
fulfilled							
Nu	am	vreun	vis	care	să	se	fi
împlinit.							
NEG	have.1.sg.	vreun dream		which	SUBJ	REFL	be
fulfilled							

Although a detailed analysis of *vreun* goes beyond the aim of this paper, it is useful to state that Fălăuş (2008) concludes that *vreun* is an NPI/FC existential: "As an alternative-introducing element, it can only be successfully used in negative contexts where it leads to a strengthened meaning." (Fălăuş 2008, 17-18)

3.1 Design of the experiment

We asked the 20 second-year students in Translation and Interpretation Studies, at the Faculty of Foreign Languages, English

Major, to perform a two-stage task. First they had to translate random sentences with *any* - items and then they were asked to label the *any*-item in the sentences as having an existential or a universal interpretation. We had no priming session anterior to the task because we wanted to see whether the knowledge they had acquired over the years as speakers of English as a second language is sufficient in a translation task. It is important to stress that textbooks barely cover *some* and *any* in chapters about quantifiers, and their general description is that *some* is only allowed in positive statements while its counterpart *any* can only be used in negative and interrogative sentences. Obviously, such explanations are neither entirely correct nor sufficient given the wide array of contexts that allow polarity sensitive items and keeping in mind that they are students in translation and interpretation not just any users of English as a second language. It is hoped that proper exposure to syntax will make students improve when translating.

Out of the 29 sentences they had to translate and interpret we only selected the ones that seemed most interesting for our translation purpose.

(36)
I doubt that anyone understands anything in this class.
Mă îndoiesc că cineva   înţelege   ceva   la acest curs.
Me doubt that someone understands   something at this class
Mă îndoiesc   că   cineva   nu înţelege   nimic   la acest curs.
Me doubt that   someone not   understand   nothing at this   class
Bănuiesc   că   nimeni   nu   înţelege nimic   la acest curs.
Suppose.1.sg.   that   nobody   not   understand   nothing   at this class
Mă   îndoiesc că   există   cineva   care să   înţeleagă ceva la acest curs.
Me   doubt   that   exist   someone who SUBJ   understand something at this class

The context is non-veridical, in the previous example, given the use of the verb that incorporated negation – *doubt.* The reading of the sentence is existential and three of the students felicitously captured this in their translation by expanding the structure when translating and introducing *I doubt that there is*

One of the students adequately replaced the verb that incorporates negation by another verb that shows doubt, namely *suppose.* In such case the translator appropriately employed N-words and sentential negation, an anti-veridical context where only negative existential NPIs are allowed.

　　　　Unfortunately, there is an instance where the translator provided an ungrammatical solution. The use of the anti-veridical context in the subordinate clause along with the N-word is perfectly fine, but the sentence crashes because *cineva* in the matrix clause can only have a definite reading in this case, equivalent to *someone* and its use is ungrammatical in the scope of a verb that incorporates negation without the use of a further positive context as in *I doubt that there is someone who wants to buy such a wreck of a car.*

　　　　Vreun – vreo are attested as existential NPIs and could be used along with a partitive construction, something similar to the English *any of the students,* thus expanding the rendition, but aiming for efficiency our students resorted to using *cineva* which is not to be ruled out as a solution since *any* in non-veridical contexts pairs up with *some.*

(37)
It's unlikely that he will do anything/something to help.

Este puțin probabil ca		el să		facă	ceva		să ajute.
Is	little likely SUBJ	that	he SUBJ	do	something		help.
Este	puțin probabil	ca	el să	facă	orice/ ceva		să ajute.
Is	little likely	that	he SUBJ	do	anything/something		SUBJ help.
Nu	este posibil	ca	el să	facă	ceva		să ajute.
Not	is possibl SUBJ	that	he SUBJ	do	something		help.
Este ajute	puțin probabil	ca	el să	facă	tot ce poate/ ceva	să	
Is something	little likely	that	he SUBJ do		everything SUBJ	what can/	help.
Nu	cred	că	el va	face	ceva		să ajute.
Not	think	that	he will dosomething			SUBJ	help.

　　　　In all of the previous sentences the translators failed to translate both polarity items and apparently treated them as synonymous and thus provided as translation only *ceva,* which, to my mind, qualifies as a grammatical translation of *something.* Unfortunately, there was no attempt to capture the flavour of the sentence that employs *anyone,* by suggesting something like *Probabil ca nu va face nimic să ajute.* Two of the translators proposed *orice* and *tot ce poate* as possible renditions of *anyone,* but such options are to be dismissed as they lean towards the

universal reading of *any,* the FC *any.* The non-veridical context obtained by the use of the adjective that incorporates negation is an environment that favours existential readings and not universal ones.

Unfortunately, one of the translators proposed *nu este posibil – it is not possible* as a good rendition of *it is unlikely,* which is clearly on the wrong track as the two modalized expressions are not synonymous.

(38)
He left without anyone noticing it.

A	plecat	fără	ca	oricine		să	observe.
Has	left	without	that	anyone		SUBJ	notice.
A	plecat	fără	ca	cineva		să	observe.
Has	left	without		that	someone	SUBJ	notice.
A	plecat	fără		să		observe	nimeni.
Has	left	without		SUBJ		notice	nobody.
A	plecat	fără		ca	nimeni să		observe.
Has	left	without		that	nobody SUBJ		notice.

In the previous example *without* is a preposition that makes the context anti-veridical and thus any use of the FC *any* is banned. The use of *oricine,* FC *any,* is ungrammatical in the rendition of the sentence. Only four of the translators employed an N-word in the translation thus capturing the existential reading of the sentence. Most of the translators again resorted to the use of *cineva* as a rendition for *anyone* which, to my mind, again, could be interpreted also on a definite/ + specific reading, given its preverbal position in the rendition and what strikes me again is that *vreun* and *nimeni,* the existential NPI and the n-word, lose ground to *cineva.*

(39)
I'll read it out loud, unless anyone objects to it.

Voi	citi	cu	voce tare dacă	nu este	nimeni împotrivă.
Will	read	with	voice loud if	not is	nobody against.
Voi	citi	cu	voce tare asta dacă nu se opune nimeni/ dacă nu obiectează nimeni.
Will	read	with	voice loud	this if	not SE oppose nobody/ if not nobody object.

Voi	citi	cu	voce tare	dacă nu cumva	cineva	se opune.
Will	read	with	voice loud	if not somehow	someone	SE oppose.
Voi	citi	cu	voce tare dacă	nu are	cineva ceva împotrivă.
Will	read	with	voice loud if	not has	somebody something against.
Voi	citi	cu	voce tare asta dacă	nu se	opune cineva.
Will	read	with	voice loud this if	not SE	oppose someone.

In the previous example we notice that approximately half of the students resorted to a translation employing *cineva – ceva* to the detriment of *nimeni – nimic,* which are more conducive to the existential reading of the NPI than *cineva – ceva,* which, again, to my mind, might also allow for a definite/ + specific reading, especially if they are in preverbal position.

4 Conclusions

Instead of concluding the present paper with a straight answer to why students resorted more to the use of *cineva* than to the use of *vreun* or *nimeni,* we will make one last point, which is that Baker (2018, 4) argues that if the negative polarity item *any* is used in an example as the following, "the only available reading is one on which the negative polarity item takes narrow scope relative to the conditional", dismissing the wide reading of *any.*

(40)   If any relative of mine dies, I'll inherit a fortune.
          Narrow, if > any: If even one relative dies, I inherit. (Baker 2018, 3)
          Wide, any > if: There is a relative x such that if x dies, I inherit.

Of future interest will be to see if Baker's (2018) proposal can be imported to an analysis of renditions such as the previously mentioned ones. Would it be possible to say that *vreun/vreo* in Romanian have narrow reading while *cineva – ceva* should have the wide reading? Would it be possible to postulate an explanation in terms of extensional reading of *cineva – ceva,* which presuppose making a choice from a group and an explanation in terms of intensional reading of *vreun/vreo* where we need to construe several possible worlds as a domain of investigation.

As future directions for our investigation we also need to see if the syntactic treatment of *any* and our understanding of its meaning do influence translations from one language into another. We also need to further investigate if NPI *any* and FC *any* are one and the same item or two separate items, and we also need to find an explanation as to why the existential NPI *vreun/vreo* loses significant ground to *cineva – ceva.*

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Endnotes

[1] Positive polarity items are those items whose occurrence is restricted to affirmative contexts.

[2] *Monotone decreasing:* A function f is monotonically decreasing with respect to a particular argument iff it reverses the partial ordering in its domain. That is, if X, Y, are in the domain of f and $X \leq Y$, then $f(Y) \leq f(X)$, 'not' is downward monotonic and not upward monotonic.

(1)   John didn't meet his relatives. → John didn't meet his mother's brother.
          John didn't meet his mother's brother./→ John didn't meet his relatives.

[3] See van der Wouden (1997) where anti-morphic is treated as $f(X \cap Y) = f(X) \cup f(Y)$.

[4] See van der Wouden (1997): Anti-additive $f(X \cup Y) = f(X) \cap f(Y)$ – *nobody, never, nothing.*

[5] The formal definition of veridicality views the context as a propositional operator. By veridicality we understand the *truth of a proposition in a situation or in a context.*

a.   A propositional operator F is veridical iff Fp entails p: Fp → p; otherwise F is nonveridical.

b.   Additionally, a nonveridical operator F is antiveridical iff Fp entails not p: Fp → ¬p. (Giannakidou, 1998)

In other words, a non-veridical operator F is anti-veridical iff whenever Fp is true, p is not true.

[6] "For α believes that p to be true, it must be the case that α, the main clause subject, is committed to the truth of the embedded proposition p. Though the speaker might disagree, a prerequisite for p to be true in (48) is that Jacob's epistemic model (i.e. the set of worlds compatible with what Jacob believes) be a subset of the worlds where p is true: ME(Jacob) ⊆ p. The speaker may believe or even know that what Jacob believes is false, but this is irrelevant for Jacob's beliefs.

(2)   [[Jacob believes that Ariadne loves Paul]] c = 1 iff
          ∀w [w ∈ ME(Jacob) → w ∈ λw'. Ariadne loves Paulin w']"
(Giannakidou 2011, 1678)

[7] "*Contextual Vagueness*: *any* is only appropriate in contexts where the speaker cannot identify the individual or individuals who verify *p*." (Dayal 1998, 463)

[8] Montague's grammar employed for syntactic analysis of English strings of words is made up of categories that are made up of words and phrases and rules for combining those words and phrases in order to obtain larger meaningful chunks and then sentences. A sentence like *Every man seeks a loving woman* can be read in three different ways. There's the intensional reading and two extensional readings. The intensional reading allows for building a possible world where every man is seeking something that satisfies his own image of *a loving woman,* in other

words, in this possible world the image that he projects of what a loving woman is has a direct correspondent in that world. In one of the extensional readings we understand that each man is seeking for a direct correspondent to his own projection of a loving woman. In the other intensional reading we understand that all men are searching for the same loving woman.

PRONOUN RESOLUTION AND THE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE IT

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Abstract: This paper is concerned with the intersentential factors that play a role in pronoun resolution from the perspective of interpretation. Five of the most discussed factors that have been shown to contribute to the prominence of referents will be reviewed, namely givenness, distance, syntactic function, thematic roles and animacy. Additionally, we present evidence from the literature that the causality implicit in verbs has also an impact upon the prominence of a referent in terms of likelihood of subsequent pronominalization.

Keywords: reference, prominence, referential choice, pronominalization.

1 Introduction

Verbal communication is a complex phenomenon and one of its central aims is to achieve coherence. Coherence in discourse can be established by different means, such as discourse relations, conjunctions, and discourse markers. Referring and keeping track of the entities introduced in the discourse world is another means to achieve coherence. Entities introduced in the text are referred to as discourse referents within the discourse representation (Karttunen 1969). Languages employ different types of referring expressions to keep track of referents, which are ordered from lexically elaborated forms to less specified ones (e.g. Ariel 1990, Gundel et al. 1993).

One common way to continue talking about a discourse referent is to refer back to it by means of a pronoun. The process of pronoun resolution is concerned with the correct identification of the antecedent of a pronominal anaphor in a given discourse. Pronoun resolution is an important yet very challenging subpart of the more general task of coreference. Consider a sentence like *She won the singles title*, in which the personal pronoun could refer back to any human feminine singular referent that won a singles title. On its own, the personal pronoun is

underinformative, and does not provide enough lexical information to identify the intended referent. Thus, the correct interpretation of pronouns involves a mechanism of narrowing down the set of potential antecedent referents and the unique identification of the intended referent. Similarly, the process of pronoun production involves a mechanism of reference planning, such that the listener is able to identify the intended referent. Despite the complexity of such mechanisms, we encounter 'underspecified' forms very frequently in both written and spoken language, and are able to interpret them without difficulties. The correct resolution of the antecedents of pronouns is an important task also for natural language processing tasks, such as text summarization or information retrieval, but also for understanding referential choices in patients with different pathologies, such as Alzheimer's disease or Schizophrenia.

This paper is concerned with the intersentential factors that play a role in pronoun resolution from the perspective of interpretation. That means, given a pronoun, how do comprehenders know which entities to exclude and which to treat as possible referents? We will review the main factors that have been proposed in the literature to account for pronoun resolution in discourse. The factors that contribute to referent production might be different and will not be discussed at this point. Furthermore, due to space limitations, the discussions will mainly focus on data from English. Note, however, that languages employ a large repertoire of different types of referring expressions and that pronoun use is only one of several choices speakers have for establishing coreference in discourse.

As for its structure, the paper will include a section dedicated to the discussion of the notions of accessibility, salience and prominence, as they have been associated with different referents. Next, the five main factors that have been shown to contribute to the prominence of referents will be discussed, namely givenness, distance, syntactic function, thematic roles and animacy. The third section is focused on an additional factor, implicit causality, which has been discussed more recently in connection with pronoun resolution. We will present evidence that this factor has an impact upon the prominence of a referent in terms of its likelihood of pronominalization. The general discussion and several directions for further research are presented in the last section of the paper.

2 Pronoun resolution and referential prominence

Referential expressions are used to introduce and continue reference to entities with particular referential properties, but also with discourse properties such as an activation level that affects their accessibility for

reference with subsequent anaphoric expressions.

It is difficult to discuss pronoun resolution bypassing the literature on prominence. Intuitively, the notion of prominence is used in linguistics to refer to entities that are more important or highlighted in a particular context. The notion of prominence is often used as a partial synonym with other terms, such as activation (Chafe 1976), salience (Arnold 1998), accessibility (Ariel 1990) or givenness (Gundel et al. 1993), and is used in close relation to notions such as familiarity, information status (Prince 1981) and topicality (Givón 1983). In this paper, we will employ the notion of prominence used in Chiriacescu (2011a, 2011b) and later defined by Himmelmann and Primus (2015) as a structure-building principle in all areas of grammar of natural languages. According to this view, prominence is relational, dynamic, and attracts different linguistic operations. For a discussion of prominence applied to several areas of grammar, see Jasinskaja et al. (2015) and, more recently, von Heusinger and Schumacher (2019) on prominence in discourse.

In communication, speakers do not randomly switch between different types of referring expressions in a text. Rather, they choose from among many different types of referring expressions the expression that best reflects the cognitive status associated to the intended referent (Prince 1981, Ariel 1990, Gundel et al. 1993). Moreover, different types of referring expressions are ranked on a scale according to their associated cognitive status, ranging from high activation to low activation. The general consensus is that referents that are highly activated or accessible in the minds of interlocutors do not need much lexical material to be picked up, whereas less activated and accessible referents need lexically more elaborated types of referring expressions to be mentioned. Accordingly, in example (1), comprehenders will more readily interpret the personal pronoun *he* as referring to *Paul*, since the referent associated to *Paul* is highly activated and accessible by virtue of being the first-mentioned referent and as it appears in subject position.

(1) Two years ago, Paul met for a drink with Ron. He ordered a beer.

The focus of this paper is the so-called "prominence-lending cues" (Himmelmann and Primus 2015) that interact in guiding the prominence of a referent. The discussion will follow the arguments presented in the literature, which focus on pronoun resolution, as pronouns in English have been thought of as reflecting the highest amount of prominence and have been used as the testing ground for the most prominent referents (Ariel 1990, Gundel et al. 1993). In the following, we will review five discourse factors usually mentioned in the literature on pronoun resolution when

discussing the prominence of a referent, namely givenness, distance, syntactic prominence, semantic prominence and animacy. These factors most often refer to textual information that holds between two adjacent sentences rather than intrasententially.

2.1 Givenness or old information

In the process of referring, speakers may employ different types of referring expressions to refer to entities, and the choice of one expression over the other has been linked to accessibility or prominence. A wealth of research has been dedicated to the investigation of those factors that contribute to the identification of the most prominent referent. A first factor that has been shown to affect the prominence of a referent is givenness. For Chafe (1976, 30), given information is that amount of knowledge "which the speaker assumes to be in the consciousness of the addressee at the time of the utterance", while new information is defined as "what the speaker assumes he is introducing into the addressee's consciousness by what he says". Other descriptions of the given-new contrast rely on notions such as assumed familiarity (Prince 1981) or shared knowledge. The general consensus is that more elaborated types of referring expressions (e.g. definite modified noun phrases) are used for hearer-new or discourse-new entities, whereas less elaborated types of referring expressions (e.g. personal pronouns) are preferred for hearer-old, discourse-old or given information (Chafe 1976, Prince 1981, Greene et al. 1992). For an illustration, consider the sentence presented in (2), in which the indefinite noun phrase *a woman* and the personal pronoun *she* underline this contrast.

(2) A woman$_1$ entered the restaurant and sat down at a table. The chandelier and the cosy atmosphere enthralled her$_1$.

The human referent is introduced by means of the indefinite noun phrase, as it represents hearer and discourse new information, whereas subsequent mentions of the woman are possible with less elaborated types of referring expressions, like pronouns.

A more thorough inspection of the factors that contribute to reference resolution reveals that givenness provides only a superficial insight into the way people refer. Whether a discourse entity was explicitly mentioned in the previous discourse or not is neither sufficient nor necessary to describe the contrast between highly prominent and less prominent information. In the example given in (3), two human referents are introduced in the first sentence by means of proper names, representing

hearer and discourse old information. Nevertheless, in the next sentence, the same referents are rementioned by means of a pronoun and a definite modified noun phrase, respectively.

(3)   Ron$_1$ went to the local coffee shop and saw Anna$_2$. He$_1$ was enthralled to meet his former classmate$_2$.

Even though both referents were mentioned in the same way in the discourse, only the first referent is picked up in the following sentence by a pronoun. It thus seems that some referents are more prone to be mentioned with lexically reduced types of referring expressions, while other referents need more lexical material to be subsequently mentioned. It seems that the likelihood of pronominalization is not only influenced by givenness, but that it is sensitive to other factors as well.

2.2 Distance

Clause recency or the distance between an anaphor and its antecedent has been shown to have an impact upon reference resolution as well. Recency of mention can be determined by adding up the sentences between two mentions of the same referent. It has been observed that the more sentences separate the anaphoric expression from its antecedent, the less prominent the referent in question is. Conversely, if the antecedent expression is only two or three sentences to the left of the anaphoric expression, the referent is equipped with a higher degree of prominence (Givón 1983, Gernsbacher and Shroyer 1989). Highly prominent are those referents that are rementioned in the next adjacent sentence. Again, recently mentioned referents that enjoy high prominence tend to be pronominalized. For an illustration, consider example (4), in which two referents are introduced in the first sentence, *Ron* and *a woman*. Recency of mention affects the referential form used to refer back to the second referent. In sentence (4a), the referent associated to the *woman* is mentioned again in the immediately following sentence, thus a pronoun can be felicitously used to refer back to her.

(4a)   Ron$_1$ met a woman$_2$ at the seaside. He$_1$ invited her$_2$ to dinner that night.
(4b)   Ron$_1$ met a woman$_2$ at the seaside. He$_1$ was so enthusiastic that it was warm outside. This was almost perfection, he$_1$ thought, and was grateful for being able to spend another summer in this warm safe place, separated from the insanity of his hometown. Without hesitation, he invited her$_2$/ the newly encountered woman$_2$ to dinner.

In (4b), several sentences intervene between the two co-referential expressions of *a woman*. While a personal pronoun used to pick up the referent introduced by an indefinite noun phrase would seem odd, the definite modified noun phrase *the newly encountered woman* seems to be more appropriate in this position. Besides givenness and recency of mention, other factors guide pronoun resolution as well.

2.3 Syntactic function

Another factor that plays an important role in reference resolution is information related to grammatical role. A large body of cross-linguistic research indicates a close connection between the syntactic function of a referent and its likelihood of subsequent pronominalization. Specifically, researchers showed that arguments encoded in grammatical subject position tend to be perceived as more prominent than arguments realized as direct objects or obliques (Sheldon 1974, Brennan et al. 1987, Gordon et al. 1993, Lambrecht 1994, Smyth and Chambers 1996). Pronoun resolution has been, again, used as a central diagnostic for the influence of syntactic function on the prominence of a referent. Results showed that an ambiguous pronoun is more readily interpreted as referring back to the grammatical subject of the preceding sentence, than to other referents realized in other syntactic functions, as illustrated in (1) above. Supporting evidence for the subject-preference account comes from the psycholinguistic and computational linguistics literature as well. For example, Frederiksen (1981) found that reading times for sentences starting with pronouns were faster when the pronoun referred to the preceding subject than to the object. Crawley et al. (1990) observed a similar preference and Givón (1983) showed that subjects are rementioned more often than referents realized in other syntactic positions. The special role played by subjecthood has been underlined most forcefully in the literature based on Centering Theory considerations (Gordon et al. 1993), a computational model of centering and discourse coherence. Other syntactic constructions that affect the type of referring expression are topic position in languages like Japanese (Walker et al. 1998) and the focus of clefts (Arnold 1998).

Another interesting observation pertains to the preference of a pronoun to be coreferring with a noun phrase with the same grammatical role. Results showed that the interpretation of a pronoun is facilitated if its co-referential antecedent is found in the same syntactic parallel position (Sheldon 1974, Gordon et al. 1993, Smyth and Chambers 1996, Kehler 2002). For instance, in example (5) below, the ambiguous personal

pronoun *her* is preferentially interpreted as co-referential with *Jessie* instead of *Lara*.

(5) Jessie gave Lara the shirt and Mike passed her the scissors.

Furthermore, research in the field (Gernsbacher and Shroyer 1989, Gordon et al. 1993, McDonald and MacWhinney 1995) has argued that it is not only the grammatical position of referents which influences their prominence in terms of likelihood of pronominalization, but that the linear order of mention impacts the type of referring expression used as well. By separating grammatical role from order of mention, research has shown that both syntactic function and linear order of mention play a role in pronoun resolution.

2.4 Thematic roles

Thematic roles have been an important notion in linguistics and recent investigations into pronoun resolution have shown that they can also be linked to the prominence of a referent (Stevenson et al. 1994, McDonald and MacWhinney 1995, Arnold 1998, 2001, Kehler 2002, Kehler et al. 2008). In English, however, the effects of semantic prominence and syntactic prominence on pronoun resolution are not easily attestable, as the two types of information are often conflated. That is, a referent realized as the grammatical subject is often the semantic Agent and thus bears more proto-Agent properties (e.g. sentience, volition) and a referent realized as the syntactic object is realized as the semantic Patient and bears proto-Patient properties, such as affectedness. Despite the difficulty to tease these two types of information apart, some researchers have looked beyond transitive sentences with an Agent-Patient structure. For example, Stevenson et al. (1994) conducted several story completion experiments and used transitive sentences with transfer of possession verbs, in which the thematic roles Source and Goal are realized. Participants were given story fragment passages like in (6a) and (6b), which ended in a pronoun prompt and were asked to add a continuation sentence to each story.

(6a)   Goal-Source: Ellie took the cat from Mia. She_____
(6b)   Source-Goal: Ellie passed the salt to Mia. She_____

Each experimental item introduced to same-gender referents towards which the pronoun in the second sentence was ambiguous. Moreover, they manipulated the syntactic position and the grammatical

role of the referents, such that the subject referent was realized as the semantic Goal in one condition (6a) and as the semantic Source in the second condition (6b). Findings reveal that the stories were continued with the pronoun *she* referring to *Ellie* rather than *Mia* in (6a), as *Ellie* is not only the subject referent, but also bears the thematic role Goal. On the contrary, participants interpreted the pronoun *she* as referring to the non-subject Goal *Mia* in sentence (5b). All in all, Stevenson et al.'s (1994) study showed that the prominence of a referent is influenced by its thematic role in addition to its syntactic position.

2.5 Animacy

Besides the prominence-lending factors mentioned above, there is evidence in the literature that animacy and gender affect pronoun processing as well. Consider examples (7a)-(7c) below, in which two referents are introduced.

(7a) Tom_1 saw a man_2 when $he_{1/?2}$_____
(7b) Tom_1 saw a $woman_2$ when she_2_____
(7c) Tom_1 saw a $vase_2$ when it_2_____

While the referents in (7a) and (7b) are associated to human referents, the referents in (7c) differ in terms of animacy, as only the subject referent points to a human referent. The referents in direct object position in (7a) and (7b) differ in that they either match the gender of the subject referent (7a), or not (7b). If a personal pronoun is used to pick up the direct object referents in a continuation sentence, like in the sentences given in (7), it should be more easily interpreted in (7b) and (7c). A personal pronoun used in a second sentence in (7a) would be ambiguous between a subject interpretation and an object interpretation. In contrast, due to the difference in animacy and gender between the subject and object referents in (7b) and (7c), a personal pronoun would non-ambiguously point to one of the two referents and would thus be more straightforwardly interpreted.

In light of the discussion in the previous sections of this paper, a question that arises at this point is whether the prominence-lending factors discussed above interact with animacy and gender information to point to the intended referent. Research investigating related questions offered heterogeneous answers to this question. For example, proponents of the Minimalist Hypothesis (McKoon and Ratcliff 1992) suggested that prominence-lending factors such as particular syntactic or semantic roles are used first, while gender information cues come into play at a later stage

in pronoun interpretation. Another body of research (Ehrlich 1980, Crawley et al. 1990) has argued that gender is used rapidly, efficiently and automatically in pronoun disambiguation and that other prominence-lending cues are used at a later stage during the interpretation process, only when needed.

Even though animacy (or the distinction between animate and inanimate entities) is present in the grammar of many languages, there are few studies investigating its effects in the process of referring. Most studies showed that there is a strong connection between animacy, syntactic position and referentiality. Specifically, human referents are more likely to be mentioned as subjects than non-human referents, which tend to be realized as direct objects or obliques. Moreover, several studies suggest that human referents are more frequently pronominalized than non-human referents (Dahl and Fraurud 1996), as they are more accessible or activated in memory. Fukumura and van Gompel (2011) suggested that such effects are due to the cognitive accessibility of human referents compared to non-human referents. In Chiriacescu (2015) we presented the results of a sentence continuation study in which the impact of animacy and gender on subsequent pronominalization was tested. Results revealed that the likelihood of pronominalization dropped significantly if the two referents present in the initial stories matched in animacy. This tendency was even higher if the two referents matched in gender as well. Highest subsequent pronominalization scores were reported for the condition in which the two referents presented in the initial stories differed in animacy, one being semantically human, the other being associated with a non-human referent.

The factors outlined above have been shown to determine the prominence status of a particular referent, which in turn affected its probability to be interpreted as the antecedent of a subsequent pronominal anaphoric expression. In the remainder of the paper, we will discuss another factor, implicit causality, which has been added on the list of prominence-lending factors in recent years.

3 Implicit causality

Causal relations such as explanations are considered to be crucial to our understanding of discourse (Hobbs 1979, Kehler 2002, Asher and Lascarides 2005). On the one hand, causal relations may be expressed by means of linguistic devices such as sentence connectives (e.g. *because, therefore*), and, on the other hand, causal relations can remain implicit and must be inferred from the context. In this paper we are interested in the

causality implicitly expressed by different verbs and the way it may affect pronoun resolution. Garvey and Caramazza (1974) empirically tested the attributions triggered by different verb types and coined the term "implicit causality" to describe the property of interpersonal verbs that relate two human or animate entities in such a way that one of the entities is "implicated as the assumed locus of the underlying cause of the action or attitude" (Garvey and Caramazza 1974, 460). They showed that the implicit cause of the event described in one clause influences the interpretation of the explicit statement in the next clause. For an illustration, consider the example given in (8), in which two human referents are introduced.

(8) Clara has admired Iris since college.

The verb *admire* gives rise to the implicit assumption that there must be a reason, or cause, why *Clara* admires *Iris*. Accordingly, *Iris* has some traits or properties or has done something so that she is admired by others, including *Clara*. Although the sentence says nothing explicit about the cause of the event, it nevertheless indicates that the second referent, *Iris*, is the locus of the implicit cause.

The implicit causality triggered by verbs is a prominence-lending mechanism by making one of several participants in an event the cause of that event. Furthermore, Garvey and Caramazza (1974) show that the property of implicit causality is triggered by the semantics of the verb root, but that the direction of causal assignment may vary. They differentiate between three classes of verbs. The first class assigns the cause of the event to the first noun phrase (e.g. *annoy, beg*). The second class assigns the cause of the event to the second noun phrase (e.g. *admire, criticize).* The third type of verbs is the so-called neutral verb class, which do not show a robust cause-assigning preference to one or the other referent (e.g. *see, hear*).

The preference of each verb to assign cause to one referent or another was tested in production studies using a pronoun prompt in the second sentence, as illustrated in (9). Participants are given sentences like the ones in (9) and are asked to continue them by adding a continuation sentence to each of them.

(9a)   Mary$_1$ amuses Jane$_2$. She$_1$_____
(9b)   Mary$_1$ admires Jane$_2$. She$_2$_____

These biases towards the subject or the object referent are manifestations of an expectation about who will be mentioned next in the

discourse and can affect the resolution of a subsequent pronoun (Garvey et al., 1974, Kehler et al. 2008).

Interestingly, it has been shown that implicit causality verbs not only affect pronoun resolution biases, but they also affect the coherence relations used in the next sentence. For example, there is a reported strong preference to continue with an explanation about why *Mary* amuses *Jane* in (9a). On the contrary, other verbs like *hear* or *see*, which are not considered implicit causality verbs, do not trigger such continuation expectancies.

4 Conclusions

In communication, interlocutors build a discourse representation that contains the entities, times and events introduced in a discourse and the relations among these events (McKoon and Rattcliff 1992, Jasinskaja et al. 2015). The introduced entities are not equally important or prominent, but are ranked relative to one another. At each point in the unfolding discourse, the ranking of referents is negotiated. In this paper we focused on the factors that contribute to the ranking of referents in terms of prominence. Among the different prominence-lending cues that have been proposed in the literature, we reviewed the factors givenness, distance, syntactic function, thematic roles, animacy and implicit causality. The picture that emerged is that referents that represent discourse and hearer given information (as opposed to new information), which have been recently mentioned as the syntactic subject, as the sematic Goal in a transitive event and which are associated to a human referent, are more prominent in the subsequent discourse. On the contrary, referents pointing to new information, mentioned two or three clauses back, which are associated with the syntactic object or oblique, which are realised as the semantic Source and which are associated with non-human referents, are less prominent in the discourse. Moreover, the observations made with respect to the implicit causality of verbs showed that the event introduced in the sentence influences the prominence status of a referent as well.

Following the considerations formulated in the literature, we focused on pronoun resolution as a looking glass into the prominence status of a referent. That is, following the assumption that pronouns are associated with highly prominent referents (Ariel 1990, Gundel et al. 1993), we reviewed the factors that constrain pronoun resolution. It is important to note that these factors have been singled out in comprehension or interpretation studies, by employing more often than not a backward-looking perspective. In other words, these studies were mostly

concerned with predictions pertaining to the most likely antecedent of an already given pronoun. Future research will show how far the same prominence-lending factors affect production preferences in the same way.

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Endnote

CHAPTER II:

LANGUAGE USE IN PROFESSIONAL SETTINGS

LANGUAGE USE IN PROFESSIONAL SETTINGS: INTRODUCTION

MARINELA BURADA

     The common thread of the papers in this chapter relates to the choices that language presents us with, in this case, in professional contexts: at university, by novice writers who complete their written tasks, at pre-university level, by professionals involved in face-to-face interactions and, respectively, in the practice of dictionary-making, where, in their selection of relevant labels, lexicographers anticipate the users' information needs.

     Self-Mention in Academic Writing by In-Service Teachers of English: Exploring Authorial Voices (Oleksandr Kapranov) reports on a quantitative analysis of authorial voice as reflected in academic essays composed by non-native EL writers. Specifically, it sets out to determine the frequency and distribution of self-mentions across academic subgenres like reflective and analytical-explanatory essays dealing with literature and language-related topics. The focus of attention here is the personal pronouns (*I/we*) that text authors employ in order to signal their presence in the text. The paper taps into the specialist literature in order to circumscribe concepts relevant to the topic in hand i.e., academic writing, self-mentions, and their stylistic variations determined by the practices and norms governing professional communication, on the one hand, and by idiolect, on the other. The subjects of this investigation are a group of Norwegian in-service primary school teachers of EFL, who, in parallel, are students of English at university. These teachers/students are particularly interesting to the author not only because they generally constitute an underresearched group, but mainly because the assumption is that their struggles with writing in English as students may have a backwash effect on their confidence in approaching EL writing tasks as teachers.

     Argumentation in Educational Settings (Gabriela Chefneux) rests on a comparative-contrastive investigation of the argumentative strategies employed by participants in two in person meetings taking place in Romanian educational settings. The corpus used consists of recordings and transcripts of interactions between Romanian natives; these real-life

interactions were analyzed in terms of the functions that arguments perform in each case, their rhetorical patterning (determined by means of Toulmin's model and categories), the lexical choices made by the speakers and their response to the audience. While expecting some similarities at each level between the two cases, the author also highlights some dissimilarities, which she attributes to factors originating in the context of situation itself: professional interactions between individuals operating in the public versus private sector, with their respective differences in terms of power relations between the main speakers and the other participants.

Labelling in the Dictionary of the Romanian Language (Raluca Sinu) proposes an investigation into the field of Romanian lexicography. The focus in this paper is on the treatment of labels as a microstructural component in the Dictionary of the Romanian Language (DTLR), the most comprehensive Romanian monolingual dictionary to date. DTLR is of special interest here for two main reasons: first, it took over one hundred years to compile (1906-2010), which makes it the result of successive teams of lexicographers operating under different circumstances and constraints; and second, because it presents itself as a work consisting of two easily distinguishable parts: one that is commonly referred to as *The Academy's Dictionary* (DA), and the other, *The Dictionary of the Romanian Language* (DLR). The author looks at the lexicographers' attitudes towards labels as reflected in the introductory sections of the two parts of DTLR. Since labels typically receive very little attention, dictionary makers seemed to have operated under the assumption that this element is straightforward enough not to require explicit guidance for users. Additionally, the author uses extracts from the two parts of DTLR in order to illustrate the types of labels, the way they are used, and the differences in terms of their treatment. The results show that the lexicographers resorted to a wide variety of labels throughout the dictionary, with minor differences between the two parts.

SELF-MENTION IN ACADEMIC WRITING BY IN-SERVICE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH: EXPLORING AUTHORIAL VOICES

OLEKSANDR KAPRANOV

Abstract. This article presents and discusses a study that aims at elucidating how self-mention is expressed in a series of academic essays written by a group of in-service teachers of English (further referred to as "participants"). The study followed the view of self-mention as the use of personal pronouns (e.g., *I*, *we*, etc.) that is associated with the authorial voice in an academic text (Hyland 2012; Stock and Eik-Nes 2016). The participants' academic essays were investigated for the explicit presence of such self-mentions as *I*, *me*, *my*, *myself*, *mine*, *we*, *our*, *ours*, *ourselves*, and *us*. The results of the quantitative analysis of self-mentions in the corpus of the participants' essays by means of using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (IBM 2011) revealed that the most frequent self-mention was *I*, whereas the occurrence of the self-mention *we* was less frequent. These findings are further discussed in the article.

Key words: academic writing, authorial presence, English as a Foreign Language (EFL), self-mention

1 Introduction

The article presents and discusses a study that aims to explore how self-mention is linguistically manifested in a series of academic essays that are written by in-service teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This study is grounded in the theoretical framework of applied linguistics and EFL studies (Cheung and Lau 2020; Hyland 2008; Hyland and Jiang 2017; Hyland and Zou 2020; Lee 2007; Linxiu 2019). The study is based upon the following theoretical construals, namely i) academic writing produced by EFL student writers; ii) self-mention in academic discourse; and iii) the authorial voice in academic discourse. First, in the introduction I will outline the first two construals and thereafter I will dwell upon the construal of the authorial voice.

The study follows the definition of academic writing formulated by Nelson and Castelló (2012, 33), who regard it as discursive knowledge-making practices that are written by established scholars as well as student writers, who are in the process of learning and appropriating the forms and conventions of academic discourse in instructional and scientific contexts. In line with Dontcheva-Navrátilová (2013), academic writing is viewed in the present study as a form of written interaction that "involves the conveyance of knowledge and the negotiation and evaluation of views and opinions" (Dontcheva-Navrátilová 2013, 9). Typically, academic writers employ a variety of linguistic means, i.e. specialised lexica, syntax, discourse markers and self-mentions, in order to convey the author's scientific contribution, construe an argument, engage the reader, and ensure that their writing conforms to the genre requirements associated with academic writing (Hyland 2003; Kapranov 2019; Maslova 2017; Nelson and Castelló 2012). Whilst high standards of scholarship and writing style are desirable and, perhaps, expected characteristics of an academic writer as well as a student writer, there is a growing contention in the literature that recently academic writing has become less formal (Hyland and Zou 2020; Hyland and Jiang 2017). A less formal style of academic writing is manifested by the tendency to refrain from a "faceless and impersonal form of discourse" (Hyland 2005, 173) in order to exhibit an explicit authorial presence, viewpoint and voice that are, in part, imprinted in the fabric of an academic text (Xia 2020, 111) by means of self-mention.

In the present study, self-mention in academic writing is regarded as one of the metadiscursive means employed by the author in a text written in academic English (Dontcheva-Navrátilová 2013; Hyland 2003; McGrath 2016; Suau-Jiménez 2020). This study follows the definition of self-mention formulated by Hyland (2004), who defines it as "the extent of author presence in terms of first person pronouns and possessives" (Hyland 2004, 140).   Hyland's (2004) definition of self-mention is expanded upon by Suau-Jiménez (2020, 73), who posits that self-mentions are used by academic writers in order to reveal their identity and indicate their visibility in academic discourse that is characterised by different social, disciplinary, and genre-related constraints. As far as the genre-related constraints are concerned, it should be noted that self-mentions are thought to establish the academic writer's relation to the norms, practices and expectations of academic writing as a genre that is socially and, to an extent, culturally situated (Hyland 2010; Ivanič 1998; Ivanič and Camps 2001). The socio-cultural situatedness of self-mentions in academic genre could be illustrated by the Anglo-Saxon tradition of academic writing that

is marked "by the idea that texts are filled with rhetorical choices that support authorial identity constructed through self-representation" (Sheldon 2009, 251). It appears that self-mention in the current Anglo-Saxon academic discourse is regarded as a means of the explicit authorial self-representation (Sheldon 2009) in contrast to a "dry and impersonal" (Hyland 2002b, 51) style of academic writing that has gained currency in other cultures, for instance, in the Eastern European writing tradition (Čmejrková 1996; Danylenko 2005; Vassileva 1998). It should be observed that in terms of the genre-specific constraints that are referred to by Suau-Jiménez (2020), self-mention in academic writing is associated with considerable differences between disciplines (Hyland 2002a). By means of exemplifying these differences, Hyland (2002a) argues that academic writers in certain disciplines, for instance, "in the hard sciences and engineering prefer to downplay their personal role to highlight the issue under study, while a stronger identity is claimed in the humanities and social sciences papers" (Hyland 2002b, 352). This observation is echoed by Starfield (2015), who argues that

> the use of the first person singular indexes complex issues of authorial self-representation, of choice of scientific paradigm, the role of the researcher, and of the nature of research itself. The difficulties scholars and students encounter when making choices about self-representation also index a web of complex power relations that regulate academic writing. In some fields reflexivity is almost a requirement. To label this a fad or a fashion is to perhaps misunderstand the struggles underway as traditional scientific prose and what it indexes – the objectivity of the scientist, the traditional scientific paradigm – contends with the discourses of feminism, post-structuralism, and the new humanities where the researcher locates him or herself both positionally and textually (Starfield 2015, 258)

It follows from Starfield (2015) and Hyland (2002b) that self-mention is frequently used by academic authors in humanities, where authorial visibility is expected by the genre conventions (Starfield 2015). Self-mention is one of the means of authorial visibility in academic discourse that mark the authors' presence, or, in other terminology, the authorial voice (Hewings 2012; Hyland 2012; Jeffery 2011; Kramar 2017; Stock and Eik-Nes 2016).

Assuming that "writing does not just convey information, it also conveys something about the writer" (Ivanič 1994, 3), the authorial voice is thought to be a linguistic manifestation of the writer's identity that is construed in a piece of academic writing (Lehman and Sułkowski 2020). In discourse studies, linguistic manifestations of the authorial voice are associated with the author's writing style, rhetorical stance, register, and

the author's self in the text (Sperling and Appleman 2011, 70). In terms of the author's self in an academic text, Rodríguez, Vázquez, and Guzmán (2011, 95) indicate that the authorial presence in academic discourse is associated with the use of the first person pronouns in order to structure the text, present personal experiences and make evaluative statements (Ivanic 1998). The reference to the first person pronouns is further specified in the framework of applied linguistics, where the authorial voice of an academic writer is defined in terms of such discursive features as "nominalization, use of hedges and boosters, reporting verbs, APA style citations, self-mention, and so on" (Matsuda 2015, 144). Whilst the authorial voice could be analysed qualitatively as a metaphor for human agency and identity (Sperling and Appleman 2011, 70), in the present article I operationalise the authorial voice in accordance with Matsuda (2015) and Lorés-Sanz (2011), who adopt a quantitative approach to measuring self-mention in an academic text. In particular, the quantitative approach aims at establishing the frequency of use and distribution of the first person pronouns in an academic text to signal the authorial presence (Lorés-Sanz 2011).

Informed by the aforementioned theoretical and methodological premises, the present study seeks to establish the frequency and distribution of self-mentions in academic writing produced by a group of in-service teachers of English (further referred to as "participants"), who are enrolled in a university course for in-service EFL teachers. The novelty of this study rests with the group of participants, who combine full-time work as EFL teachers at Norwegian primary schools with the studies of English at university. The interest in self-mention in academic writing produced by the group of participants is commensurate with the current research focus in applied linguistics on in-service EFL teachers' writing skills (Berg and Huang 2015; Hundarenko 2019; Metruk 2020; Zhang and Cheung 2018). It is noted in the literature in applied linguistics and EFL studies that typically in-service EFL teachers experience a lack of both knowledge and preparation to teach writing to EFL learners, since EFL teachers themselves encounter challenges with writing in the academic register of English (Hundarenko 2019; Street and Stang 2008). In this regard, Street and Stang (2008) argue that

> teachers' histories as writers greatly affect whether they feel confident enough to use writing with their students. Even though many teachers believe in the value of using writing for instructional purposes, they report significant challenges — namely, a lack of professional preparation and time. (Street and Stang 2008, 37)

It is inferred from Street and Stang (2008) that academic writing is a critical skill to be mastered by an in-service EFL teacher. However, currently there is insufficient research that addresses EFL teachers' academic writing skills in general and, in particular, EFL teachers' use of metadiscursive means, such as self-mention, in academic writing (Hundarenko 2019). The use of metadiscursive means inclusive of self-mentions in academic writing by EFL primary school teachers is especially topical given the growing importance of writing skills that pre-service and in-service EFL teachers should master (Orchard, Kelly and Winstanley 2020). Currently, however, there are insufficient studies that elucidate the use of self-mention in academic writing by in-service EFL teachers who concurrently with working at school are enrolled in a university EFL course. The present study aims at discovering new knowledge about this under-represented issue. Specifically, the study seeks to answer the following research questions, i.e.

RQ1: What is the frequency of self-mentions in academic essays written by the participants?
RQ2: Would there be differences in the distribution of self-mentions in the participants' academic essays depending on the sub-genres of academic writing and sub-disciplines of EFL?

Guided by the aforementioned research questions, the article proceeds as follows. First, I will provide a review of literature that addresses the use of self-mention by student writers in EFL contexts. Second, the present study will be introduced and discussed in conjunction with the hypothesis, participants, corpus, methods, results and their interpretation. Finally, the article will be concluded with the summary of the major findings.

2 Literature review

There is a growing body of literature in applied linguistics and EFL studies that addresses the use of self-mention by student writers in a variety of EFL contexts (Akbas and Hardman 2017; Can and Cangır 2019; Ekoç 2020; Hyland 2004; Kapranov 2020a; McCallum 2016; Monsen and Rørvik 2017), such as undergraduate (Ekoç 2020; Kapranov 2020a; McCallum 2016; Monsen and Rørvik 2017) and post-graduate EFL settings (Akbas and Hardman 2017; Can and Cangır 2019; Hyland 2004). First, I will review the current literature that explores the use of self-mention in undergraduate EFL contexts. That will be followed by the

review of literature associated with self-mention in post-graduate EFL contexts.

The use of self-mention in academic writing by undergraduate EFL student writers is investigated in the studies conducted by Ekoç (2020), Kapranov (2020a), McCallum (2016), Monsen and Rørvik (2017). Self-mention in undergraduate academic writing is analysed by Ekoç (2020) in conjunction with hedging and boosting strategies that are employed by EFL student writers whose first language (L1) is Turkish. It should be noted that the participants in the study by Ekoç (2020) are future teachers of English. Ekoç (2020, 195) argues that the use of self-mentions by future EFL teachers merits further investigation, since "they would teach their students the conventions of second/foreign language writing in the future". Ekoç (2020) has discovered that Turkish L1 EFL student writers seem to prefer the use of the self-mention *we* in conjunction with boosting and hedging strategies, whereas the use of the self-mention *I* appears to be limited. Similarly to Ekoç (2020), Kapranov (2020a) seeks to elucidate the use of self-mentions in two sets of academic essays written by a group of future EFL teachers during two semesters of study. Kapranov (2020a) has established that the self-mention *we* is frequently used in the first semester of study, whereas the self-mention *I* appears to be preferred in the second semester. It has been found in the study (Kapranov 2020a) that the change of the preferred self-mention from *we* to *I* is concomitant with the shift from a logically presented academic writing in the first semester of study to a more reflective writing in the second semester.

Analogous to the findings in the study by Kapranov (2020a), McCallum (2016) has established that Arabic L1 EFL student writers prefer the self-mention *I* which is followed by the self-mentions *my*, *we*, *our*, *me* and *us*. McCallum (2016) indicates that the use of *I* and *we* by the participants in the study shows "a tendency to either take responsibility for the information or share that responsibility with the reader" (McCallum 2016, 129). Notably, the findings reported by McCallum (2016) are in line with the study conducted by Monsen and Rørvik (2017), who indicate that Norwegian L1 student writers use explicit self-mentions *I* and *we* to signal about themselves as "conductors of research and as guides or navigators assisting the reader through the text" (Monsen and Rørvik 2017, 93).

Whereas undergraduate student writers seem to prefer the use of the self-mention *I*, the use of self-mentions by post-graduate EFL writers differs. In particular, the study carried out by Hyland (2004) has revealed that the distribution of self-mentions in academic writing by Chinese L1 post-graduate students varies depending on disciplinary and genre contexts.

Specifically, Hyland (2004) indicates that self-mentions appear to be more frequent in doctoral dissertations, whereas in masters theses they are less numerous. Commenting on the frequency of self-mentions in the study, Hyland (2004) notes that

> While there are considerable disciplinary variations, PhD writers made far more use of this resource, with the doctoral dissertations containing four times more cases. The points at which these writers chose to metadiscoursally announce their presence in the discourse, moreover, often tended to be where they were best able to promote themselves and their individual contributions. (Hyland 2004, 143)

In contrast to Chinese L1 post-graduate students, Akbas and Hardman (2017) argue that Turkish L1 EFL post-graduates frequently use implicit means of authorial representation, such as passive and impersonal constructions rather than explicit self-mentions, e.g. *I* and/or *we*. These findings are interpreted by Akbas and Hardman (2017) as Turkish L1 EFL post-graduate preferences "to build mainly an impersonal impression over what they were presenting to the reader by employing a greater number of implicit authorial references" (Akbas and Hardman 2017, 139). In an analogous manner to the study by Akbas and Hardman (2017), Can and Cangır (2019) investigate the use of self-mentions by Turkish L1 post-graduate students. By means of using a corpus-assisted lexical analysis method, Can and Cangır (2019) have found a statistically significant difference in the use of the self-mentions between the groups of Turkish L1 and English L1 post-graduate students. The latter group has been discovered to use significantly more first person self-mentions in contrast to EFL student writers in Turkey.

It is evident from the literature review that there is an increased interest within applied linguistics and EFL studies in the phenomenon of self-mention in academic writing produced by undergraduate and post-graduate student writers from a variety of L1 backgrounds. However, the meta-analysis of previous literature reveals that currently there are insufficient state-of-the-art studies that investigate the use of self-mentions by in-service primary school teachers of English. Moreover, there are no published studies that address the use of self-mentions in academic writing produced by in-service teachers of English who combine full-time work with the study of English at university. In the following section of the article, I introduce and describe a study that seeks to shed light on this under-researched issue.

3 The present study

The present study seeks to establish the frequency and distribution of self-mentions in a series of academic essays written by a group of participants, who are primary school teachers of English that combine their teaching with studying English at university. This investigation forms a part of a larger research project that aims at establishing the use of metadiscursive means in academic writing produced by the participants (see Kapranov 2020b). In the course of their university studies (i.e., one academic year), each participant submits four academic essays in the following two rounds of essay writing. In the first round of essays in autumn semester, each participant submits one reflective essay in children's literature in English (further abbreviated as *LitE1*) and one reflective essay in English linguistics (henceforth – *LingE1*), respectively. In the second round of essays in spring semester, each participant turns in one analytic-explanatory essay in children's literature in English (*LitE2*) and one analytic-explanatory essay in English linguistics (*LingE2*), respectively.

Given that reflective essays typically involve personal learning trajectories and experiences (Mack 2012), it is assumed in the present study that the participants' reflective essays would be characterised by the presence of the self-mention *I*. Assuming that analytic explanatory essays usually involve reports with the elements of analysis, evaluation, and research (Aull 2019) on the topics in EFL didactics in relation to children's literature and linguistics, respectively, it is hypothesised in the present study that the participants would manifest their authorial voices via the third person (e.g., *the author*). Based upon these assumptions, two specific research questions have been formulated (see the introductory section of the article). These questions involve the considerations of the distribution of self-mentions in the participants' academic essays and the possible impact of the sub-genres and sub-disciplines on the distribution of self-mentions.

The participants are made aware of several possibilities of manifesting the authorial presence in an academic text, such as i) self-mentions by means of the first person pronouns (*I*, *we*, etc.), ii) the use of the third person singular (e.g., *the author*), and passive and/or impersonal constructions (e.g., *it is argued in the essay that*…). Following a lecture on academic writing in autumn semester, the participants are informed that they should write their essays in academic English by demonstrating subject-specific knowledge, using appropriate genre-specific linguistic means (e.g., academic vocabulary) and structuring their essays in constitutive parts (e.g., introduction, main part, and conclusions).

3.1 Participants

In total, there are 32 participants (30 females, 2 males, mean age = 43 years old, standard deviation = 8.3) in the study. The participants are university-educated primary school teachers. All participants are speakers of Norwegian as their L1. There are neither native speakers of English nor English/Norwegian bilinguals among the participants. The participants' mean duration of EFL learning is 8 years, standard deviation = 2.3, whereas none of the participants has any prior experience of EFL studies at the tertiary level. All participants are enrolled in the university course in English at a regional university in Norway concurrently with working full-time at their respective primary schools. The participants signed consent forms allowing the author of this article to collect and analyse their essays for scientific purposes. To ensure confidentiality, the participants' real names are coded as P1 … P32 (P = participant and the number from 1 to 32, respectively).

3.2 Corpus and Methods

As previously mentioned, each participant is expected to submit four academic essays in two rounds of essay writing, i.e. in the first round of essays in autumn they submit LingE1 and LitE1, whereas in the second round of essays in spring they turn in LingE2 and LitE2. In total, the corpus is comprised of 128 essays (the total N of words in all essays = 107 820). The descriptive statistics of the corpus are calculated by means of the computer program Statistical Package for Social Sciences, or SPSS (IBM 2011) and summarised in Table 1 below.

Table 1. The Descriptive Statistics of the Corpus

N	Statistical Measures	LingE1	LitE1	LingE2	LitE2
1	Total N of words	13 680	36 757	23 653	33 730
2	Mean words	441	1149	739	1 054
3	Standard deviation	182	166	397	188
4	Minimum	276	934	115	432
5	Maximum	1 098	1 544	1 990	1 451

As far the methodology in the present study is concerned, it involves the following considerations. The study is based upon the definition of self-mention as "the extent of author presence in terms of first person pronouns and possessives" (Hyland 2004, 140). Informed by this definition, the corpus has been manually searched for such self-mentions

as *I*, *me*, *my*, *myself*, *mine*, *we*, *our*, *ours*, *ourselves*, and *us*. The occurrence of self-mentions in each essay type (i.e., LingE1, LitE1, LingE2, and LitE2) per group is calculated in SPSS (IBM 2011) as non-normalised data in the form of means (M) and standard deviations (SD). Thereafter, all essays are processed in the computer program WordSmith (Scott 2008) in order to establish the frequency of self-mentions per 1000 words per group. Given that the essays differ in terms of the total number of words per participant (see minimum and maximum values in Table 1), the normalisation of the data seems to be a necessary step that facilitates the cross-comparison of the occurrence of self-mentions across the types of essays.

3.3 Results and discussion

The application of SPSS (IBM 2011) to the manually identified self-mentions has yielded means (M) and standard deviations (SD) per essay type (i.e., LingE1, LitE1, LingE2, and LitE2) per group. These statistics are summarised in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations of Self-Mentions per Group

N	Self-mention	LingE1	LitE1	LingE2	LitE2
1	I	M 9.8 (SD 5.9)	M 9.4 (SD 6)	M 9.3 (SD 4.4)	M 9.1 (SD 4.8)
2	Me	M 1.2 (SD 0.4)	M 1 (SD 0)	M 1 (SD 0)	M 1 (SD 0)
3	My	M 2.8 (SD 1.6)	M 2.5 (SD 1.4)	M 2 (SD 1.1)	M 2.5 (SD 2.1)
4	Myself	M 1 (SD 0)	M 1 (SD 0)	M 1 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)
5	Mine	M 0 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)
6	We	M 3.3 (SD 2.2)	M 2.5 (SD 1.8)	M 4.6 (SD 3.3)	M 4.4 (SD 3.6)
7	Our	M 1.3 (SD 0.4)	M 0 (SD 0)	M 1.5 (SD 0.5)	M 1 (SD 0)
8	Ours	M 0 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)
9	Ourselves	M 0 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)	M 0 (SD 0)
10	Us	M 0 (SD 0)	M 1 (SD 0)	M 1 (SD 0)	M 1.3 (SD 0.7)

Whereas Table 2 presents the so-called "raw" non-normalised data, the percentage of self-mentions as normalised data per 1 000 words

is given in Table 3. To reiterate, these statistics have been calculated by means of using the software program WordSmith (Scott 2008).

Table 3. The Percentage of Self-Mentions per 1 000 Words per Group

N	Self-mention	LingE1	LitE1	LingE2	LitE2
1	I	3.6%	3.0%	2.9%	2.8%
2	Me	0.3%	0.3%	0.3%	0.3%
3	My	0.9%	0.7%	0.5%	0.7%
4	Myself	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0
5	Mine	0	0	0	0
6	We	1%	0.6%	1.7%	1.5%
7	Our	0.3%	0	0.5%	0.3%
8	Ours	0	0	0	0
9	Ourselves	0	0	0	0
10	Us	0	0.2%	0.3%	0.3%

As previously mentioned in the introduction, the present study seeks to answer the research questions that are associated with i) the frequency of self-mentions in the participants' academic essays and ii) potential differences in the distribution of self-mentions in the participants' essays depending on the sub-genres (i.e., whether or not the essays are reflective or analytic-explanatory) and sub-disciplines (i.e., whether or not the essays are in linguistics or literature). Further in the article, I will discuss the major findings summarised in Tables 2 – 3 in light of the abovementioned research questions.

3.3.1 The frequency of self-mentions in the participants' academic essays

It is evident from Tables 2 and 3 that the most frequent self-mention in the participants' academic essays is *I* whose frequency is relatively high in all types of essays, i.e. in LingE1 (M = 9.8), LitE1 (M = 9.4), LingE2 (M = 9.3), and LitE2 (M = 9.1). Judging from the data, the self-mention *I* is similarly distributed in all types of essays. This observation is supported by the application of a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to the data presented in Table 2. The one-way ANOVA has revealed that the result is not significant at $p < 0.05$ (the *f*-ratio value = 0.18807 and the *p*-value = 0.904215). It seems possible to interpret the results of the one-way ANOVA as the participants' preference for the use of self-mention *I* in all types of essays in the first

round of essays (i.e., LingE1, LitE1) as well as in the second round of essays (i.e., LingE2, LitE2).

These findings are in line with the prior literature (Monsen and Rørvik 2017), which indicates that *I* is frequently employed in academic writing by Norwegian L1 undergraduate students. The present findings also seem to lend support to the study conducted by Kapranov (2020a), who has found that Norwegian L1 future teachers of English amply use the self-mention *I* in academic writing. Furthermore, the results of the present investigation support McCallum (2016) and Hyland (2004), who report the predominant use of *I* by undergraduate and postgraduate EFL students. However, the results of this study are in contrast to Can and Cangır (2019), Ekoç (2020), and Akbas and Hardman (2017), who indicate that Turkish L1 EFL student writers appear to use the self-mention *we* (Can and Cangır 2019; Ekoç 2020), or frequently employ implicit means of authorial representation, for instance passive and impersonal constructions (Akbas and Hardman 2017).

Obviously, it would not be correct to assume that all participants in this study employ a substantial number of the self-mention *I* in the essays. Whereas some participants, for instance Participants P5, P10, P16 and P32 do not use the self-mention *I* either in LingE1 or LitE1 in the first round of essays, other participants (for instance, Participants P4, P13, P30) exhibit a strong preference for *I* by means of employing it rather often in the first round of essays. This finding is illustrated by Figure 1 below.

As illustrated in Figure 1, there is a sub-group of participants who appear to use the self-mention quite liberally in the first round of essays. However, I would not interpret the substantial use of *I* by those participants as an index of over-use. Given that the first round of essays is comprised of reflective essays in children's literature in English and English linguistics, it is, perhaps, not surprising that the participants employ the self-mention *I* within the parameters of a discursive space that is marked by reflections and references to personal experiences.
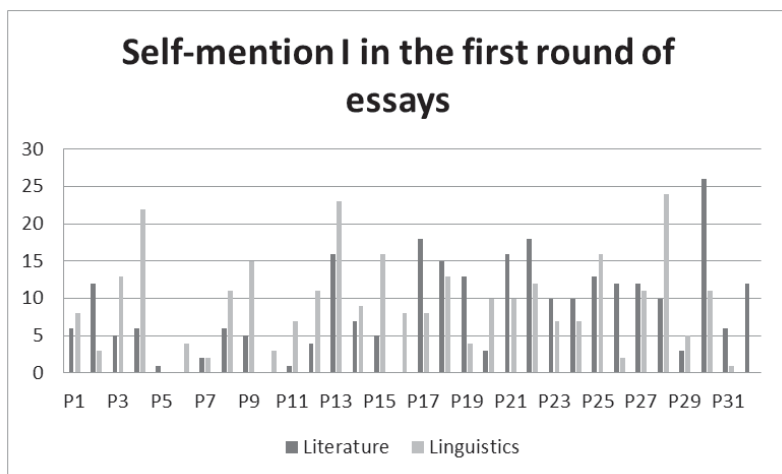
Figure 1. The Use of the Self-Mention *I* in Raw Values
in the First Round of Essays

The following excerpts (1) – (4) are taken from the participants' essays in order to exemplify the reflexive nature of the first round of essays, where the use of *I* is genre-appropriate. Whereas excerpts (1) and (2) illustrate reflective essays in children's literature, excerpts (3) and (4) emblematise reflective essays in English linguistics in the first round of essays.

(1) The reason *I* have chosen to write about this book is that the combination of text and illustration tells a story that *I* can relate to in many ways. First, *I* can recognize myself in the character Hannah and her feelings of loneliness, rejection and disappointment, but at the same time *I* can understand her father. (Participant P 4)

(2) In this reflective essay *I* would like to share my thoughts about the famous book by J.K. Rowling *Harry Potter and the Philosopher`s Stone*. *I* have been working in a bookshop for many years, therefore *I* have sold many books about Harry Potter, but *I* never seemed to understand why it was so tremendous popular. After reading the book myself, *I* have got a new literary experience, reading a fantasy book for the first time, and *I* have to say that this adventurous book captured me from the very start. (Participant P 13)

(3) *I* am an English teacher in 1st class, and that is exciting, because the small children are so eager to learn, and they pick up everything *I* teach them very easily. They understand a lot of English words, maybe because their generation is highly exposed to modern technology and the Internet. However, they struggle with the phonemes /v/ and /w/. As a teacher, *I* try to exaggerate my own pronunciation to help them hear the contrast between /v/ and /w/. (Participant P26)

(4) In this essay, *I* will mainly focus on teaching English conjugation to young leaners in Year 1. *I* will start the lesson with singing a song they know well, the greeting song: "*I* am a teacher, and who are you?". For many reasons *I* think it is good to start a lesson with a song. They like singing, and I get their attention. After this song *I* want to ask them if they are aware of what they actually have sung and the difference between how we say it in Norwegian and in English, like "Jeg er, du er" and "*I* am, you are". *I* will also ask them how to express themselves if they would tell the name of the boy or girl next to them, using the same pattern ("he is, she is"). (Participant P28)

It is inferred from excerpts (1) – (4) that the use of the self-mention *I* is motivated by the discursive space of a reflective essay, where "reflexivity is almost a requirement" (Starfield 2015, 258). Consequently, reflexivity is concomitant with a substantial use of the self-mention *I*. Perhaps, this discursive space necessitates a stronger writer's presence (Hyland 2002a) and a direct authorial voice (Hyland 2002b) that are manifested by *I* in the present corpus of reflective essays in order to i) explain the reasons the participants choose the particular books to base the essays on in (1) and (2), and ii) introduce and explain lesson plans associated with English phonetics in (3) and grammar in (4).

Apart from the pragmatically motivated use of the self-mention *I* in (1) – (4), another possible explanation of the use of *I* might be found in the seminal publications by Ivanič (1998), Mühlhäusler and Harré (1990), and Starfield (2015), who suggest that the self-mention *I* could be regarded as an index of complex power relationships between academic writing and "the discourses of feminism, post-structuralism, and the new humanities where the researcher locates him or herself both positionally and textually" (Starfield 2015, 258). In this regard, it could be argued that the use of *I* in this corpus could be evocative of the discourse of feminism, given that the majority of the participants are females (see the participants' description in subsection 3.1 of the article), who choose to locate themselves textually by means of explicitly indicating their identity via the self-mention *I*. From

this vantage point, it should be noted that the feminist voices in public and private discourse have traditionally been visible in Norway and Scandinavia that are "considered to be world leaders when it comes to overall gender equality in society" (Thun 2020, 1). Whereas the impact of feminist voices on the use of self-mention *I* could be a potential variable, it should be observed that this assumption is tentative and merits a separate study. Ideally, this contention should be studied in the future by examining a corpus of academic essays written by a gender-balanced cohort of participants.

  In addition to the abovementioned explanations of the frequent use of the self-mention *I* in this study, the frequency of *I* may be explained by referring to the participants' individual writing styles in academic writing. The frequency of the occurrence of *I* in the second round of essays (i.e., LingE2 and LitE2) written by the individual participants is illustrated by Figure 2.
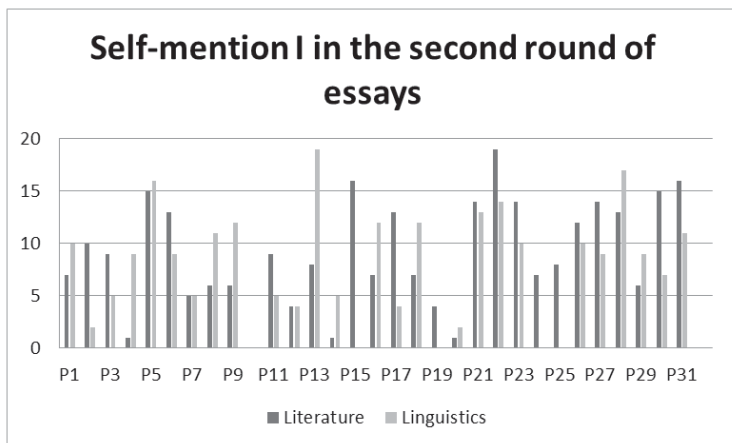
Figure 2. The Use of the Self-Mention *I* in Raw Values
in the Second Round of Essays

  Figure 2 provides evidence of the individual participants' preferences in terms of the use of *I*. In particular, it is seen in Figure 2 that Participant P13 employs the self-mention *I* relatively more often (N = 19 in LingE2 and N = 8 in LitE2) in contrast to other participants in the second round of essays. Notably, the same participant uses a substantial number of the self-mention *I* in the first round of essays (N = 23 in LingE1 and N = 16 in LitE1). This finding illustrates the participants' tendency to

use *I* as an index of their own individual writing preferences. Further evidence of the participants' individual writing style as far as the use of self-mentions is concerned is provided by the participants (for instance, P10, P16 and P32), who do not employ *I* in the first and second rounds of essays. The aforementioned strategies of using or, alternatively, avoiding self-mentions could be generalised to form patterns that are associated with the individual participants' writing style.

Apart from the participants' individual preferences, there could be another variable that explains the frequent use of the self-mention *I* in the present corpus of essays. Arguably, this variable involves the use of self-mentions in Norwegian, the participants' L1. As far as self-mentions in academic writing in the Norwegian language are concerned, Monsen and Rørvik (2017, 93) posit that the use of the self-mention *jeg* (English: *I*) is widely spread in undergraduate and post-graduate student writing in Norway. Presumably, the participants' extensive use of the self-mention *I* in the corpus could be accounted by the transfer of academic writing conventions found in the Norwegian language to academic writing in English. Obviously, it is beyond the scope of this study to verify this contention, since two parallel corpora would be needed to ascertain how the participants employ self-mentions in the English and Norwegian languages, respectively.

3.3.2 The distribution of self-mentions depending on the sub-genres of academic writing and sub-disciplines of EFL

As mentioned in the introduction, another research question in the study seeks to elucidate potential differences in the distribution of self-mentions in the participants' academic essays depending on the sub-genres of academic writing (i.e., reflective essays and analytic-explanatory essays, respectively) and/or sub-disciplines of EFL (i.e., linguistics and children's literature, respectively). The application of the one-way ANOVA to the corpus of the participants' essays has revealed that there is no statistically significant difference in the distribution of self-mentions (see subsection 3.3.1 for the results of the ANOVA). I interpret this finding as the absence of the impact of sub-genres and sub-disciplines upon the distribution of self-mentions in the corpus. To illustrate this finding, let us examine Figure 3 below that is based on the means of the most frequent self-mentions *I* and *we* in the first and second rounds of essays.
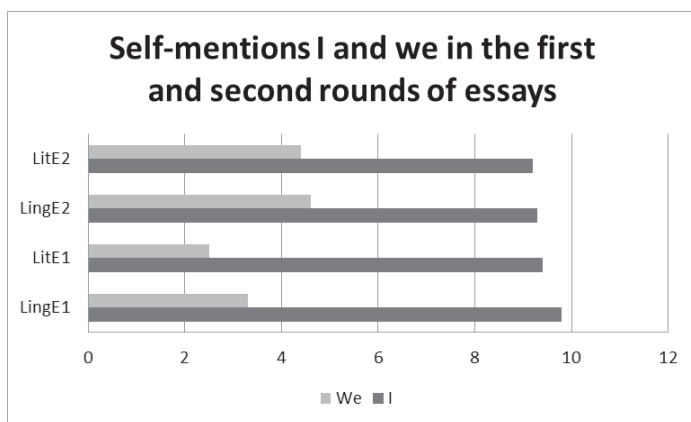
Figure 3. Self-Mentions *I* and *We* in the First and Second Rounds of Essays

Figure 3 visualises a similar distribution of the self-mention *I* across the sub-genres and sub-disciplines. As previously mentioned in the discussion section (see 3.3.1), the frequent use of self-mention *I* seems to be logical and genre-appropriate in reflective essays both in children's literature in English and in English linguistics. Notably, the use of *I* in analytic-explanatory essays (M = 9.3 in LingE2 and M = 9.1 in LitE2) resembles that of reflective essays. As previously discussed (see 3.3.1), a relatively high occurrence of *I* in reflective and analytic-explanatory essays could be accounted by several variables that involve i) genre-appropriateness, ii) consistency in the individual writing style (i.e., the participants who frequently use *I* in the first round of essays continue to use *I* rather liberally in the second round of essays), iii) transfer from the writing conventions that are found in academic writing in Norwegian to academic essay writing in English, and iv) socio-cultural feminist discourse conventions in Norway that facilitate the visibility of female discursive voices.

Whilst there is no statistically significant difference in the frequency of the self-mention *we* in the corpus of essays, it is seen in Figure 3 that its mean values increase in the second round of essays in contrast to the first round of essays. To reiterate, in the second round of essays the participants are expected to write analytic-explanatory essays in children's literature in English (N = 1 per participant) and in English linguistics (N = 1 per participant), respectively. Arguably, a possible explanation of the increase in the use of the self-mention *we* in the second

round of essays is provided by the genre-specific constraints of this sub-genre. In terms of the genre constraints, I agree with Aull (2019), who posits that an analytic-explanatory essay is associated with foregrounding both the analysis and explanation as the main characteristics of this sub-genre (Aull 2019, 276). Informed by these genre features, the participants appear to illustrate their analyses and explanations by means of including lesson plans in conjunction with the essay topics in the second round of essay writing. Presumably, illustrative examples of the lesson plans contribute to the increase in the use of the self-mention *we* in the second round of essays in contrast to the first round of essays. Excerpt (5) in English linguistics and excerpt (6) in children's literature in English emblematise the increase in the use of *we* in the second round of essays.

(5) When *we* go through homework, *we* practice the list with the difficult words, then *we* listen to songs and sing, and then *we* talk. However, sometimes *we* repeat some particular sounds. When teaching pronunciation to young learners, I use frequent words like *the, birth, zebra.* In this way, *we* train their pronunciation both in an isolated word and in a sentence. (Participant P4)

(6) *We* have recently been working with a reading project at school in a time period of four weeks, and *we* have discussed different book genres, including picture books. *We* discuss book genres again before looking at how meaning is created in the picture book "Where the wild things are". These are mature seventh graders who are academically strong and good at reflecting, so *we* can discuss a complicated text. The competence aim *we* are working towards in this lesson is reading children's and youth literature in English and conversing about persons and content. (Participant P10).

It follows from these excerpts that the participants employ the self-mention *we* in order to involve the reader in the fabrics of lessons that focus on pronunciation in (5) and reading and discussing the book content in (6). However, the use of the self-mention *we* in these excerpts does not seem to be associated with the *inclusive we* that involves both the author and the reader. Arguably, *we* in (5) and (6) refers to the participants as i) the authors of the essays, ii) the teachers in the instructional EFL settings, and iii) a collective entity that is comprised of both the teachers and their students who are embedded in the socio-discursive instructional context.

Discussing the present findings, it should be reiterated that the hypothesis in the study involves a contention that the participants' authorial

voices in analytic-explanatory essays would be manifested by the third person singular (e.g., *the author*). The results of the data analysis reveal that only one participant out of 32 uses the third person singular in the clause "the author of this essay" in order to signal her authorial presence in the analytic-explanatory essay in children's literature. Hence, I assume that the hypothesis is not supported by the data, given that the most frequent self-mentions in analytic-explanatory essays are the first person self-mentions *I* and *we* irrespective of the EFL sub-disciplines.

Another important finding involves the absence of the self-mentions *mine*, *ours*, and *ourselves* in both in the first and second rounds of essays irrespective of the EFL sub-disciplines. These findings provide support to the study conducted by Monsen and Rørvik (2017), who note that the Norwegian L1 EFL student writers seem to avoid the aforementioned self-mentions. A possible explanation of the absence of the self-mentions *mine* and *ours* in the present study could be offered by the participants' insufficient language skills as far as the use of the absolute possessive pronouns is concerned. This assumption seems plausible given that the participants never studied English beyond secondary school prior to attending the in-service EFL course at university. Whilst it is beyond the scope of the present study to verify this assumption, it should be noted that if the assumption is true, then it would indicate that there is a correlation between an EFL student writer's language mastery and the use of self-mentions in academic writing in English.

4 Conclusions

The present study introduced and discussed a quantitative inquiry into the use of self-mentions by a group of participants, who teach English at primary schools in Norwegian EFL contexts concurrently with the study of English at university. The novelty of this study rests with the group of participants with their dual roles of EFL students and EFL teachers, since there is no current research that addresses the use of self-mention by this cohort of participants.

The results of the quantitative analysis of the participants academic essays reveal that they prefer the use of the self-mention *I* in all types of essays, i.e. in reflective essays and in analytic-explanatory essays irrespective of the EFL sub-disciplines (i.e., children's literature in English and English linguistics, respectively). The second-most frequent self-mention is *we* which is similarly distributed across the essay types. The participants' preference for the self-mention *I* is accounted by the genre constraints of reflective essay writing and the consistency of individual

writing styles. Other variables that may contribute to the relatively high frequency of occurrence of the self-mention I could be identified as the transfer of the Norwegian analogue of *I* (Norwegian: *jeg*) to academic essay writing in English, and Norwegian feminist discourse that is characterised by the visibility of female discursive voices. It should be noted that whilst the latter two variables are considered possible, separate studies are needed to provide direct evidence of their impact on the use of I by Norwegian L1 EFL student writers.

It follows from the results of the quantitative analysis that *we* is the second most frequent self-mention in the corpus of the participants' essays. Whereas the results of the one-way analysis of variance indicate that the self-mention *we* is similarly distributed in the essays, there is an increase in its frequency in the second round of essays. This finding is explicable by the use of *we* in conjunction with the lesson plans, where *we* is reflective of the participants as the authors, teachers, and collective entities that partake in EFL instructional contexts.

It could be concluded that the most frequent self-mention *I* in this study is indicative of the participants' visible authorial voices that permeate reflective and analytic-explanatory sub-genres of academic writing in two sub-disciplines of EFL, children's literature in English and English linguistics. The prevalence of the self-mention *I* is in harmony with the current practices of authorial visibility in academic writing (Hyland 2002a). Furthermore, the frequent use of *I* in the present corpus appears to be in concert with the Anglo-Saxon socio-cultural conventions of the explicit authorial voice representation (Albalat-Mascarell and Carrió-Pastor 2019; Beeching, Ghezzi and Molinelli 2018; Hyland 2010; Ivanič 1998; Ivanič and Camps 2001; Starfield 2015).

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Acknowledgments

ARGUMENTATION IN EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS

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Abstract: Argumentation is a fundamental and pervasive feature of communication, encountered in a wide range of domains – politics, adveritising, education. Interlocutors use argumentation to resolve disputes, to minimize disagreements, or to bring their audience to the speaker's point of view. The paper aims to analyse the arguments used in two different educational settings – a training course provided by a private organization and a school meeting, where the results of the school evaluation are presented. The analysis starts from the reconstruction of the argument, its form, the linguistic choices made by the speakers and the function of the arguments in order to identify similarities and differences between the two contexts.

Keywords: argument, reconstruction, structure, form, function, lexical realization

1 Introduction

The paper aims to analyse two different types of meetings in two different types of educational settings; the first is a private organization which runs courses for life-insurance agents while the second is a public school. For both settings the beginning of the meeting has been selected.

The paper studies the arguments used by the speakers in these two different environments in terms of use, structure and lexical choices, the assumption being that there will be both differences and similarities which reflect the private versus the public setting in terms of the organization of the arguments, their functions, and the speaker's attitude towards the audience and their reactions.

In order to conduct the analysis, the paper is structured in three parts: a theoretical one, introducing the concepts used for the analysis, the data analysis, and the conclusions.

2 Theoretical framework

Persuasion is one of the main communication functions, alongside narration and description (Rovenţa Frumuşani 2000). It helps interlocutors to interpret situations and solve conflicts and it characterizes a variety of domains, such as politics, advertising, education, everyday communication. Depending on its intensity, means and purpose, persuasion is subdivided into demonstration, argumentation, seduction, propaganda and manipulation. Thus, demonstration relies on actual knowledge and represents a closed system, seduction is mainly concerned with the linguistic means used to persuade, manipulation represents an indirect way of persuasion, and propaganda, considered the extreme case of persuasion, is characterized by bias and violence (Rovenţa Frumuşani 2000).

The definition of argumentation that best reflects the approach used in this paper is that it aims to solve disputes, misunderstandings or differences of opinion by means of reaching a common position between the speaker and the audience (Rovenţa Frumuşani 2000, 24). Similarly, van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1983) define argumentation as the response generated by an anticipated or actual difference of opinion, while later van Eemeren (2010, 33-34) defines pragma-dialectics as a feature of ordinary conversation intended to minimize the disagreement between the interlocutors. Argumentation has as its main purpose to produce an epistemic change in the audience (Rovenţa Frumuşani 2000, 29).

Several authors such as Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca (2012), van Eemeren (2010), emphasize the important part played by the audience, considered to have an active role in the argument, and generating a permanent change in terms of the content and form of the arguments brought by the speaker.

Toulmin (2003) defines arguments as justifications brought in support of an assertion and establishes six constituents of an argument:

- data – the assertion made by the first party;
- claim – the conclusions to which the data lead; the force of the conclusion may vary, depending on the strength of the data available;
- warrant – the answer to the challenger's question "How did you get there" (Toulmin 2003, 90); the warrant influences the strength of the conclusion, depends on the backing, and can be implicit;
- backing – the assurances provided for the warrant, which can take several forms: quotation from an authority, classification, statistics, etc; like the warrant, the backing can also remain implicit;

- qualifier – it influences the force of the conclusion, being often expressed linguistically by means of modal markers;
- rebuttal – the rejection of the conclusion, depending on the strength of the warrant and backing.

Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca (2012) analyze the structure of arguments as being either quasilogical (appealing to logical structure and resorting to contradiction, identity, part-whole relation, comparison) or based on the structure of reality (appealing to cause-effect, persons and their actions, etc.)

In terms of form, van Eemeren (2010, 12) divides arguments into multiple, coordinative and subordinate ones.

Linguistically, arguments can also be analysed from a variety of perspectives – the lowest units, the words, the argumentative operators (adverbial clauses of cause), and the argumentative strategies (such as interrogative, exclamatory or negative sentences). The use of personal pronouns (1st or 2nd person, singular and plural), the choice of tense and mood as well as the lexical choice of the verbs themselves (for example, *contradict, object, support, maintain*), are all indicative of the speaker's opinion (Rovenţa Frumuşani 2000). Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca (2012) provide comprehensive list of figures of speech, such as metaphor, metonymy, epithets, etc.

The next part of the paper deals with the analysis of the examples, analysis based on the concepts described in the theoretical framework - structure, form, linguistic choices, function of arguments.

3 Analysis

3.1 The data

The data analyzed below were recorded in two different educational environments. The first one is a school meeting, where the two inspectors attending the meeting present and comment on the results of their inspection in terms of the educational achievement of the school, while the second set represents the beginning of a training course organized by a private company for life insurance agents (for transcribing conventions, see Appendix).

The training course brings together 17 people – 15 trainees with ages ranging from 20 to 60 and the two representatives of the training company – Dragoş, the agency manager, and Bogdan, a regional trainer.

This is the first time the participants meet and the data record the manager's presentation of the course.

The school meeting brings together 35 participants, the deputy general inspector whose name is Victor and who presents the inspection result, the general inspector, the school head, and 32 teachers. For a very long time Victor is the only one speaking during the meeting.

Overall, the main function of the arguments presented in the training course is that the course is a good one, meeting the participants' needs and expectations, while in the school meeting Victor's arguments are meant to persuade the participants that the school inspection was thoroughly and efficiently conducted, its aim being to improve the educational results of the school.

There is no direct confrontation of views and the two parties do not commit themselves to the position of protagonist and antagonist.

The analysis focuses on similar parts in the meetings – the very beginning, the middle, where a staff issue is discussed, and the end. The analysis reconstructs the argument using Toulmin's model (2003) – data, claim, warrant, backing, rebuttal and qualifier – the structure (multiple, coordinative and subordinate), the speakers' linguistic choice and the function of the argument. The examples are analysed in a comparative way, with examples for each sequence in the meeting taken sequentially from both settings.

3.2 Data analysis

The first set analyzes the arguments brought at the beginning of the meeting.

Dragoş's argument analyzed in Example 1a below appears at the very beginning of the course; the manager greets the participants, and moves straight to the description of the five-day course. In order for the course to be extremely efficient, Dragoş believes that the participants should introduce themselves, these introductions having a double purpose – to meet the trainees' expectations and to help the trainers to react to the trainees' needs in the best possible way:

Example 1a. The training course
Dragoş: bună ziua# începem de astăzi↓ o perioadă de cinci zile↓ de cursuri pline↓ vom avea cursuri de bază în activitatea de consultant. sigur că pentru început ar trebuie să ne prezentăm … împreuna să lucrăm la opțiunile de care aveți nevoie să discutăm despre produsele [nume organizație]↓ despre pașii procesului de vânzare și despre tehnici de vânzare înainte de a merge mai departe va trebui însă (încetul cu încetul) să ne prezentăm fiecare, da↑ nume prenume↓, dacă lucrați unde lucrați

MICI informații despre dumneavoastră care credeți că sunt importante astfel încât să ne cunoaștem împreună unii cu alții și să vă cunosc și eu mai bine pentru o mai bună colaborare. Hai# CINE începe. (Gheorghe, Măda and Săftoiu 2009, 175)

English translation:

Dragoș: 'good morning# today↓ we start a five-day period↓ of busy courses↓ we will have fundamental courses for the consultancy activity. of course that at the beginning we should introduce ourselves … to work together on the options you need to discuss about the products [name of the organization]↓ the stages in the selling process and about selling techniques but before going on we will we will have (step by step) to introduce ourselves, yes↑ name, surname↓, if you work where you work SIMPLE personal information which you consider important so that we know one another and I know you better to work better together with you. Come on# WHO starts'.

The data are that this is the beginning of the course and the claim is that it should be efficient "to know you better to work better with you". The warrant, which is unstated, is that all the people present, trainees and trainers, have a common purpose and the backing is that the trainers are professionals, as they can quickly adjust to their trainees' needs. The claim has no qualifier and the backing and conclusions are covert.

Structurally, this is a coordinate type of argument, which brings together professional and personal aspects.

Linguistically, the use of "so" in "so that we know each other and I know you better to work better together with you" indicates that Dragoş wants to be perceived as a highly reasonable and efficient person, which reflects on the quality of the course he is managing. The use of "of course" marks the fact that the manager takes into account the participants' expectations, while the use of *but* "but before going on we will have to [...] introduce ourselves" indicates that Dragoş subordinates personal matters to professional ones.

The function of this argument is to persuade the trainees that they are attending a high quality course, where their experience and needs are carefully considered by the training team.

Example 1. b The school meting

Victor: <CIT deci raportul de evaluare! ((zgomot)) evaluare instituțională↓ a fost realizat în urma: perioadei de inspecție care! sau a etapei de desfășurare a inspecției↓ care a fost între optișpe și douăzecișinouă februarie↓ # avînd ca scop cunoașterea realității școlare↓ și a personalului didactic↓ în vederea îmbunătățirii activității# în conformitate cu graficul semestrial de îndrumare și control al iseje brașov↓ am efectuat inspecția de evaluare instituțională↓ în calitate de coordonator↓ deci eu↓ [nume prenume]↓ inspector de la personal ↓ [nume prenume]↓ inspector geografie↓ iar din partea centrului de asistență psihopedagogică↓ psihologul [nume și prenume]# activitatea de inspecție a fost concepută ca o formă de colaborare ↓

între cele două instituții și orientată spre sprijinirea unității dumneavoastră↓(Gheorghe, Măda and Săftoiu 2009: 72-73)
English translation:
Victor: <READING so the evaluation report! (noise)) institutional evaluation↓ was achieved as the result: of the evaluation period which↓ or the stage of conducting the evaluation of the inspection↓ which was between the eighteenth and twenty-fifth of February↓ # its aim being to know the school reality↓ and the teaching staff↓with a view to improving the activity# observing with the semester schedule of coordination and control of Brașov school inspectorate↓ we conducted the institutional evaluation inspection↓as a coordinator ↓ so I↓ [surname first name]↓ human resource inspector ↓ [surname first name]↓ geography inspector↓ and on behalf of the psychological and teacher training department↓ psychologist [surname and first name]# the inspection activity was designed as a form of cooperation ↓ between the two institutions, geared towards supporting your unit↓

Victor begins his report in a very formal manner; he uses mainly impersonal constructions and states the aim of the inspection and the names of the evaluation team members.

The structure of his argument is as follows: the data are that the report has to be read and the claim, which is overtly expressed, is that it should be useful for the school. The warrant, which is also expressed, is that everything was conducted according to regulations – the structure of the evaluation team, the dates of the inspection – while the backing is represented by the dates and names provided by the speaker in a very detailed manner. There is no rebuttal and the claim that the report is accurate is very strong.

The argument is a coordinate one, as two backings are provided – the structure of the evaluation team and the observance of the scheduled period.

Linguistically, Victor uses "so" for two times, once at the beginning and next when he mentions the structure of the evaluation team. The first "so" is actually not justified, as it connects to nothing that was said before, these are Victor's first words; the speaker probably uses it in order to mark the beginning of the report and probably to come across as a logical person. The second so ("so I↓ [surname first name]↓ human resource inspector ↓ [surname first name]↓ geography inspector↓ and on behalf of the psychological and teacher training department↓ psychologist [surname and first name]#"), connects the general description of the team to the actual names; again, the use of "so" is not justified as it indicates no logical conclusion.

Victor resorts to two enumerations – both used as backing – namely dates and names. He also uses an impersonal style, aimed at indicating the

team objectivity: "the inspection activity was designed as a form of cooperation".

The function of this argument is to persuade the participants that the evaluation was meant to support the institution and that it was conducted professionally and efficiently.

Therefore, in these two introductory parts of the meetings, both Dragoş and Victor aim to present themselves as professional, logical people, whose interest is the professional advancement of the participants.

The next two arguments are used by the two speakers during the middle of the meeting and they both present a critical view of the staff.

In Example 2a below, Dragoş tries to persuade the trainees that the trainers are professionals and the course will meet the participants' needs. In order to do that he resorts to a shrewd technique – he starts by saying that things should be clarified from the beginning, which presents him as a very honest person. What he says runs counter to the trainees' expectations as he states that the course will not turn them into perfect sales agents, the reason being the difficulty of the profession and not the trainers' quality. He continues by stating that selling insurances is a complex activity, which involves meeting a wide range of people, all having different personalities. Therefore, a lifetime would not be enough to prepare somebody for this activity, and the trainees should not expect magical solutions. Having thus reduced their expectation level, Dragoş moves on to praising the course in an indirect way, by stating that what the course does is to reduce the trainees' chances of making mistakes. He presents himself as an honest and realistic person and he indirectly requests the trainees to be reasonable too.

Example 2.a The training course
Dragoş: ATENȚIE. tot de la început↓ și acest lucru o să-l vedeți și mai încolo↓ dar este bine să delimităm niște lucruri de la început.da? noi nu avem acum pretenția ca prin acest curs să facem din dumneavoastră oameni care cunosc asigurările# din toate ungherele și toate posibilitățile. în primul rând nici noi nu le cunoaștem chiar atât de bine și n-o să ajungem experți nici peste douăsute de ani↓ dacă vom trăi. nu ai cum. pentru că fiecare client în parte este o altă personalitate o altă structură. CINE să-mi poată da mie o soluție general valabilă pentru câteva miliarde de clienți posibili pe globul aceste. NIMENI.   și-atunci eu va trebui să mă adaptez la fiecare.....atunci haideți să vedem despre ce vom vorbi pe parcursul cursului↓ a↑. .... # de fapt cineva spunea orice ai învăța în acest curs sau ulterior cursului împreună cu managerii dumneavoastră nu vom avea ninciodată# pretenția că o să vă dea soluții magice↓ dar cu certitudine o să vă micșoreze șansa de a greși. (Gheorghe, Măda and Săftoiu 2009: 183)

English translation:
'Dragoș: ATTENTION. still from the beginning↓ and you will see it later too↓ but it is good to clarify some things from the beginning.yes? we do not claim now that by means of this course we will turn you into people familiar with insurances# from all angles and perspectives. first of all we do not know them that well ourselves and will not become experts even in two hundred years↓ if we come to live that long. this is not possible. because each client is a different personality a different structure. WHO can give me a solution valid for a few billiards of possible clients in this world. NOBODY.   And then I will have to adjust to each.....then let's see what we'll be talking about during the course↓ yes↑. .... # actually somebody said that no matter what you learn during this course or after it together with your managers we will never# claim that it will provide you with magical solutions↓ but certainly it will decrease your chance of making mistakes.'

The data are that the course cannot be reasonably expected to prepare the trainees to become perfect professionals and the claim is that it is nevertheless a good course as it decreases their chances of making mistakes. The warrant is the complexity of the activity, which increases the difficulty of the profession, and the backing is of a psychological nature – there are billions of clients, each having a particular psychological structure; the rebuttal is that the course will be successful on condition that the trainees have reasonable expectations. The data, warrant, and backing are all overtly expressed while the claim and the rebuttal are not.

This is a complex argument which includes several subordinate ones – the sales agent profession is a very difficult one, which cannot be perfectly mastered in a life time. Dragoș uses a hyperbole when stating that nobody can become an expert, not even in two hundred years. The other subargument is the number of clients, which is high (of the order of billions, another unrealistic figure), which makes it very difficult for an agent to adjust to each of them, as each client has a different personality. The trainers are only human, so they cannot provide magical solutions, but actually this is not their fault but rather the result of the complex situation; in support of his point, Dragoș uses a quotation, to make the statement more personal: "actually somebody said that no matter what you learn during this course or after it together with your managers we will never claim that it will provide you with magical solutions".

Dragoș presents two perspectives to the trainees - an unreal one, where magical solutions are expected, and the real one, in which the trainers can only help the participants to reduce the possibility of making mistakes.

Linguistically, the use of numbers is combined with interrogative and negative structures. Dragoș uses hyperboles – "billions of clients", which is also a numerical fallacy as no salesman will have that many

clients and a lifetime of 200 hundred years – a period which is not enough for the trainers to become experts. Dragoș resorts to questions to persuade the trainees to adopt his point of view ("Who can give me a solution?") and to many negations – "we do not claim that", "we ourselves do not know them", "it is simply not possible", "we will never say". The modalizers used are impossibility – related to the solutions provided by the course- and certainty - what the course does provide.

In Example 2b below, during his presentation Victor discusses one of the shortcomings assessed by the evaluation team, namely the situation of the school-based curriculum, an area in which the school does not fare well. The inspector starts by stating the topic and immediately mentions the evaluating team's position - the situation is not appropriate; next he provides reasons for this assertion.

Example 2.b The school report
Victor: un alt aspect consemnat↓ oferta curriculară la decizia școlii↓ considerăm că nu ia în calcul doleanțele elevilor și nu este în concordață cu interesele acestora↓ deoarece opționalele din acest an școlar sunt de aprofunda:re↓ # și sunt nu mai puțin de DOUĂZECI la matematică↓ de extindere la limba română trei↓ și ca disciplină nouă un opțional de biologie. # sigUr nu reflectă: interesele elevilor pentru matematică douăzeci de opționale # și ca oferta de opționale să corespundă intereselor elevilor la fiecare disciplină trebuie să existe cel puțin↓ cîte două teme pe opțional↓ lucru pe care nu l-am găsit. (Gheorghe, Măda and Săftoiu 2009: 79-80)
English translation:
Victor: another aspect recorded↓ the school-based curricula offer↓ we believe it does not take into account the students' wishes and does not observe their interests↓ because the optional classes in this school year are of an enhancement type↓ # and there are no less than TWENTY for mathematics↓ expansion for the Romanian language three↓ and as a new subject an optional in biology. # for SURE they do not reflect: the students' interests in mathematics twenty optional classes # and for the school based curriculum offer to match the students' interests in each subject there should be at least two topics per optional↓ something I did not find.

The inspector structures his argument as follows: the data are the optional classes in the school based curriculum offer, the claim is that they are not appropriate, the warrant is the school documents which do not observe the standards of the Ministry of Education, and the backing is the standards. The qualifier is very high – expresses certainty – "for sure do not reflect".

The argument is backed by two warrants - the students' interests and the official regulations.

In terms of structure, this is a coordinate argument.

Victor deals with a situation which is entirely out of order. Linguistically, he chooses to present it not from his own perspective but from the student's perspective and by mentioning official regulations. He adopts an impersonal approach, resorting to the 1st person personal pronoun in the plural "we believe" – thus presenting the position of the evaluation team. He includes an agentless reduced relative clause "another aspect recorded", and next he uses again the 1st personal pronoun in the plural, thus distancing himself from the criticism He supports his position by describing the current situation - there are only optional classes of two types – enhancement and expansion. The numbers are far too high – twenty for mathematics and three for Romanian – with only one genuinely school based curricular subject. He continues in the same official manner by mentioning the Ministry of Education's regulation – at least two topics for each subject. He ends this point by stating "there should be at least two topics per optional↓ something I did not find", this time using a more personal note but keeping the distance from mentioning either the school or teachers. He justifies this position by providing figures – twenty maths optional classes, three Romanian ones and repeats that the school based curriculum does not reflect the students' interests.

The function of the argument is to persuade the school to change the offer, a situation that will be evaluated again soon by the inspectorate, as Victor later states.

The third set of examples is taken from the last part of the meetings, which they conclude.

In Example 3a below, Dragoş finishes his presentation by trying to motivate the trainees. He reminds them of their reasons for attending the course (financial, personal worth, professional development, etc.) and attempts to prove that all of these dreams can come true if they work with this insurance company, the only condition for success being the trainees' determination. To support his idea, he resorts to his own personal experience and to statistics.

He tells the participants that in order for them to be successful, they have to write their main reason for becoming sales agents, as writing the objective down and visualising it every day sharply increase the chances of success; success means that they may become very rich, possibly members of the millionaire's club.

Example 3.a The training course

Dragoş: eu vă rog să vă notați acest obiectiv↓ pentru că dacă nu vi-l notați cu certitudine n-o să-l atingeți sau veți avea șanse mici să ajungeți la obiectiv pentru că statisticile arată că dintre cei care-și stabilesc obiective douăzeci la sute își scriu

obiectivul și obzeci la sută nu. dintre cei obzeci la sută care NU-ȘI scriu obiectivul↓ zero virgula zero la sută reușesc să și-l atingă. nu-l mai știu↓ pentru că-și schimbă părerea. cei care au un obiectiv real și-l scriu cei douăzeci la sută↓ da↑ dintre ei douăzeci la sută și-l scriu într-o zonă în care zilnic îl vizualizează și douăzeci la sută și l-au scris pur și simplu. din cei care și-au scris obiectivul cinci la sută reușesc din cei care și l-au scris într-o zonă vizibilă astfel încât zilnic o dată cel puțin să-și vizualizeze obiectivul obzecișicinci la sută reușesc. #dar numai UNUL devine miliardar într-un an.

XF: noi ne mulțumim și cu câteva sute de mii. (Gheorghe, Măda and Săftoiu 2009: 183)

English translation:

'Dragoș: I ask you to put down this objective↓ because if you don't put it down you will certainly not reach it or you will have low chances of reaching the objective because statistics shows that out of the ones who set out their objectives twenty percent write the objective and eighty percent don't. out of the eighty percent who do NOT write their objective↓ nought point nought percent manage to achieve it. they don't know it any more↓ because they change their mind. the ones that have a real objective write it the twenty percent ↓ yes↑ out of them twenty percent write it in a place which they see every day and twenty percent just write it. out of the ones that wrote their objective five percent succeed out of the ones who write it in a visible area so that they see their objective at least once a day eightyfive percent are successful. #but only ONE becomes a billionaire within a year.

XF: we are satisfied with a few hundred thousand'

The structure of this argument is as follows: the data are that the participants want to be successful professionals and the claim is that they have to remember their objective. The rebuttal is that they cannot be successful unless they write it down and look at it every day. The warrant is that they must see their objective every day and the backing is statistics. The data, warrant, backing and conclusion are overtly expressed but the qualifier is not.

This is a simple argument.

Dragoș uses the figures in a manipulative manner: he implies that the trainees' professional objective can be achieved if they know it, write it down, and look at it every day. The numbers are presented in a cunning way – only 20% of the trainees write their objectives down, none of the remaining 80% meeting their initial objective. Out of the 20% of those who have written it down and displayed it in a very visible place, 5% succeed, which is actually a very low figure considering the initial number of trainees. Dragoș quickly moves to the ONE person who becomes a billionaire within a year, which concludes his argument.

The argument is simple but the use of very many numbers makes it seems rather complex. As the trainees' reaction indicates ("we are satisfied

with a few hundred thousand"), Dragoș manages to obtain their agreement in terms of the difficulty of becoming very rich.

The manager starts by asking the trainees to write their objective down in a very emphatic way – "I ask you to put down this objective" and resorting to several negative sentences: "if you don't put it down", "they don't remember their objective any more". He uses antonymic terms – "certainly" and "low chances", "achieve" and "do not remember", as well as adverbial clauses of cause – "people not writing their objective will not remember it because they change their opinion", and "so that" in order to conclude, in an apparently logical way, that writing the objective down entails professional success.

The function of this argument is to motivate the trainees to work hard during the course and to make them feel responsible for their professional success, thus decreasing the responsibility of the training team.

In Example 3, the school inspector ends his presentation by stating that he would like to make sure that the evaluation team's recommendations will be implemented; he adds that the next inspection, due in a month's time, will check whether the school has taken measures in order to do that.

Example 3.b The school report
Victor: în încheiere↓ pentru ca această acţiune pe care am întreprins-o noi↓ inspectoratul şcolar să aibă FINALITATE↓ şi ca activitatea domne'astră să se îmbunătăţească continuu↓ în acest semestru↓ ((cineva tuşeşte)) am programat o inspecţie de REVEnire↓ cu acceaşi tematică↓ pentru: miercuri↓ doi aprilie două mii↓ opt ## .când IARĂŞI voi veni şi cu↓ o echipă să VEDEM dacă din ceea ce v-am recomandat ↓ s-a realizat ((cineva tuşeşete)) sau a rămas numa' la stadiu de probă. Io cu acestea am încheiat raportu.# (Gheorghe, Măda and Săftoiu 2009: 88)
English translation:
Victor: to conclude↓ so that this action we, the school inspectorate have undertaken ↓ should be PURPOSEFUL↓ and so that your activity improve continuously↓in this semester↓ ((somebody coughs)) we have scheduled a second inspection↓ on the same topic↓ for Wednesday↓ second of April two thousand and ↓ eight ## .when AGAIN I'll return with a team to SEE whether out of our recommendations ↓something has been achieved ((somebody coughs)) or things have remained only at the testing stage. with this I have concluded my report.#

Victor announces the end of his report and justifies the next inspection, scheduled in April.

The argument is structured as follows: the data are that the evaluation has to be purposeful, the conclusion being that there should be a further inspection. The warrant is not explicitly expressed but Victor suggests that it is the case that the evaluation team's recommendations are

not always implemented, which makes the second inspection necessary. The backing is his decision and there is no rebuttal.

The end of the report reveals a different characteristic of the evaluation report, namely the evaluation team's administrative authority. Victor mentions two reasons for the second inspection – the team's activity has to be purposeful and the school activity should continuously improve. This last argument is a decision that is justified by the inspector's authority.

The argument is a coordinate one – the second inspection is accounted for by the inspectorate's decision and to benefit the school.

Linguistically, Victor uses the 1st personal pronoun in the plural, to indicate that he speaks on the behalf of the evaluation team ("so that this action we, the school inspectorate have undertaken ↓ should be PURPOSEFUL") and also the 1st personal pronoun in the singular, combined with the use of "our" when he states that he will return with an inspection team: "AGAIN I'll return with a team to SEE whether out of our recommendations ↓something has been achieved ((somebody coughs)) or things have remained only at the testing stage". There seems to be opposition between the inspector and the school as it appears that the school needs being inspected again to make sure that they implement the recommendations. Victor includes the adverb "again", which he also pronounces more emphatically to indicate that he warns the teaching staff of his return and he concludes by presenting the two options the school has – to implement the recommendations of the evaluation or to leave things at a test stage.

The function of the argument is to warn the school to implement the recommendations.

4 Conclusions

In neither of the situations are the speakers contradicted by their audience – in the training course because the participants lack the professional knowledge and in the school report because there is a difference in terms of power. There is no open conflict of opinions expressed.

The arguments used by the two speakers display both similarities and differences.

In terms of the structure of the argument, the similarities are that both Dragoş and Victor usually back up their arguments, but Dragoş does this in a more covert way. Neither of the speakers uses rebuttals, with one exception, Victor's argument 2b. In terms of differences, Victor always

makes overt claims whereas Dragoş makes more covert ones. Dragoş usually provides warrants and backings, which come from a wider range of source – psychology, statistics, personal experience. Victor's arguments usually have warrants while the backing is represented mainly by regulations and authority. The backings appeal to a wider range of sources in Dragoş's case – psychology, statistics, personal experience, while Victor mainly supports his arguments by listing names, dates, regulations or official standards. Unlike Dragoş, who often expresses his own point of view to back his arguments, Victor maintains a neutral attitude, rarely expressing his opinion, particularly in the situations where the evaluation did not yield good results for the school.

The training manager's arguments are elaborately set up and organized in such a way as to persuade the trainees that the course is good and meets their future professional needs. The school inspector's arguments aim to persuade the teachers that although the overall results of the report are good, there are areas that need improving.

In terms of argument types, the difference is that Dragoş resorts to coordinate and complex ones, while Victor selects coordinate and simple ones.

Linguistically, Dragoş uses a wider range of linguistic strategies – interrogative and negative sentences, epithets and metaphors, while Victor resorts to negative sentences, impersonal structure and the use of 1st personal pronoun singular or plural, usually exclusive.

The overall functions of the arguments in the two situations is different: Dragoş's arguments aim at persuading the trainees that the course is of high quality and delivered by professional trainers and that it depends entirely on the trainees to become successful insurance agents. His arguments are very carefully sequenced: Dragoş starts from the participants' expectations and end with the responsibility that the participants have. He starts by putting the participants at ease, then persuades them of the quality of the course and the trainers' professionalism, attempts to convince that they should have reasonable expectation from the course and finally makes them feel fully responsible for their future professional success.

Victor's arguments aim at persuading the teachers of the thoroughness and efficiency of the evaluation. Both speakers use argumentation in order to present themselves to their audience as good professionals and logical people.

The introductory part of the training session can be considered a fully argumentative text, while the school report is a text combining

features of argumentation and presentation, with presentation having a bigger share

One of the main reasons for the difference in style can be explained by the fact that Dragoş represents the private environment, where the clients have to be persuaded of the value of the course, while the school is an institution subordinated to the school inspectorate, where the relations of power are very clearly marked.

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Appendix

Transcribing Conventions
Intonation:

↓	falling intonation
↑	rising intonation
#	pause
<@>	laughter simultaneous with speaking
<z>	smile simultaneous with speaking
<R>	fast speech rate
<xxx>	unclear text
[...]	words not transcribed
TEXT	emphasis
?	sentence rising intonation

(The conventions are those used by Ionescu-Ruxăndoiu (2002)).

LABELLING IN THE DICTIONARY
OF THE ROMANIAN LANGUAGE

RALUCA SINU

Abstract: Considered an important part of the entry, labels are used to supplement or clarify the information provided in the definition. The aim of this article is to examine the labelling system in the two parts that make up the Dictionary of the Romanian Language, the most comprehensive Romanian monolingual dictionary to date. The purpose of the inquiry reported here is twofold, on the one hand, it considers the lexicographers' attitude towards labels as reflected in the introductions included in the dictionary front matter, and, on the other, it examines entries extracted from the dictionary in order to determine the prevalent types of labels, the way they are used, and the differences between the treatment of labels in the two parts.

Keywords: lexicographic marking, monolingual dictionary, group label, register label

1 Introduction

As Brewer (2015, 488) notes, "dictionary makers have realized that a definition alone is not enough to characterize a word. Their readers need more information than this if they are to understand the words that a dictionary defines, in order to appreciate the connotations that a word has in context, and to be able to use the word effectively themselves". For this purpose, most dictionaries implement a diasystematic marking system (Svensén 2009). For Svensén (2009, 315), marking "implies that a certain lexical item deviates in a certain respect from the main bulk of items described in a dictionary and that its use is subject to some kind of restriction". The author distinguishes between *marking*, i.e. any way of signalling the information, and *labelling,* i.e. signalling the information through the use of labels. The latter will be of interest here, with very few mentions to alternative ways of marking.

The Dictionary of the Romanian Language (**DTLR**) is the most comprehensive monolingual dictionary in Romanian lexicography,

including 175,000 headwords explained across 17,885 pages. Work on the project started in 1906 and was completed in 2010. It consists of two distinguishable parts:

> one is the part compiled between 1906 and 1944; known as *The Academy's Dictionary* (**DA**, henceforth), it was originally released to the public in instalments and covered the letters A to De and F to most of L. Work on the remaining letters officially resumed fifteen years later, in 1959, and materialized in the second part of the dictionary, developed under the name of *The Dictionary of the Romanian Language* (**DLR**, henceforth). This name would eventually be extended to both concatenated parts of the nineteen-volume dictionary published in 2010. (Burada and Sinu 2020, 97)

Considering the long span of the project, it can be assumed that it reflects the history of modern lexicography in Romania. This is why we intend to use it as a source of information on the views that Romanian lexicographers hold on dictionary marking and on the use of labels in DA and DLR. In what follows, we will be focusing on two aspects: (1) the attitude towards marking displayed by the lexicographers involved in compiling DTLR, as illustrated in the introductive sections of the two parts of the dictionary; (2) the treatment of labels in DTLR in terms of types, form (abbreviated or not, between brackets or not), combinations with other labels or glosses.

2 Lexicographic labelling

Ptaszynski (2010, 411) considers that the "practice of labelling usage is very old and widespread in lexicography, as are problems connected with it". This is signalled also by the various terms used to refer to it: "diasystematic information" or "diasystematic marking" (Svensén 2009), "usage information" (Landau 1984/2001), "linguistic labels" (Atkins and Rundell 2008), "usage labels" (Hartmann and James 2002).

Landau (1984/2001, 217) discusses the concept of usage, referring to those aspects of usage that "are singled out by dictionaries as being limited to some part of the universe of speakers or writers, past or present, either by special notes or labels or by qualifications within definitions." Sometimes usage can also be explained with the help of usage notes, as remarked by Jackson (2003, 115). The forms labelling can take were also approached by Atkins and Rundell (2008, 403-404), who state that usually dictionary labels are single words or abbreviations, but sometimes labels are replaced by more discursive explanations attached to the end of the definition or inserted at the beginning of the definition. Thus, the authors

implicitly distinguish between usage labels and usage notes, whose purpose is the same, i.e. to provide usage information to support the reader. Ptaszynski (2010: 412) considers that restrictions are usually marked in the dictionary by means of labels placed within a dictionary entry, but "they can also be explicated in the more exhaustive usage notes, in definitions of headwords, or even in the front or back matter of the dictionary". Svensén (2009, 319) mentions the fact that in the past certain subject fields were marked by symbols, which he calls "iconic labelling", for example, an anchor was used to signal the nautical field, crossed swords marked the military field, etc.

The purpose of labels is to describe a lexical item by referring either to its form (e.g. diachronic, diatopic, diastratic), to its content, or to both of them (Svensén 2009, 318). The user may infer the aspects a label covers based on its position in the entry or based on the lexicographer's guidance, as illustrated in Example 1 below extracted from DA (1B) and DLR (1A).

Example 1
A. SUDÓR, -OÁRE
– Pl.: *sudori, -oare* – Şi: (învechit, rar) **sutór** s. m.
B. CINEVÀ pron. neh.
2. (Literar, după franţuzeşte) om de seamă, de valoare

In Example 1A the highlighted labels *old-fashioned* and *rare* (învechit, rar) refer to the bolded form *sutór*, and not to its meaning, whereas in 1B, the labels *literary* and *after French* (Literar, după franţuzeşte) refer to the meaning of the lexeme, and not to its form.

As for the types of marking, Svensén (2009, 316) adopts the classification proposed by Hausmann (1989) and describes eleven types: (1) diachronic (ranging from archaism to neologism), (2) diatopic (including regionalisms and dialectal words), (3) diaintegrative (indicating foreign words), (4) diamedial (ranging from spoken to written), (5) diastratic (referring to sociolects), (6) diaphasic (ranging from formal to informal), (7) diatextual (including poetic, literary, journalese), (8) diatechnical (signalling different professional jargons); (9) diafrequential (indicating the frequency of a word), (10) diaevaluative (showing that a word is connoted), and (11) dianormative (indicating that a word is incorrect). He draws attention to the marking of metaphorical use (figurative, literal, abstract) which, he argues, "strictly speaking (…) has nothing to do with the labelling system", but can be very important in differentiating between equivalents in bilingual dictionaries (Svensén 2009, 331-332).

Other sources classify usage labels into seven categories (Jackson, 2003), eight (Landau 1984/2001), or even ten (Atkins and Rundell 2008). In the first case, labels cover the following aspects: dialect, formality, status, effect, history, topic or field, disputed usage. In the second case, Landau (1984/2001, 217) mentions what he believes are the most common kinds of usage information: currency or temporality; regional or geographic variation; technical or specialized terminology; restricted or taboo sexual and scatological usage; insult; slang; and style, functional variety or register. The third source quoted above (Atkins and Rundell 2008) discusses the linguistic labels referring to domain, region, dialect, register, style, time, slang and jargon, attitude, offensive terms and meaning type (figurative). However, region and dialect are connected, and the same is true of register, slang and offensive terms.

Verkuyl et al. (2003, 299) distinguish between *group labels* (indicating that a word or word meaning is restricted in its use based on geographical, temporal, frequency and field considerations) and *register labels* (guiding users in deciding on the appropriateness of their use of language with respect to the context). The authors link the latter category with the figurative and the offensive use of words.

Svensén (2009: 316) believes that the labelling system "transforms a continuum to a set of degrees on a scale", which prompted Brewer (2015, 499) to caution that:

> lexicographical judgement must always intervene to draw the line. The problem for any individual dictionary, of course, is drawing the line in a way that all its potential users will understand and find helpful, while at the same time being consistent with (or at least aware of) judgements made on the same usages in other dictionaries.

Several authors have highlighted the problems associated with dictionary usage labels. One such problem is subjectivity: "because there are no agreed-on criteria for usage labelling, the issue of subjectivity cannot be ruled out, for the interpretation of labels in other dictionaries and the corpus context is itself dependent on the individual lexicographer" (Sawka 2011, 308). For Brewer (2015, 488), "labels have often reflected the subjective judgements of lexicographers, and dictionaries have differed in decisions about what sort of information to supply about which words." Sawka (2011) inventories two other problems of labelling in (English) lexicography, namely the lack of explanations for usage labels: lexicographers "simply embark on listing the labels assuming that users can discern the meaning by looking at the list of examples of usage labels or otherwise by looking at the dictionary articles, particularly at the entries assigned usage

labels and then automatically comprehending what is meant by usage, which may not be the case" (Sawka 2011, 310). Related to this, the author mentions the ambiguity in the use of labels: "The editors do not spell out what specific areas are covered by labels like *informal, nonstandard, slang, vulgar, disparaging, offensive …*" (Sawka 2011, 311). To solve this problem, Vrbinc and Vrbinc (2015, 444) recommend that

> all labels should be followed by a detailed explanation – one that the intended user will understand. In cases, where two different labels express similar connotative values, special care should be taken to explain the subtle differences as precisely as possible. The explanations should be short, concise and to the point, since a user should understand them immediately.

Consistency may also be a problem associated with the use of labels, as remarked by Hartmann and James (2002, 150), "dictionaries differ widely in the scope and consistency of their labelling practices". Other problems related to the use of abbreviated forms (especially in paper dictionaries) which might confuse the reader or prolong the search process, because the reader needs to check the front matter to determine what the abbreviated form stands for in the dictionary. Also, the fact that some labels occur between brackets might lead some users to believe they are unimportant or optional. Sawka (2011, 312) adds that:

> The combinations of usage labels assigned to words also sometimes pose as deterrents to clarity. It can be difficult to comprehend what exactly the lexicographer means by assigning two or more labels to a word.

Verkuyl et al. (2003) discuss the usefulness of labels in connection to their functions. They (2003, 307) claim that there is no "empirical evidence that monolingual writers in fact *do* use labels to adapt their lexical choices" (original emphasis), arguing that experienced dictionary users know the language too well to need the assistance of usage labels, whereas for inexperienced users, labels are difficult to interpret, even confusing, because of their positioning next to the grammatical information, their abbreviated form, the use of parentheses suggesting the information is of minor importance or optional, and even their content. Their conclusion is that "labels in their present form are not as helpful as one might assume" (Verkuyl et al. 2003, 310).

3 Labelling in DTLR

In this section we will look at the lexicographers' attitude towards and treatment of labels based on what they say in the introductory sections prefacing the two parts DTLR. This investigation will be complemented by an examination of over 80 randomly selected entries extracted from each part, from chosen pages under the letters A, B, C, G, I in DA, and M, P, R, S, Ş, Ţ, V, Z in DLR. All the labels found in the entries were taken into consideration; the other forms of marking will be only briefly mentioned.

3.1 What the lexicographers say about labelling in DTLR

In order to extract information about the marking system we relied mainly on the introductive sections in the dictionary front matter and partially on the list of abbreviations, because some of the labels are abbreviated while others are not. In the Introduction (1906) to DA, Puşcariu, the dictionary compiler, makes very few direct references to labels. Talking about the structure of the entry, the author states that the headword is followed by his grammatical definition and sometimes the category to which it belongs is specified, as in MĂLIN *s.m.* (Bot.) (= *masculine noun. Botanical term*)[1] (p. xxxix), which shows that the domain label was perceived as signalling the fact that the word belongs to a certain category.

Puşcariu also mentions that semasiological explanations are often indicated only by *fig*. = figurative, *p. ext.* = by extension (p. xxxix). However, the author discusses several categories of words and their treatment in the dictionary, and we find those categories marked in the entries, for example, popular and old words (p. xvi), neologisms (p. xix), regional forms (p. xxiii), literary uses (p. xxv, p. xxix).

The situation is similar in the Introduction to the second part, DLR (1959), that discusses several categories of words, such as archaisms and neologisms, regionalisms, colloquialisms (p. vi), marked in the dictionary. The lexicographers also present the general semantic processes taken into consideration, namely the move from the proper meaning to the figurative one, analogy, extension and restriction, the move from concrete to abstract, and from abstract to concrete, specialization and generalization (p. ix). When discussing the normative nature of the dictionary, the lexicographers mention the fact that it was imperative to indicate the deviations from the standard language[2] (p. xiii).

From a stylistic point of view, "although the aim of the dictionary was not to investigate the stylistic distribution of the Romanian lexicon, it contains such observations, but only in order to differentiate among the values of the words" ³ (p. xiv). The stylistic observations in the dictionary are performed using the following labels (p. xiv): *neobișnuit* (unusual), which signals that the forms and meanings are isolated, used sparingly; *rar* (rare), to mark the words which were found only once in the dictionary material, usually personal creations; *familiar*; *peiorativ* (pejorative) or *glumeț* (jocular); *figurativ* (figurative), without specifying the figure of speech; or the source language in the case of borrowings.

Most of the items in the lists of abbreviations of DA and DLR are geographical indications and domain labels. In addition, DA also includes the usage labels: fam. (familiar), fig. (figurative), N. (neologism), peior. (pejorative), poet. (poetic), and vulg. (vulgar), while DLR gives only the label fig. (figurative) as an abbreviation. According to their lists of abbreviations, the two parts also mark the changes suffered by the meaning as follows: (a) in DA – gen. (generalizat, în general = generalized, in general), p. ext. (prin extensiune = by extension), p. anal. (prin analogie = by analogy), Spec. (în special, specializat = especially, specialized); in DLR – p. anal. (prin analogie = by analogy), p. ext. (prin extensiune = by extension), p. gener. (prin generalizare = by generalization), p. restr. (prin restricție = by restriction), spec. (prin specializare = by specialization).

3.2 Describing the use of labels in DTLR

In this section we will describe a small-scale study concerning the use of labels in several entries that we examined, i.e. around 100 from DA, and 80 from DLR. The various categories of labels discussed by Svensén (2009) will be illustrated with the examples extracted from each part, in order to highlight the similarities and differences, if any, in their treatment from one part to the other.

Geographic labels provide diatopic information, they indicate the fact that certain linguistic elements are specific to a given region, they are marked as *regional* or *dialect* or the entry is labelled with the name of the region or province where the element is encountered. In other words, these labels "provide metalinguistic information that indicates the geographical extension of a given word or sense or usage in relation to the totality of linguistic space described in the dictionary" (Roberts 2007, 291).

DA uses the abbreviation *Dial.* for dialectal but, more frequently, it indicates marking by the name of the province or the region in abbreviated

form (sometimes preceded by the preposition *în* = in), for example, Transilv. (Transylvania), Ban. (Banat), Bucov. (Bucovina), Mold. (Moldavia), etc. Sometimes the marking is even more specific, indicating the province and the county, e.g. (Ban., Mehedinți = the province of Banat, Mehedinți county), or the town and the region, e.g. (Văleni, în Muscel = the region of Văleni, the town of Muscel), or the geographical space, e.g. (În Munții-apuseni = in the West Carpathians).

DLR makes frequent use of the unabbreviated label *Regional*, and of the names of the provinces abbreviated in the same way as indicated above for DA; these, however, seem to be less widely used. The name of the province/region is commonly preceded by the preposition *prin* = through, in (see Example 3A below). In both dictionaries these labels occur between brackets as shown in the examples below.

Example 2

A. **GÓRNIC** s. m. 2. (Ban., Transilv.) 3. (În Munții-apuseni)	C. **GOȘTEÁNĂ** s. f. (Munții-apuseni)
B. **ABAGÉR** *s. m.* [Dial. și † și: *abageriu*]	D. **GOST** s. m. (Sârbism, în Ban.)

Although the three lexemes illustrated in Example 2A, 2C and 2D above occur on two consecutive pages of the dictionary, we notice an inconsistency in the use of labels: 2A (În Munții-apuseni) "in the West Carpathians", 2C (Munții-apuseni) "West Carpathians". Also, 2D (în Ban.) "in Banat", whereas 2A simply states "Ban." (Banat – a region of Romania), inconsistency which may be due to the fact that in 2D we have a combination of two labels marking nationality (Serbian) and place (in Banat), and the lexicographer may have wanted to distinguish between them by adding the preposition in front of the toponym.

DLR marks the province where the word is used (see Example 2A below), but not the county or town where the lexeme was recorded. However, occasionally it indicates the cardinal point of the province where the word is most encountered as shown in 3B below, where the lexeme is marked by (Prin nordul Mold.) "in the north of Moldovia"; this is followed by a gloss indicating collocational pattern "the object [of the verb] is the oral cavity of the horse".

Example 3

A. SUDOÁRE s. f.
3. (Prin Ban., prin Transilv. şi prin Mold.)
B. ZÂMBRUÍ vb.
(Prin nordul Mold.; complementul este cavitatea bucală a calului)

At times the geographical information takes the form of a sentence, not a simple label, for example, **ABAGÉR** *s. m.* = **abagìu**. Se aude în Moldova (Used in Moldavia), which could have been conveyed by the label (în Mold.). Or **AOLEÁLĂ** s. f. – În unele părţi din Muntenia (Ilfov, Prahova, Ialomiţa) *aoleală* = (followed by the definition), where the information "In some parts of Muntenia (names of counties)" could have been rendered as (în Munt.: *aoleală*).

Domain labels signal that a word belongs to a "particular technolect or subject field" (Svensén 2009, 328). They are very diverse in both parts of DTLR, including Arhit. (Architectural), Bis. (Church), Bot. (Botanical), Chir. (Surgery), Comerc. (Commercial), Chim. (Chemistry), Entom. (Entomology), Fizic. (Physics), Gram. (Grammar), Jur. (Legal), Mat. (Mathematics), Med. (Medical), Mil. (Military), Ornit. (Ornithology), Teol. (Theology), Zool. (Zoology). Only two labels, found in DA, are not abbreviated, i.e. "Oierit" [4] (sheep farming); "Marină" [5] (Navy). At times the domain label is further specified with the help of a gloss, for instance **ARHIMANDRÍT** s. m. (Bis.) (În biserica ortodoxă) = (Church) (In the Orthodox Church).

This diatechnical marking can apply both to the expression and to the content. For the adjective **ABSOLUT, -Ă** (absolute) each of the labels illustrates the fact that the meaning which follows it belongs to a particular field, e.g. (Gram.), (Fizic.), (Chim.). If there is one domain label placed in front of the definition(s), then it can be said that the lexeme belongs to that field, e.g. **GORÍLĂ** s. f. (Zool.).

In terms of the number of forms, at the other end of the spectrum of group labels we find the **temporal and frequency labels**: they are used many times, but take very few forms. Temporal labels provide diachronic information, usually indicating old forms or usages. Both DA and DLR use "învechit" (old-fashioned), and they also use the adverbial "today" (astăzi, azi), as illustrated in 4B and 4F below, to mark a contemporary use, which is different from the traditionally recorded use, the latter being considered the norm and most often remaining unmarked. As a degree of old-fashioned, DA also employs "până de curând" (until recently) and "în trecut" (in the past), as seen in 4C. Although not present in our pool of

examples, the list of abbreviations of DA also includes N. for neologism, as mentioned above (see 3.1).

Example 4

DA	DLR
A. CINEVÀ pron. neh. 3. (învechit) **cinevàși**	**D. MEÁT** s. n. – Pl.: *meaturi* și (învechit) *meate*
B. ARHISTRÁTIG † s.m. 1. (Astăzi, rar)	**E. MEASER, -Ă** adj. (Învechit)
C1. CAL s. m. 3. b) (Brașov, până de curând) **C2. ȚĂRANCĂ**[1] s. f. 2. (Familiar; în trecut)	**F. MÎNCÁ** vb. (Azi familiar)

Diachronic marking is also achieved in DA with the help of the iconic symbol †, which signals that "the word or meaning in question is no longer in use"[6]. It can refer to (i) the base form of a word as in Example 2B, where it combines with the label Dial.; (ii) a particular meaning, as in "**ACADEMÍE** s. f. 1. † Școală înaltă...", where it marks the fact that only the first meaning is obsolete; (iii) both form and meaning, as in **GORNÍȚĂ** † s. f. = **cerdac** (veranda). This iconic symbol is not employed in DLR.

Frequency labels show that a word is used more often or more sparingly than the norm. They are featured in many entries, but they mainly take one form, i.e. "rar" (rare), with the variation "Cuvânt rar" (rare word) exemplified in 5A.

Example 5

DA	DLR
A. ABĂTĂTÚRĂ *s. f.* – Cuvânt rar.	**D. MACARONADĂ** s. f. (Rar)
B. ALCĂTUÍ vb. [*Alcătuésc*, rar: *alcătuiu*]	**E. MĂGULEALĂ** s. f. (învechit, rar) măguliciune
C. BARABOÍU s. m. 5. = (Rar) cărbuni	**G. MÎNCÁCI, -E** s. f. (Neobișnuit)

As shown in examples 4 and 5, temporal and frequency labels may apply to the form or the meaning of the lexeme: 4A introduces an old-fashioned compound of the entry word, while 4D records an old-fashioned plural form of the lexeme. Similarly, 5A and 5D are rarely used words, 5B illustrates a rare inflectional form of the lemma, whereas 5E signals a form which is both rare and old-fashioned. On the other hand, 4C records an old meaning of the word, referring to "the quantity of fish that could be loaded onto a horse", 4E refers to both old form and meaning, and 4F to a

meaning that was colloquial at that time. In the same way, the label in 5C marks a rare meaning of the headword.

An interesting label is *neobişnuit* (unusual), featured only in DLR, which signals that the forms and meanings are used sparingly, as explained in the Introduction section of DLR quoted in 3.1 above. Example 4G illustrates an uncommon derivative of the verb *a mînca* (to eat), the adjectival form *mîncaci* (gluttonous) is much less frequent than its synonym *mîncăcios,* but the former is included in the dictionary because it was found in source texts. Although DA does not use this label, it also signals uncommon occurrences. For example, for BARAGLÁDINĂ, the lexicographers add in the entry the short note "Găsim şi forma neobicĭnuită: baragládin" (We can also find the uncommon form: baragládin).

Diaintegrative information is also provided in both parts. The labels signal the fact that a particular word was the result of borrowing. In 2D above, the use of a word borrowed from Serbian is signalled as "Sârbism", also GOSPODÍN is marked as "Slavonism" (word borrowed from Slavic). In DLR MANUFÁCT is marked as "Germanism" (word borrowed from German), while MACARÓN is marked as "Franţuzism" (word borrowed from French). Interestingly, this labelling is provided in addition to the etymological information, which also makes use of abbreviated forms.

As far as normativity is concerned, **dianormative labels** are used to signal "words and expressions whose acceptability is questioned as regards linguistic correctness", according to Svensén (2009, 331). The author states that this is a feature of monolingual dictionaries, and it reflects either the purist efforts of certain languages, such as French, or in learner's dictionaries, the care taken by lexicographers to inform the users about substandard or non-standard forms and meanings, most commonly with the help of usage notes. This type of marking occurs only in DLR where the label "impropriu" (improper) is used. It precedes an incorrect synonym of PROFÉSOR, -OÁRĂ = teacher (Example 6A) and the misuses of the verb VEDEÁ (to see) applied to sources of light or to glasses (Example 6B): (Improper, about sources of light), (Improper, about glasses).

Example 6

A. PROFÉSOR, -OÁRĂ subst. (Impropriu) Învăţător
B. VEDEÁ[3] vb. (Impropriu, despre surse de lumină) (Impropriu, despre ochelari)

The category of **register labels** (Verkuyl et al. 2003) lumps together stylistic and attitudinal markers. The former, diastratic markers, include information about the medium, the socio-cultural context, the level of formality, the text types; the latter, diaevaluative markers, signal subjective *attitude* (cf. Svensén 2009). Among the labels used to mark the style, Svensén (2009, 327-328) identifies the oppositions: spoken vs. written language, formal vs. informal language, as well as "sociolects (e.g. slang, different kinds of jargon), language varieties typical to certain text types (e.g. journalese, literary language, poetic language)". As for diaevaluative marking, labels are used to clarify the fact that a word or expression can be humorous, ironic, derogatory, pejorative, etc.

This category of labels is represented by a small number of items in DTLR. Thus, in DA, in the entries examined, the following labels were identified: (Fam.) and (În limbaj familiar) [Colloquial and In colloquial language] which mark colloquial language; Poet. and (literar) [poetic and literary] which refer to text type; (Popular) and vulg. (vulgar) which refer to sociolects. DA also provides information about attitude, but it is usually embedded in the definition as illustrated in Example 7 below.

Example 7

> AOLÉU interj., subst.
> Se întrebuinţează de multe ori în glumă şi în ironie.
> [It is often used humorously and ironically.]
> Se întrebuinţează aproape numai în ironie.
> [It is almost always used ironically.]

In DLR, there is a greater variety of labels used to signal attitude, e.g. (Glumeţ), (Depreciativ), (Peiorativ) [Humorous, Disparaging, Pejorative]; text type, e.g. livresc [literary]; the socio-cultural context, e.g. (Popular); and colloquial language, e.g. (Familiar). It is worth mentioning that labels such as Popular and Familiar are quite difficult to define and interpret, because, according to Hartmann and James (2002, 23), they can be placed on several scales: "formality ('informal' in opposition to 'formal'), medium ('speech' in opposition to 'writing'), or social status ('slang' rather than 'genteel')", which might make their treatment inconsistent across dictionaries.

Example 8

DA	DLR
A. CINEVÀ pron. neh. (popular, familiar) **cinevấșile(a)**	**C. ROMÁN, -Ă** s. m. și f., adj. – Pl.: *români, -e* – Și: (învechit și popular) **rumán, -ă**
B. INGINÉR s. m. (În limbaj familiar)	**D. MĂGĂRÍ** vb. 1. (Familiar)

In Example 8A and 8C the label "popular" applies to the formal aspect of the lemma, signalling a non-standard form, while in 8B and 8D "familiar" refers to the meaning side.

Although *figurative* and *metaphorical* are generally considered usage labels, for Svensén (2009, 331), they have "nothing to do with the labelling system", as mentioned earlier (see 2 above). However, the author concedes that the marking for changes in meaning "often has the form of labels, and its function is partly similar to that of labels" (2009, 332). The label (Fig.) - *Figurative* can be found both in DA and in DLR. In DA the figurative meaning may also be indicated within the definition as seen in Example 9A below: "3. Figuratively, thoughts can also stray", and "4. Abandoning the road or (figuratively) an older action". DA uses Metaforic – *Metaphorical* as well to mark the metaphorical extension of meaning.
As indicated in 3.1, the two dictionary parts mark changes in meaning, some of which are underlined in Example 9 below.

Example 9

DA	DLR
A. ABÁTE s. m. I. 1. *Spec.* 3. În sens figurat poate exista și o abatere a gândului. 4. Părăsirea drumului, sau (în mod figurat) a acțiunii vechi…	**C. MÎNCA** vb. 1. Fig. (Învechit și popular; complementul indică oamenii, popoare) 2. (Prin analogie, despre oameni)
B. ABSOLUTÍSM s. a. 3. *Prin ext.*	**D. ȘRAPNÉL** s. m. P. restr.

From the point of view of the form and presentation of labels, their treatment is quite inconsistent. As the above examples show, some of the labels are given in full, while others are abbreviated; some are presented in brackets, others are not. There are also cases in which labels share the brackets with other labels, with grammatical information or with glosses, as seen in Example 10 below.

Example 10

DA	
A. ARHISTRÁTIG † s.m. 1. (Astăzi, rar)	temporal label: *today* + frequency label: *rare*
B. BARÁC, -ă subst. (Rar; numai despre câni)	frequency label: *rare* + gloss: *only about dogs*
C. BÂRÂÉC s. m. (Rar, în Mold.)	frequency label: *rare* + geographic label: *in Moldavia*
DLR	
D. MÎNCA vb. 2. (În imprecații, adesea glumeț) (Refl.; regional)	gloss: *in imprecations* + register label: *often jocular*; grammatical information: *reflexive* + geographical label: *regional*
E. MANUDÚCERE s. f. (Învechit, livresc, prin Transilv.)	temporal label: *old* + register label: *literary* + geographical label: *in Transylvania*

In addition, labels are not the only form of marking; there are also usage explanations in the definitions, with or without brackets, such as the case of Example 7 and 9A above from DA, among others.

4 Conclusions

The focus of this paper has been twofold: on the one hand, it looked at the way lexicographers view the issue of usage labels in DA and in DLR. On the other hand, using a small-scale survey of various entries in the two parts of the dictionary, it attempted to formulate some observations concerning the way labels are treated in DTLR in terms of types, form (abbreviated or not, between brackets or not), combinations with other labels or glosses.

The fact that the issue of usage labels is not explicitly discussed in the introductions, unlike other elements of the entry (e.g. definition, etymology), may be interpreted as evidence for the acceptance of this type of information as a common part of the entry. Lexicographers seem to believe that the labels used, mostly as abbreviations, will not pose any problems to the dictionary users. In fact, very few labels are explained in the introductions, most of them register labels, which are traditionally more difficult to interpret.

The survey reported here shows that all types of labels discussed in the literature are present in both parts. Domain and geographical labels are widely used and take very many forms, while temporal and frequency

labels also occur on numerous occasions but they take very few forms. As for register labels, they too are used frequently, along with the indications of changes in meaning. In both DA and DLR, labels provide information about the form and/or the meaning of the lemma, most of them are presented in abbreviated form, but some are used in full, most are placed between brackets, but some are not, especially Fig. and indications of changes in meaning, as seen in Example 9 above. Those labels used between brackets are sometimes accompanied by other labels of other elements of the entry (mostly grammatical information or glosses). Usage indications may also be provided within the entry, see Example 7 or 9A, under the form of full sentences or in bracketed or unbracketed form.

In terms of labelling, there are few minor differences between the two parts, for example, DA sometimes uses explanations to convey information that could have been rendered by means of labels, as in the case of geographic or frequency information. Also, DA uses an icon to cover the temporal dimension, not found in DLR. More register labels are present in DLR than in DA; instead, DA uses more notes to convey information about style and formality, as seen in Examples 7 and 9 above. Overall, it could be stated that labels reflect what lexicographers believe to be important for the user to know in addition to the definition. Thus, the treatment of the labels should be dependent on the users' profiles and on their needs. However, given the duration of the project and its composite nature, DTLR is a special case: "DA is described as an explanatory, historical, and etymological dictionary", while DLR is categorized as "a monolingual, general, explanatory dictionary" (Burada and Sinu, 2020, 2020, 100, 101). This makes it difficult to identify the profile of its users and their needs, which conceivably have changed in time, along with the lexicographers' assumptions about them. Today, due to its size (18 volumes) and the wealth of information it supplies, DTLR is a tool geared more readily to use by specialists, rather than by the general public; this may account for the lack of further explanations for the treatment of labels, explanations which could have been added in the front matter of the completed project.

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List of abbreviations

DA = Puşcariu, Sextil et al. 1913–1949. *Dicţionarul limbii române (A-De, F-Lojniţă)*. Bucharest: Academia Română/Socec/Universul.

DLR = Iordan, Iorgu et al. 1965–2010. *Dicţionarul limbii române. Serie nouă (D-E; L-Z)*, Bucharest: Academia Română/Editura Academiei Române.

DTLR = *Dicţionarul tezaur al limbii române* (1913-2010). Bucharest: Editura Univers.

Endnotes

[1] "După cuvântul pus ca titlu urmează definiția lui gramaticală, și une-ori, specificarea categoriei de care se ține; MĂLIN *s.m.* (Bot.) (= *substantiv masculin. Termin botanic*)" (Introduction to DA 1906, p. xxxix)

[2] "(…) indicarea îndepărtărilor de la limba literară se impunea în mod expres" (Introduction to DLR 1959, p. xiii)

[3] "Deși dicționarul nostrum nu și-a propus să cerceteze repartizarea stilistică a vocabularului românesc, el face precizări de felul acesta, dar numai spre a diferenția valorile cuvintelor." (Introduction to DLR 1959, p. xiv)

[4] applied to the lexeme "bârâi" = to call out to sheep using the interjection *bâr, bâr!*

[5] applied to the lexeme "acalmie" = calm before the storm

[6] "Crucea arată că vorba sau înțelesul respectiv a ieșit din uz." (p. LI)

CHAPTER III:

LANGUAGE TEACHING AND ACQUISITION

Language Teaching and Acquisition: Introduction

Oana Tatu

As the title suggests, the contributions included in this chapter explore a variety of vantage points subsumed to current concerns of the educational process as a whole, or specifically to the teaching and learning of English for Specific Purposes. The topics range from finding strategies of tailoring the teaching process to the students' learning needs, of complying with these needs or trying to refine them, to integrating novel means of educating, such as virtual exchange and mobile technology, all with a view to ensuring language acquisition.

A field of study in its own right, English for Medical Purposes is nowadays a *sine qua non* instrument for medical students and graduates. Starting from here, the article entitled **English for Medical Purposes: Specific Needs and Challenges** (Ecaterina Pavel) adopts a needs-analysis perspective, and aims to look into and assess the learning needs of a target group, with a view to improving the input technique and rendering the acquisition skills more effective. The answers elicited via a questionnaire the author applied to former and current medical students allowed for a better comprehension of the evolution of the linguistic needs of professionals in the medical field. The findings of the article suggest means of coping with students' needs, and make a plea for increased flexibility as far as the course priorities and the selection of materials are concerned.

In the same vein, **Learning Task-Types for Engineering Students: from Teacher's Intention to Students' Assessment** (Cristina Vâlcea) investigates, from a case-study perspective, the extent to which the teaching objectives overlap with the students' learning needs. The author administers a questionnaire to 2nd year engineering students and elicits answers retrospectively to questions regarding the usefulness of representative learning tasks they have worked through over the span of one semester. The findings of the questionnaire, and implicitly of the study, indicate that there is a discrepancy between what the teacher deems as useful and what the students do so; the task hierarchy that resulted from

the students' comments on the usefulness of specific task types generates, on the part of the teacher, a fresh perspective on teaching techniques, on adjusting them to the students' needs, as well as on finding ways to educate the students' taste for efficient rather than popular learning tasks.

Still within the ambit of teachers' flexibility, **The Role of Error Correction in English Language Teaching** (Adrian Bușu) aims at finding the optimal means of dealing with error correction, one of the most frequently employed strategies of learning a foreign language. By conducting a study that involves first year students in Automation and Applied Informatics, the author highlights that, even though the principal purpose of teachers is to ensure the correct assimilation of language input, the ultimate goal of the educational process should always be focused on encouraging students to actively and uninhibitedly participate in class, and be aware of the potential of English as a communication channel. Hence, as the author points out, continuous error correction is to be avoided, and teachers should customize their teaching strategies, and work along with students on identifying the source of errors and the best mechanism of self-correction.

Since the ultimate goal of education is the students' personal development, teachers should always be on the lookout for new and more efficient means through which they could assist students in achieving their goal. In this spirit, **Virtual Exchange in Education and Beyond. An Overview** (Gabriela Tutunea) makes considerations on the complexity of Virtual Exchange as an online teaching and learning strategy. Particularly during the COVID-19 pandemic, when the entire educational process had to rapidly adjust to new needs, Virtual Exchange has proved its reliability as an educational instrument with the huge potential of connecting countries and cultures by means of online teaching and learning tasks. The author shows that, as a framework of social interaction, Virtual Exchange promotes intercultural communicative competence and collaboration, thus taking the educational process out of the confinement of the traditional classroom.

Circumscribed within the same area of novel educational instruments, an often discussed topic is that of the extent to which mobile devices are employed by students in learning English either in formal or informal situations. This is the main concern of the article entitled **Mobile Technology for ESP Students: Usage and Attitudes** (Alexandra Stan), a study that relies on a questionnaire administered to students in Silviculture and Forest Engineering, covering issues such as: their actual use of mobile devices, the types of mobile devices they use for English learning purposes, the frequency and aims of using them, and the students' perception

of the usefulness of such devices as far as the learning of a foreign language is concerned. The results of the study open further venues for discussion regarding the possibility of integrating mobile devices in formal and informal educational settings, with a view to assisting the teaching-learning process, at least where foreign languages are the target.

ENGLISH FOR MEDICAL PURPOSES: SPECIFIC NEEDS AND CHALLENGES

ECATERINA PAVEL

Abstract: English is nowadays the universal language of medical communication worldwide, just as Greek and Latin were in the past. Hence, it is an essential requirement for a medical career, which has led to the emergence of a new branch of ESP (English for Specific Purposes): English for Medical Purposes (EMP). Teaching EMP has been continuously adapted in order to meet the specific needs of students. The aim of this research paper is to investigate these exact needs and the challenges Romanian students face when learning EMP as opposed to learning general English. With a view to exploring this matter, a survey of 45 items was developed and applied to 1st- and 2nd-year students at the Faculty of Medicine, Transilvania University of Brașov, and to former students and medical professionals. This article presents the data obtained and constitutes a first step in dealing with these challenges. Moreover, the findings also generate a point of departure for designing a more adapted course of EMP.

Keywords: English for Special Purposes, English for Medical Purposes, needs analysis, needs assessment, course design

1 Introduction

English for Medical Purposes (EMP) has grown into a field within English for Special Purposes (ESP); it focuses on the detailed teaching/learning of English pursuant to a functional aim: complementing the medical training and making effective use of the language for medicine-related tasks (taking a medical history, writing case reports, communicating with patients and fellow doctors, writing and presenting research papers, etc.). Thus, EMP classes should "focus on a restricted range of skills which may be required by the medical learner" (Maher 1986, 119). The first step in this approach would be to ascertain the needs of medical students. In fact, needs analysis plays a fundamental role in course design, as it is "the process of establishing the what and how of a course" (Dudley-Evans and

St John 1998, 121), and a growing number of studies have acknowledged its significance in the past decades (Munby 1978; Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Berwick 1989; Brindley 1989; Robinson 1991; West 1994; Brown 1995; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Hamp-Lyons 2001; Finney 2002; Belcher et al. 2011 – to name only a few).

The present article aims to investigate and evaluate the learning needs of first- and second-year students majoring in four specializations (General Medicine, General Nursing, Balneo-Physio-Kinesiotherapy and Recuperation, and Clinical Laboratory) at the Faculty of Medicine of Transilvania University of Brasov. By setting a quantitative framework for the assessment of the students' needs, I attempted to compare and contrast three parameters: the teacher's perception of students' needs, the students' understanding of their own needs, and the actual challenges of real-life situations. The answers to the applied questionnaire offered some valuable insight into how to assist students in acquiring both the specific knowledge and the communication skills essential in the medical profession, a process which might differ substantially from the methodology of teaching general English (Gatehouse 2001).

In order to tailor the pedagogical strategies to the students' needs and specific challenges, I have focused on a few fundamental questions: What are the specific needs of medical students? What are the challenges they face when learning EMP? How could an EMP course be improved, considering these challenges and needs?

2 Needs analysis and needs assessment

Needs assessment has become the sine qua non for conferring legitimacy to the process of exploring and adopting the most appropriate teaching methods. From the informal needs analyses performed by teachers on their target groups, measuring specific parameters, to the comprehensive theoretical research frameworks elaborated by different scholars, the process has proved to be of indisputable importance. Its utility resides in the fact that undertaking a needs analysis provides a documented basis for "determining and refining the content and method of the ESP course" (Basturkmen 2010, 19). But what exactly does needs analysis stand for and which are the tools for its effective application?

2.1 Needs

As understood today, needs analysis study has been developed in several stages, starting more systematically with Munby's model of

"communication needs processor" (CNP) in 1978. An essential point in the evolution of the theories of needs analysis was the research conducted by Chambers (1980), in which he raised some pertinent problems regarding the volatility of the term *need*. Writing about needs, Chambers (1980, 26) noticed the ambiguity and imprecision of the circulating concept, where various meanings of the term (ranging from "necessity" to "desire") involved conflicting or inconsistent uses: "This terminological inexactitude has permitted a profusion of related but not identical items being commonly referred to as 'needs', requirements, or objectives, and being treated as if they were all more or less identical."

Four decades later, scholars and teachers still have to operate with a plethora of definitions and categories of needs, which are, in fact, conceptual variations built on several criteria: objectivity/subjectivity, reason/purpose, perspective, process. Needs have been referred to as "necessities" in a target situation (Chambers 1980), as "objective" and "subjective" (Richterich 1980, 2; and Brindley 1989, 69), as "goal-oriented/product-oriented" and "process-oriented" (Widdowson 1983, 20 and Brindley 1989, 65), as target needs ("necessities", "wants" and "lacks") and learning needs ("learning strategies" and "constraints") (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 55-57), as "perceived" and "felt" (Berwick 1989, 55), as outsiders' (objective) and insiders' (subjective) needs (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998, 124).

But these overlapping concepts are suitable only in so far as they provide a clear perspective on needs for research purposes. To this aim, I decided to work through these definitions towards their reorganisation, by subsuming needs under a tripartite functional classification: **target needs** ("objective", "goal-oriented" "necessities," "perceived" by the teachers and/or by the professionals in the field), **learning needs** ("subjective", "process-oriented", "wants", "felt" needs, "perceived" by the students), and **present needs** ("lacks").

Firstly, when considering the EMP classes, objective needs are intrinsically determined by "outsiders" such as teachers, doctors, former students, or employers, according to practical information (e.g. the ability to write case reports, to take the medical history or to present at an academic conference). These are referred to as "target needs", and they point towards the communicative skills in the target situation.

Secondly, subjective needs designate the insiders' standpoint (students' "wants") and derive from the learning situations. These fall under the category of "learning needs" and involve mostly affective and cognitive factors (e.g. feeling confident to speak in public, liking/disliking group work, feeling comfortable with written assignments, etc.). Learning

needs refer to how learners can acquire the language, to students' learning strategies, and to their extrinsic and intrinsic motivation for studying EMP.

And thirdly, factual, "present needs", which can be diagnosed both by the learners and the outsiders, refer to the learners' proficiency level at the present time: their strengths and already acquired notions, and, more importantly, their lacks. I will, however, refer to lacks from now on as challenges, to comprehend both difficulties and gaps in the learning process.

Another issue to consider is the priority conundrum, enunciated by Chambers (1980, 28): can a teacher accurately establish the needs prior to carrying out the analysis? If not, can an analysis be performed without having the needs set? But, as he mentions, needs analysis does not refer to analysing already determined needs, but to analysing with the purpose of determining "communicative needs and their realisations" in a given target situation. Nevertheless, many researchers, such as Rahman (2015, 26) endorse the priority of needs analysis over any teaching endeavour: "a language needs analysis is a process that must be conducted prior to a language course and syllabus design, materials selection, teaching and learning methodology and evaluation." However, conducting an accurate and comprehensive assessment of needs requires reliable sources of information and I consider experience to be a most valuable resource. My analysis was mainly based upon five years of teaching EMP in which I continuously adjusted the contents according to new materials, to the expressed wants and interests of the students, to original documents and articles.

Following Dudley-Evans and St. John's frame of reference (1998, 132), I devised a dynamic needs analysis schema based on the information obtained from the students and ex-students, from medical professionals, and from materials relevant to the field. So, the elaboration of the questionnaire applied to the medical students was, per se, work in progress meant to prioritise needs. Had I chosen to conduct a needs analysis at the beginning of my EMP teaching experience, I might have been overwhelmed by the multitude of sources and resources, by the large number of students (over 400 every year) and their wants. All these would have translated into an enormous amount of analysable unsystematised data in a new field (medicine, with the four specialisations), so at that stage, such an undertaking would have most likely proved to be counterproductive. Therefore, designing the syllabus was a five-year process of working through the materials, organising them according to multiple criteria and to students' yearly feedback, work which constituted a basis for devising the needs analysis questionnaire used for the present research.

This brings me to the more specific issue of sources, which will be the main focus of this study: whose opinions and answers should I consider for my questionnaire and research? The classical view suggests that there are three parties concerned in any ESP context: the teacher, the students, and the potential employer / beneficiary (in medicine, patients, or the medical community). But the needs of these three factions may differ. As mentioned above, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) suggest as sources of information current students, former students, and professionals. From this perspective, the teacher's main role is that of deciding whose needs to give priority to not only when designing the course but also when planning the needs analysis. As Chambers (1980, 29) suggests, students may not always prove to be the most reliable source of information in this process: students "may be aware of aims at some gross level, e.g., need to use certain manuals", but they cannot be expected to decide upon their language training. However, students' perception regarding challenges occurred in the learning process could be a pertinent basis for the analysis of the present needs. In addition, their approach to target needs can offer some valuable insights when compared to the opinions of former students and professionals. Therefore, my investigation of target needs was twofold: on the one hand, my students' viewpoints regarding the goals of the EMP classes and, on the other hand, ex-students' retrospective observations on what they had really found useful for their ensuing activities and/or profession requirements.

A last matter that requires further clarifications is the choice of not including in my study an analysis of learning needs. By definition, they are subjective, and their relevance resides in the fact that they account for the learning process itself. This includes motivation ("wants") and learning strategies. But motivation and learning strategies have grown into two distinctive fields of study that cross disciplinary boundaries by investigating psychological, social, affective, and cognitive factors influencing the learning process. Affective factors are hard to manage especially when dealing with a high number of students – some are shy or lack self-confidence, some may not be interested in the study of languages, some may or may not like the teacher, some love/hate translations, others love/hate grammar, and so on. Including them here would have been beyond the purpose of this study and would have implied a higher number of variables, cumbering this research and undermining the reliability of the results obtained (Serafini et al. 2015, 19). Also, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in learning and teaching EMP will constitute the object for a separate upcoming research project I am undertaking.

Additionally, as mentioned previously, I tried to acknowledge students' wants (collected from the yearly feedback sheets) and to adapt the lectures and seminars accordingly. What students seemed more interested in was a friendly environment that would encourage developing interactive skills. They also prefer group work and favour the use of technology (audio and video files) and the use of learning platforms. They enjoy taking part in medicine-related debates or preparing oral presentations about the latest medical research. Some of them are in favour of using only English (the advanced classes) or, on the contrary, of being given grammar explanations in Romanian (the intermediary classes). These are some of their expressed wants which I found helpful for tailoring my EMP classes over time.

2.2 Needs Analysis

Taking as a point of departure Munby's model of CNP, Chambers coined a concept which became fundamental for the needs analysis study: Target Situation Analysis (TSA), defined as "communication in the target situation" (Chambers 1980, 29).

Within the field of needs analysis, there has been scope for varying approaches, theories, and emphases: from Target Situation Analysis (Chambers, 1980) to Present Situation Analysis (Richterich and Chancerel 1980) and Learning Needs Analysis (Hutchinson and Waters 1987), and further to means, register, discourse, or genre analysis. All these appear as useful and serviceable tools for assessment and it could seem artificial to limit our understanding of needs analysis to only one of these parameters and omit the others. Nevertheless, the more extensive and complex the system according to which needs analysis is conducted, the more difficult it is to manage and prioritise these needs and their microfunctions in a limited research study. Given these constraints, I circumscribed my enquiry to the study of challenges and to the goals of the medical students, specifically to the Presents Situation Analysis (PSA) and the Target Situation Analysis since, as Songhori (2008, 10) states, "needs analysis may be seen as a combination of TSA and PSA".

These conceptualisations distinguish between the two criteria according to which a congruent analysis of needs can be formulated. But when considering sources, other than present undergraduates (i.e. former students and medical professionals), a new variable arises: the measure of future or past performance. This brings me to the more tangible aspect of place – where the sources are temporally situated in relation to language necessities. Do they evaluate these needs prospectively or retrospectively?

The sources' place is where their answers with respect to their own needs can be more demonstrably applied. When considering the present undergraduates' perception, we may talk about a prospective view on needs, as they are based on prior assumptions, are sheer predictions about what the students think they might need in their future activities and profession. The study of these needs will be referred to henceforth as **prospective needs analysis**. Inversely, the respondents might be assessing their linguistic challenges based on knowledge of the past experiences, occurred after completing the English courses. The study of these answers concerning former students' previous performance will be designated hereafter as **retrospective needs analysis**.

2.2.1 Present Situation Analysis (PSA)

PSA focuses on the current proficiency levels of students, on what they have already acquired and, most importantly, on their difficulties in understanding and producing content in the target language. It is an analysis intended to quantify the strengths and challenges reported at a given time in the learning process. At the beginning of their first year, students need to take a diagnostic test, especially designed to place them according to their proficiency level, in intermediate or upper-intermediate groups. The purpose of this test is also to provide a more accurate picture regarding their language skills and shortcomings. However, the questionnaire created for the present study comprises a section concerning students' self-perceived challenges. This section is, on the one hand, focused on what the students regard as being particularly difficult for them and, on the other hand, on both general and medical specific issues, for two reasons. Firstly, I noticed over the years that students' challenges do not differ much from one generation to another, i.e. there is a certain level of predictability in the aspects they find troublesome. And secondly, the placement test is only relevant to a certain extent, as it ignores any element of EMP. The questionnaire thus included the elements I found most relevant based on these two reasons.

    a. Prospective needs analysis. This part of the questionnaire, consisting of 12 items, inquired about the difficulties felt by the students concerning certain aspects (grammatical, lexical, pronunciation, fluency, etc.), as follows:

I have difficulties in…:

1. Understanding an audio material in English
2. Understanding a medical article in English
3. Oral communication
4. Pronouncing some words (e.g.: hypertension, oedema, rhythm, headache, quite/quit/quiet, though/tough/thought/thorough/throughout)
5. Correctly writing some terms (e.g.: diarrhoea, chronic, headache, painful)
6. Identifying and using "false friends" (e.g.: ailment-aliment, sensible-sensibil)
7. Using tenses correctly
8. Using If Clause
9. Understanding and using phrasal verbs or idiomatic expressions
10. Using singular/plural Latinate/Greek words (e.g.: bacterium-bacteria, stimulus-stimuli, series-series, phenomenon-phenomena)
11. Using uncountable nouns (e.g.: advice, information) or quantifying adverbs such as little, few, much many.
12. Distinguishing between American English and British English (e.g.: ageing-aging, travelling-traveling, oedema-edema, anaemia-anemia, centre-center, favour-favor, trousers-pants etc).

Table 1. Questionnaire items used to identify the prospective needs

b. Retrospective needs. Before delving into the analysis of the students' self-perceived difficulties, I considered that a retrospective insight could prove to be even more useful: the retroactive perception of former students, some already working as medical professionals. Their answers may help cast light upon the challenges which occur in later academic years and in real-life medical situations. To this end, one of the sections of their questionnaires was focused on these specific challenges, considered retrospectively:

What problems have you encountered in your medical practice/activity?

1. Pronouncing difficult terms
2. Writing difficult words
3. Understanding and producing academic content (listening/speaking)
4. Understanding and producing academic texts (reading/writing)
5. Grammar difficulties
6. Distinguishing between British and American English
7. Other:

Table 2. Questionnaire items used to identify the retrospective needs

2.2.2 Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

TSA was defined in relation to the students' needs at the completion of a language course (Robinson 1991, 8), in this case, the specific mastery of the language for medical communication purposes, through which learners show that they belong, linguistically, to a medical community (Coxhead 2013, 116). This linguistic affiliation implies proficiency in: speaking skills (e.g. communicating with fellow doctors, communicating with patients and their families, presenting at conferences), listening skills (e.g. video/audio files, conferences and symposia, listening to patients), reading skills (e.g. scientific articles and books, instructions), writing skills (e.g. case reports, medical records, referrals, scientific articles). These are general objectives, but each specialisation has its own particularities (for example, laboratory technicians do not need to author articles, nor to attend conferences, so undergraduates enrolled in the Clinical Laboratory programme may not be too interested in these specific skills). In addition, 1st- and 2nd-year students are not completely aware of the disciplines and fields in which they need to acquire more specific terminology and structures (microbiology, genetics, morphopathology, etc.), since they only study them starting from the 3rd academic year, when English is no longer part of their curriculum.

Theoretically, evaluating their needs might seem straightforward; in reality, I considered that former students should be capable to identify more accurately the practical requirements of their medical practice and activity where English is concerned. Therefore, by designing a section of the questionnaire for each of these two groups (present and former students), I intended to get a larger perspective regarding the tangible needs of the medical students. The items included in this section of the questionnaire were selected after analysing the feedback received from students each year and after consulting some medical professionals and former students. In order to confine this section to the most relevant elements, I chose the items according to the frequency criteria, as including isolated items (less frequent than 10%) could have diverted time and attention away from what was actually significant.

a. Prospective needs analysis. This part of the questionnaire, comprising 10 items, inquired about the aspects in which undergraduates proved to be most interested, as follows:

I am interested in…:

1. Communicating orally in English, with other medical professionals and patients
2. Easily understanding audio materials in English on medical topics.
3. Understanding scientific articles.
4. Writing academic papers on medical topics.
5. Presenting orally in medical conferences.
6. Specialised terminology (anatomy, microbiology, physiology, etc.)
7. Terms designating medical conditions and diseases (pathology).
8. Terms designating medical instruments and devices, hospital departments, healthcare positions.
9. Explaining treatments and therapies in English.
10. Other:

Table 3. Questionnaire items used for the prospective needs analysis

b. Retrospective needs analysis. This section included 13 items intended to evaluate the respondents' view regarding mainly the necessary volume of general English practice. The reason for focusing on general English questions is the emphasis placed upon grammar and general lexis in the non-philology faculties during the language classes.

Do you consider useful the study of… during the English classes?

1. Tenses
2. Irregular plurals
3. Latin and Greek plurals
4. The difference between British and American English
5. Idioms / phrasal verbs
6. Specialised terms (anatomy, microbiology, physiology)
7. Terms related to signs, symptoms and diseases
8. Terms related to treatments and therapies
9. Reading scientific papers
10. Presenting in a conference
11. Academic writing
12. Understanding a lecture
13. Other:

Table 4. Questionnaire items used for the retrospective needs analysis

3 Methodology

The questionnaire was applied to eight monolingual groups of 1st- and 2nd-year undergraduates (aged between 18 and 21), majoring in four specialisations at the Faculty of Medicine of Transilvania University of

Brașov. The specialisations are: General Medicine (GM), General Nursing (GN), Balneo-Physio-Kinesiotherapy and Recuperation (BFKT) and Clinical Laboratory (CL) and, given the large number of students enrolled in the GM and AN programmes and their mixed proficiency levels, they are grouped in intermediate and upper-intermediate classes. Their courses run for two years (4 semesters), 14 weeks each semester, including two-hour lectures and seminars every two weeks. The questionnaire was applied at the end of the first semester of the academic year 2018-2019. The study group consisted of 332 students, the questionnaire was posted online, and they responded voluntarily, not as a task during the English classes. The distribution of the respondents was according to their distribution by degree specialisation, as follows: General Medicine – 41.27%, (137); General Nursing – 37.35% (124); Balneo-Physio-Kinesiotherapy – 12.05% (40); Clinical Laboratory – 9.33% (31).

In addition, two different sections of the questionnaire were applied exclusively to 78 former students / medical professionals, as previously described.

The questionnaires comprised 45 items (with the inclusion of the "personal information" section) and used a Likert scale (a five-stage rating scale) for the assessment of both challenges and needs. Each section ended in one open-ended question, allowing students to add elements which they found relevant in relation to the previous questions. The questionnaires, both for the current and former students, consisted of three parts: 1. Basic information (name, year, specialisation); 2. Self-evaluation of their knowledge of general English and medical English and of the challenges encountered; 3. Assessment of the students' needs.

The information obtained was analysed using descriptive statistics, calculating the mean values and summarising the data in tables and graphics.

4 Results analysis and comments

The following are the results and the discussions generated by the findings, and they are divided into two sections: challenges and target needs, with a focus on the two subcategories, prospective and retrospective needs.

4.1 Present Situation Analysis

4.1.1 Challenges – prospective analysis

The PSA, or challenges analysis, was conducted according to the distribution of students by year and specialisation. The tables included

here show the mean values per year and specialisation for each category investigated. Table 1.a and 1.b show the answers provided by the 1st- and 2nd- year undergraduates from each specialisation to the questions described previously, in chapter 2.2.1., subheading *a. Prospective needs analysis.*

Specialisations/ Challenges	GM	GN	BFKT	CL
Listening	1.71	2.32	2.00	2.36
Reading	2.24	2.76	2.71	3.00
Oral communication	2.48	2.95	2.47	3.21
Pronunciation	2.29	2.68	2.41	3.21
Spelling	2.40	2.84	2.53	3.00
"False friends"	2.57	2.92	2.65	3.36
Tenses	2.60	3.32	2.82	4.07
IF Clause	2.38	2.92	2.71	3.29
Phrasal verbs / idioms	2.57	3.24	2.94	3.64
Latin / Greek plurals	2.76	2.81	3.06	3.36
Irregular plurals	1.91	2.51	2.18	2.79
BA / AE	2.67	2.81	2.06	3.00

Table 5.a. Challenges for 1st year students
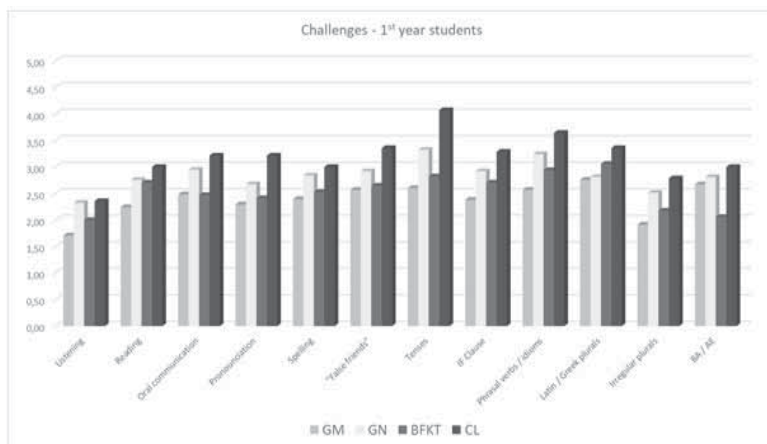
Chart 1.a. Challenges for 1st-year students

Most of the 1st-year respondents record average and slightly above average scores on every investigated class of challenges. However, while

GM students score the lowest values in each category, the CL undergraduates score the highest. In fact, unsurprisingly, the greatest difficulties are recorded in the grammar sector – tenses, phrasal verbs and idioms (CL and GN groups). But the results do not register big variations, the highest scores being recorded by the CL and GN students, which is explainable because the general level of these two specialisations is usually intermediary. Of note, the difficulties are not mainly perceived at the level of the specialised language, as expected, but they are more circumscribed to the field of general English.

The explanation lies in the fact that, during their first semester of EMP, students are exposed to the more general terms of medicine, which do not pose particular problems. In addition, 1st-year students are still accustomed to thinking in general English terms, and may not accurately perceive English as an operating tool for other disciplines. Moreover, although from experience I know that students have difficulties working with the singular and plural forms of Greek and Latin terms, the low scores on this category do not indicate that they have overcome these difficulties. But, after only one semester, they are not fully aware of what Greek and Latin plurals entail, since these are only studied in the 2nd semester of the 1st year. The low scores on oral communication are also quite unusual, compared to the classroom realities: students struggle with fluency problems or, at least, lack initiative when it comes to verbal expression, at least those in the intermediate groups. The differences here between the specialisations are unnoticeable, although in classroom the situation may differ.

Specialisations/ Challenges	GM	GN	BFKT	CL
Listening	1.62	1.93	1.82	1.57
Reading	2.10	2.31	2.41	2.43
Oral communication	2.29	2.66	2.41	2.71
Pronunciation	1.93	2.61	2.41	1.86
Spelling	2.12	2.52	2.12	2.00
"False friends"	2.26	2.33	2.88	2.14
Tenses	2.26	2.85	2.65	2.86
IF Clause	2.21	2.77	2.59	3.14
Phrasal verbs / idioms	2.55	2.84	2.71	3.43
Latin / Greek plurals	2.38	2.54	2.76	1.71
Irregular plurals	1.98	2.30	2.24	1.71
BA / AE	2.50	2.57	2.88	2.43

Table 5.b. Challenges for 2nd-year students
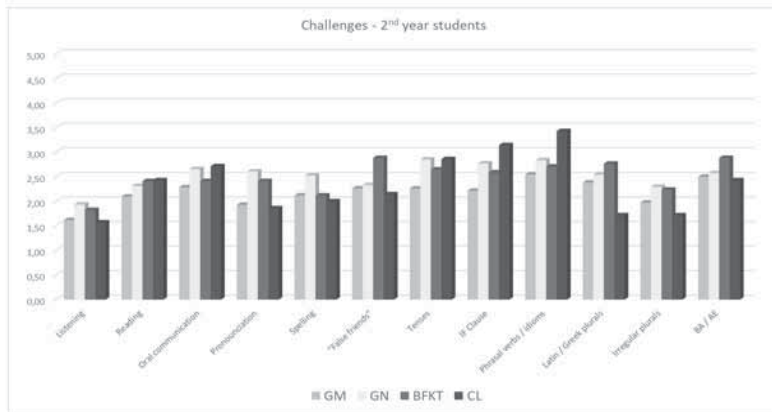
Chart 1.b. Challenges for 2nd year students

The analysis of the data collected from the 2nd-year undergraduates shows a visible decrease in the difficulty scores in each category. The three semesters of studying and practicing in the field of EMP might account for these lower scores. The decrease was on average by 0.14 the minimum (If clauses) to 0.64 the maximum (Latin and Greek plurals), as follows: Listening: 0.42; Reading: 0.36; Speaking: 0.27; Pronunciation: 0.45; Spelling: 0.25; False friends: 0.7; Tenses: 0.55; If clauses: 0.14; Idioms: 0.2; Latin/Greek plurals: 0.64; Irregular plurals: 0.42 and BE/AE: 0.3. There were only three exceptions, where higher scores were recorded by the BFKT groups: on False friends (0.23), Irregular plurals (0.06) and BE / AE (a significant increase by 0.82). The higher scores might be explained by the fact that the students became more aware of the specific difficulties of these grammatical and lexical aspects, which could have diminished their self-confidence when using such structures. In addition, even if their general English level is good, the students "need to adopt the specialist language in order to make meaning and engage with disciplinary knowledge" (Woodward-Kron 2008, 246), which tends to produce self-doubts where the medical terminology is concerned. However, the overall results suggest that studying aspects of general English, along with EMP, is likely to improve students' performances.

4.1.2 Challenges – retrospective analysis

The table included here shows the mean values for each category investigated. The answers were provided by former students from each specialisation to the questions described in chapter 2.2.1., subheading *b. Retrospective needs analysis.*

Specialisations/ Challenges	GM	GN	BFKT	CL
Pronunciation	2.45	3.10	3.34	4.45
Spelling	3.25	2.64	3.33	2.60
Academic listening / speaking	3.10	3.20	1.65	2.20
Academic reading / writing	3.50	4.16	3.32	1.64
Grammar	2.30	3.25	3.30	2.81
BA / AE	1.50	2.32	0.86	2.80

Table 6. Challenges for former students
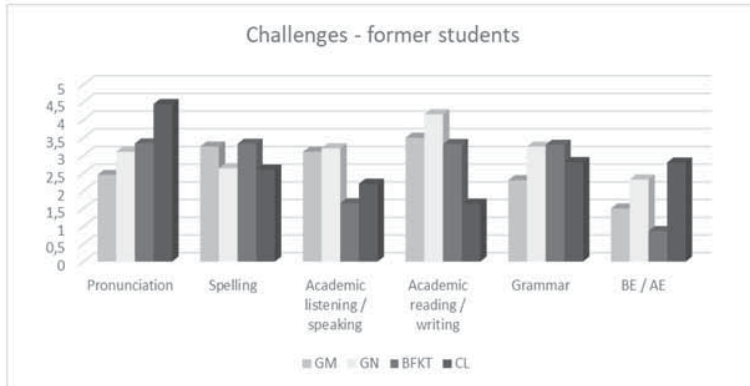
Chart 2. Challenges for former students

A comparison between the current undergraduates' and former students' challenges reveals an interesting change in numbers and values. Scores tend to be higher on most categories in former students, with few exceptions. Regarding pronunciation difficulties, for instance, the increase in values was significant: GM (+0.5), GN (+0.45), BFKT (+0.93), CL (+2.4). The same was valid for spelling, but only in GM respondents

(+0.85), whereas the other specialisations scored no significant change in values GN (+0.04), BFKT (+0.01), CL (+0.10). While English may be spoken regardless of the working environment, and pronunciation difficulties may occur, writing is used more often by physicians and nurses, in which cases words need to be spelled correctly. This may be one reason why the BFKT and CL students did not register a significant increase in this difficulty score. Another reason might be a lesser difficulty of the texts that they have to write, as opposed to doctors / medical students and nurses. Also, a likely explanation for which on academic listening / presentation BFKT and CL students scored lower (-0.72, respectively -0.30) than general listening and oral communication, might be that they do not need to perform such activities, so they become optional. Since the activity exists only for those who practice it, we cannot thus talk about difficulty in understanding or producing academic content in English.

Academic writing, absent from the questionnaire applied to 1st- and 2nd-year students, is a considerable barrier especially for medical students, who must author articles and scientific research starting from their university years. A surprisingly high score was recorded by students in GN (4.5), who do not have to write scientific papers, but may have to write patient records and nursing care plans. The latter has particularly been taken into consideration lately and has become "the most frequently cited discipline-specific task" (Bosher 2013, 265). As far as grammar is concerned, there are no significant differences, which means that the challenges remain mostly the same, and the difference between BE and AE shows a decrease in the difficulty of distinguishing between the two.

4.2 Target Situation Analysis

4.2.1 Needs – prospective analysis

The TSA, or target needs analysis, was performed based upon the same criteria as PSA. The tables included here show the mean values per year and specialisation for each category studied. Table 3a and 3b below show the answers provided by the 1st- and 2nd- year undergraduates from each specialisation to the questions described previously, in chapter 2.2.2., subheading *a. Prospective needs analysis.*

Specialisations/ Needs	GM	GN	BFKT	CL
Oral communication	4.57	4.08	4.47	3.79
Listening	4.74	4.38	4.65	4.21
Academic reading	4.76	4.49	4.71	4.43
Academic writing	4.10	3.59	3.82	3.29
Oral presentation	4.28	3.24	3.88	2.64
Specialised terminology	4.66	4.16	4.71	4.00
Pathology	4.79	4.35	4.71	4.14
Hospital	4.59	4.27	4.29	4.14
Therapies	4.66	4.30	4.65	4.00

Table 7.a. Needs of 1st- year students
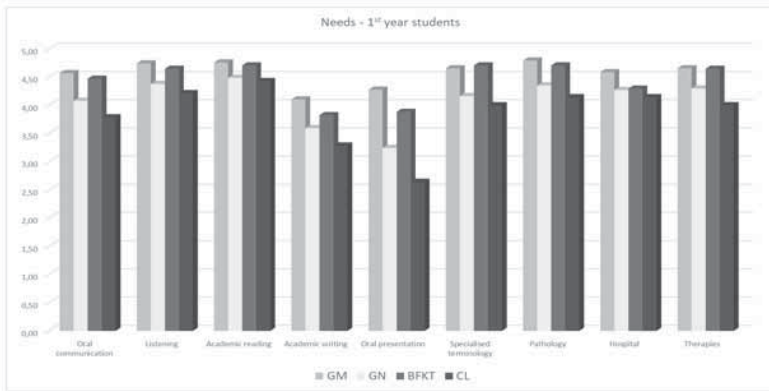
Chart 3.a. Needs of 1st- year students

The information presented above shows a high interest in specialised terminology (anatomy, physiology, microbiology, etc.), pathology and hospital-related lexis and in vocabulary describing treatments and therapies. Academic reading and listening comprehension were two categories in which students from all specialisations showed a high level of interest, and scores were high for oral communication as well, although CL students registered a lower score in this category, since their future profession may not imply the use of spoken English. BFKT students show interest in improving their speaking skills, as their profession will require providing accurate explanations to their future patients regarding the correct procedures and techniques. On oral presentation GM students

scored higher than the others, which is not surprising: they tend to be more communicative, to have more initiative in speaking freely, and are becoming increasingly aware of the need to prepare themselves for future presentations. With a score of 3.88, BFKT students seem also interested in oral presentations, since they are interested in taking part in symposia and conferences. Unsurprisingly, CL students are the least interested in oral presentations (2.64) and academic writing (3.29).

Specialisations/Needs	GM	GN	BFKT	CL
Oral communication	4.69	4.49	4.63	4.29
Listening	4.67	4.62	4.88	4.43
Academic reading	4.71	4.67	4.69	4.71
Academic writing	4.38	3.62	4.25	3.57
Oral presentation	4.45	3.51	4.25	3.29
Specialised terminology	4.67	4.44	4.69	3.86
Pathology	4.76	4.52	4.69	4.00
Hospital	4.74	4.52	4.38	3.86
Therapies	4.64	4.36	4.56	3.86

Table 7.b. Needs – 2nd- year students
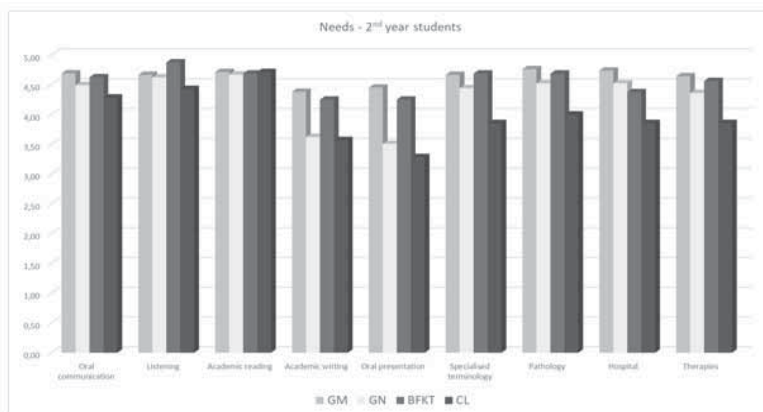
Chart 3.b. Needs for 2nd- year students

A comparison between the scores recorded for the expressed needs of the 1st- and 2nd-year students show little or no significant changes. Except for two categories (academic writing and oral presentations), where

scores are significantly higher in 2nd-year undergraduates, the values in all the other categories are similar to those registered by the 1st-year students. A slight decrease in interest is featured by the CL students in the last four categories, whereas in academic writing and oral presentations their scores are higher.

4.2.2 Needs – retrospective analysis

The table included here shows the mean values for each category investigated. The answers were provided by former students from each specialisation to the questions described in chapter 2.2.2., subheading *b. Retrospective needs analysis.*

Specialisations/Needs	GM	GN	BFKT	CL
Tenses	2.92	3.21	3.17	3.22
Irregular plurals	3.32	3.29	3.17	3.44
Latin / Greek plurals	3.14	1.92	3.17	3.22
BA / AE	2.95	2.75	2.67	3.44
Phrasal verbs / idioms	3.32	3.13	3.33	3.56
Specialised terms	3.84	3.75	4.00	4.00
Pathology	3.81	3.71	4.00	4.00
Therapies	3.78	3.63	4.00	4.00
Academic reading	3.70	3.92	3.67	3.56
Oral communication	3.59	3.63	3.67	3.78
Academic writing	3.27	3.04	3.17	3.56
Listening	3.86	3.88	3.83	3.89

Table 8. Needs of former students
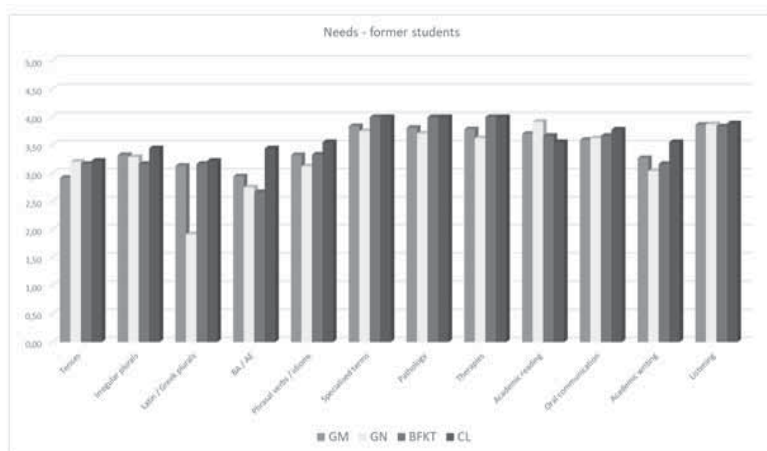
Chart 4. Needs of former students

The table illustrating the retrospective needs of the former students includes grammar items as well, whereas the present students' questionnaire on needs does not. That is because including them would have been redundant, since the challenges section included detailed questions regarding the present grammar difficulties faced by the present undergraduates. On the other hand, I considered important to know exactly the former students' opinion on what was really necessary for them and what not. Grammar categories score lower than specialised terminology, with the exception of Latin/Greek plurals, where a noticeable minimum value was registered by the GN former students (which is understandable, since they do not need to operate with most of them).

Compared with the tables showing the present students' needs, results are surprising, as the former students' answers register a significant decrease in scores. With the exception of the CL students, who seem to be the most consistent (expressed needs in present and former students show similar values), for the EMP categories the scores in former students feature a decline by more than 0.5. The differences are shown in the table below as approximate values:

Specialisations/Needs	GM	GN	BFKT	CL
Specialised terms	- 0.8	- 0,5	- 0,7	
Pathology	- 0.9	- 0.7	- 0.7	
Therapies	- 0.8	- 0.7	- 0.6	
Academic reading	- 1	- 0.7	- 1	- 0.8
Oral communication	- 1	- 0.6	-1	
Academic writing	- 1	- 0.6	- 0.8	
Listening	- 0.9	- 0.6	- 0.9	- 0.4

Table 9. Score differences

Instead, when comparing the expressed needs of the former students to their expressed difficulties, results show that, although their scores tend to be lower on challenges, they are higher on needs in the same category. This is the case with grammar categories, where GM and CL students score lower values on challenges, but significant higher on needs. In academic listening / speaking needs, scores are considerably higher in GN (+0.5), BFKT (+2), CL (+1.5) than the scores registered in the challenges table. As for the difference BE / AE, although former students' expressed difficulties seem to be low, their answers show that they consider necessary the study of this topic during the English classes.

After analysing these results, we might conclude that teaching EMP should, first of all, address the specific needs and difficulties of students, according to their specialisation. I also think it is relevant to notice the overall scores of former students, regarding the difficulties encountered, including here the ones they mentioned in the open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire section.

➢ Academic writing (68.8 %)
➢ Pronunciation and spelling (61%)
➢ Understanding academic works (58.4 %)
➢ English Grammar (41.4%)
➢ Lack of fluency in oral communication (25%)
➢ Difficulties in finding the exact English equivalent of some medical terms (17%)

As for their suggestions, extracted from the open-ended question at the end of the needs section, the main ones are:

➢ More classes per semester / more years of study (68.8 %)
➢ More writing assignments (23.4 %)
➢ More reading of academic articles (22.1 %)

➢ More oral presentations and real-life communication (18%)
➢ More specific vocabulary (e.g. microbiology, clinical/paraclinical lexis) (16.4 %)

Interestingly, although students are very focused on their field of knowledge and motivated to learn specialised language, they are also aware of their flaws in general English. Despite being less interested in studying grammar and general vocabulary, they consider it necessary to do so. Therefore, excluding general English from the EMP classes could prove counterproductive. After all, no scientific paper, no oral presentation, no indication for or dialogue with the patients, etc. will be exempt from respecting the language rules.

Concerning the students' challenges, the decrease in scores (1st-year students vs. 2nd-year students) may indicate that, with reference to their main difficulties (illustrated by the items contained within the questionnaire), including grammar exercises and explanations during the English classes is beneficial and should continue.

This conclusion is also supported by the answers provided by former students, whose scores indicate that grammar difficulties persist, although at a lower level. The focus should be, therefore, not on eliminating this component from the English classes, but rather on adapting them in order to be more effective. A first step should be the inclusion of pronunciation and spelling exercises, with emphasis on medical terms that students find particularly difficult (e.g. diaphysis, haematopoiesis, glycaemia, haemorrhoids, etc.). In close connection with this matter is the issue of consistency when using British or American English. Students seem puzzled when having to give an answer to the questions: "Which form is correct: oedema or edema? Labour or labor? Theatre or theater? What is the correct pronunciation of *vitamin*?" They learn that they need to be consistent with their choices and not use these forms alternatively in the same text/discourse. Another focus should remain on reading practice based on texts using structures with a higher degree of difficulty (in terms of terminology, grammar structures, word order, register, length of sentences), as they need to get accustomed to using such materials. Likewise, the study of idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs is important for both understanding and producing verbal content, since these are marks of oral communication and, when talking to patients, they are more likely to be used.

Since the role of the EMP classes should be to prepare students to correctly perform tasks in a medical setting (Richards 2001, 33), the analysis of the target needs was focused on the relevant steps in achieving

this goal. Concerning the students' target needs, they refer to understanding instructions and scientific texts, using medical software (GM, GN, BFKT, CL), operating with terms describing clinical trials, lab equipment, tests (GM, GN, CL), writing medical reports and referrals, filling medical records (GM, GN), writing medical articles (GM, BFKT), presenting and participating in medical conferences and symposia (GM, BFKT), communication with fellow doctors (GM), communicating with patients and taking their medical history (GM, GN, BFKT), participating in international internships (GM, GN, BFKT, CL), training and/or working abroad (GM, GN, BFKT, CL). The curriculum should, therefore, be designed accordingly, without overloading it with unnecessary topics (e.g. high emphasis placed on taking a medical history during the CL English classes)

5 Conclusions

The purpose of the present study was to provide answers to a fundamental question: how could a medical English language course be improved, considering the differences between the various degree specialisations (GM, GN, BFKT, CL)? The answer was partially included in this question, given that, in order to address the needs of the students enrolled in each specialisation, I had to first identify these needs. The teaching practice, along with periodical empirical assessment of the students' interests was a first step. The pre-eminence of using English as a main tool in scientific and professional communication, both written and oral, was a second step.

The present research work is in the field of functional teaching of a foreign language: ESP - with its specialised EMP branch. This research aimed to find answers to the question mentioned above, through theoretical and practical investigations: the analysis of the challenges faced by the undergraduates, on the one hand, and the direct investigation of the students' needs, on the other. My intention was to improve the EMP classes, by adapting the teaching methods to the students' needs and difficulties. For this purpose, I considered some parameters susceptible to allow the improvement of the EMP classes and of the students' skills: the language with all its inherent aspects (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, oral communication, writing, etc.), the students' needs and challenges, and, if applicable, the discrepancy between what they think they need and what they actually need. To do so, I created a questionnaire, tailored to factors specific to the Romanian environment, and I applied it

to present and former students. Their answers allowed me a comparison meant to describe the evolution of the teaching/learning process.

I started by adopting a classification of needs analysis that I found suitable (PSA and TSA) and I also classified it further, by creating two categories according to the chosen sources (present and former students): Prospective Needs Analysis, and Retrospective Needs Analysis respectively. Researchers like Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) prioritise other types of needs analysis, for example means analysis, linguistic analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis. Such categories, however, fall outside the scope of this research, since they would require a wider study. Therefore, I preferred to restrict my area of research to the variables that interested me the most and which I encountered most in my practice – setting realistic goals, meeting objective needs, and anticipating the challenges and difficulties that students might have, adapting the materials to the allotted time unit and maximising the utility of the EMP classes.

Results show that the first- and second-year medical students are aware of their difficulties and are able to recognise the obstacles in learning and acquiring EMP. The study has influenced the priorities of the course and the selection of materials. The priorities are the following:

1. Preparing the students for real-life situations where English may be used (medical jargon) – GM, GN, BFKT, CL
2. Developing language skills through discussions and debates around accessible themes – GM, GN, CL
3. Introducing terminology with emphasis on pronunciation and spelling (Romanian vs. English, British vs. American English) – GM, GN, BFKT, CL
4. Simulating communication with the patient in a simple manner (Q/A, advice) focusing on linguistic correctness – GM, GN, BFKT
5. Helping students to understand a specialised text, to search, prioritise and present information – GM, GN, BFKT, CL
6. Language acquisition in performing a general examination (GM), taking a medical history (GM, GN, BFKT), writing reports, etc. (GM, GN)
7. Helping students to familiarise with terms describing medical equipment, tests, investigations (GM, GN, CL).

A drawback consists in the difficulty to keep up with their curriculum and to establish a natural parallel advancement of language and medical knowledge, given the time limitations, but this could be a topic for further research: how can teachers, who are not specialists in the field of

medicine, teach medical English to students who have not yet acquired the notions they need to study in English?

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Learning Task-Types for Engineering Students: From Teacher's Intention to Students' Assessment

Cristina Silvia Vâlcea

Abstract: Teaching encompasses all processes of attending to the educational needs of students so that those needs are served and students can use the acquired knowledge and build on it. Learning, as Ambrose et al. (2010, 3) see it, is "a process that leads to change, which occurs as a result of experience and increases the potential for improved performance and future learning". The question of how teaching turns into learning is the purpose of this research which, in a case study, aims at mirroring the choices and justification of the teacher's content-based activities and the students' feedback for the same activities. Whether the needs are served by what the teacher deems as appropriate is the key to the success of any teaching/learning activity. The mismatch between the needs of the students and the activities proposed by the teacher leads to failure of both teaching and learning.

Keywords: teaching, learning, tasks, case study, student feedback

1 Introduction

The purpose of this article is to check the matching of teaching objectives (as established by the teacher) to the students' learning goals (as perceived by each individual student) in a number of activities designed by the teacher. The article is mainly focused on the teacher's justification for each devised activity and in the students' anonymous evaluation of the abovementioned activities in the context of their learning purposes. This circumscribes the article to the areas of material development and material evaluation in ELT. Any overlap in these tasks between the teacher's objectives and the students' learning goals might indicate ground propitious to learning. In fact, the greater the overlap, the greater the students'

interest in the activity and the likelihood of acquisition; the lower the overlap, the lower their interest and, consequently, the output.

The usefulness of such research is indisputable given the unique environment that each teacher and each group of students create, on the one hand, and taking into account the character, personality and vision of each teacher. Teaching by the book, in the order that the book's authors suggest, without attempting to adapt, change, upgrade or update the book might be disadvantageous for the learning process. Thus, becoming aware of the possibilities to change the teaching materials is a necessity for all teachers who are interested in the quality of their teaching and in the acquisition of their students. The findings of the case study presented here might equally help teachers become aware of the fact that their options in teaching do play a crucial role in the learning process given their motivations, attractive activities and rewarding results in learning English.

Material evaluation presupposes the existence of a previous stage which is concerned with material development that has been defined by Tomlinson (2011, 2) as "anything which is done by writers, teachers or learners to provide sources of language input, to exploit those sources in ways which maximize the likelihood of intake and to stimulate purposeful output: in other words the supplying of information about and/or experience of the language in ways designed to promote language learning."

When it comes to the evaluation of teaching resources, either predictive (before their use in the classroom) or retrospective (after their use in the classroom) (Ellis 1997, 36) teachers are concerned with the overall usefulness and effectiveness of the materials to be used in the classroom, as it demonstrates the fact that teachers have adopted a reflective vision of their teaching actions. Kiely et al. (2006, 187) propose for this type of activity the name "post-use evaluation" which is meant to measure how successful learning resources are. For the present research I have chosen a retrospective/post-use analysis based on the data collected after having worked on those tasks and that could prove their usefulness for any future adaptation of the teaching materials.

Usually, the recommended form of the evaluation is a questionnaire administered at the end of the class; this is also the manner in which the student feedback was collected for the purposes of this research.

2 What to teach from: textbooks or teacher-devised materials?

Teaching English to engineering students may cause difficulties for the teachers who must choose mainly between two options: they either

teach by using the general technical English books that address the most important engineering domains or they can design their own materials that could match exactly their students' specialization. If the first option is preferred, then, that is not necessarily a winning solution, given the fact that ELT books themselves oscillated between their being considered as "valid, labour-saving tools" and 'masses of rubbish skilfully marketed' (Brumfit 1980, 30). Besides, it is quite rare for whole textbooks to be dedicated to a single domain, maybe with the exception of business or law. These opinions are not meant to deny the importance of textbooks when it comes to learning/teaching English; they only express some reserves as to the usefulness of these books when teaching technical English that requires adapted materials specialized for a certain technical domain.

The second option may prove more beneficial in terms of the students' interest and domain coverage, but it presupposes a long and difficult process leading to the production of adapted materials for the students. The hard decisions of what to include and what to leave out, what their degree of difficulty should be, what skills to emphasize most become a permanent concern for the teacher who understands that the students' linguistic specialisation in their field of training is a necessity. Nevertheless, Sheldon (1987, 238) deplores the reduced prestige that such teacher-devised materials enjoy: "It is a cruel paradox that for students, teacher-generated material (which potentially has a dynamic and maximal relevance to local needs) often has less credibility than a published textbook, no matter how inadequate that may be." It may be true that some exercises jotted on the board or on pieces of paper may not look as formal as a book, but the effectiveness of the activities dedicated to one's students in keeping with their skills, language level and needs is likely to prove their usefulness and advocate for creating dedicated materials.

3 Literature review

Teaching English to engineering students is a challenge due mainly to the multifaceted aspects that teaching technical English involves. Besides the students' motivation and interest in learning English, the appropriateness and the quality of the teaching process contribute to the success of any teaching activity. Although hard to measure, the success in learning technical English actually stands in the acquisition of language that enables the students to solve tasks.

In teaching technical English, appropriateness is determined by a number of criteria applicable to all teaching activities. To begin with, 'what we teach' relates to the content to be taught that must fall into the

students' area of interest, "how we teach" refers to the methods chosen to teach, 'who we teach' is about the students whose interests, skills and level of knowledge are familiar to the teacher and 'why we teach' should be a prioritization action by which the most effective activities should be decided upon. By keeping all these criteria in mind when planning teaching, teachers prove preoccupation for both students and the activity *per se*.

Additionally, the quality of the teaching process has a great impact on the quantity of students' intake. It all depends on the personal understanding of the idea of 'teaching' proper to each teacher as indicated by Hirst (1971), who claims that: "Being clear about what teaching is matters vitally because how teachers understand teaching very much affects what they actually do in the classroom." It can be inferred from this that teaching is a personal reflection of a particular subject matter as the teacher adapts teaching to his/her learners' level, interest, and learning capacity. This is in line with Larsen-Freeman (1999, 71), a supporter of teaching adapted to a group of learners due to possibly cultural reasons: "Decisions about appropriate methodology should be made by local educators, taking their students' needs into account. This will best be accomplished when educators are challenged to inquire into their own practice, paradoxically seeing that while their teaching does not cause learning, they must act as if it does".

Furthermore, the educational process should not be idealized (Medland et al. 2017), as idealization tends to disregard real teaching and learning which is far from perfect. Teachers devise materials, reflect on them, and test them with more or less success. Students learn based on their motivation, interest, on the attractiveness and teacher's encouragement. Therefore, learning and teaching should be seen as processes where both teachers and learners contribute towards creating knowledge and developing skills.

Another factor that has a great impact on the success of any learning/teaching activity is the quantity of time control of both teacher and students. Researchers have not drawn a conclusion yet, but two trends have gained dominance in this respect; on the one hand, is the traditional, teacher-centred education type where teacher talking time is predominant, every interaction has at its centre the teacher, who transmits information to the class. On the other hand, the student-centred education (Wright 2011, O'Neill and McMahon 2005) has at its centre the student who produces knowledge by activating previous information and by using the tools provided by the teacher; as stated by Brophy (1999, 49), the class acts as "a learning community that constructs shared understanding". The focus is

on the instructions provided by the teacher and on building a 'constructivist' approach to learning (Garrett 2008, 34) where students construct knowledge. Though different in focus, these two approaches do emphasize some common elements in every educational process: the teachers and the students, which naturally highlight the twofold perspective on the classroom activities. Mismatches in focus, different perspectives on either learning or teaching, these are all elements that are worth an in-depth analysis.

4 Task analysis

The analysis of the whole material produced by teacher for the students' use is hardly feasible and it would not produce more effective results than the analysis of some tasks particularly chosen by the teacher for the assessment. Micro-evaluation (Ellis 1997, 37), the term that reflects the selection of some tasks whose evaluation would bring valuable data to teachers, has been defined as: "one particular teaching task in which he or she has a special interest, and submits it to a detailed empirical evaluation". Besides, micro-evaluation is believed to be a powerful tool for teachers since, by using it, they become aware of what teaching is and how they can get the students to learn (Clarke 1994, 23). Thus, a series of micro-evaluations would make up for a macro-evaluation, which is thought to be enough for a thorough evaluation of the teaching material.

After shedding some light on the necessary quantity of material to be evaluated, the next issue that needs clarification is the concept of task, whose definition, however, is a problematic issue. Is a task a drill? Is a task an exercise? Skehan (1996, 81) argues that a task is an activity where 'meaning is primary' and which 'has some relation to the real world' or, as claimed by Bygate (2001, 23), it is done to a clear end. Others have emphasized the productive character of the task (Lee 2000, 68) or they have focused on the distinction between form and meaning (Nunan 1989, 95). A more recent approach to tasks is that of Littlejohn (2011, 190) who deems that a task is 'classroom work which requires the learners to engage in the negotiation of meaning'. In short, a task is more than a drill and more than an exercise as it presupposes meaning comprehension and correlation, student interaction, some external-to-the-language reference and a clear purpose that students need to be aware of.

Ellis (2003) takes a step further and suggests a number of features that an activity should meet in order to actually become a task. It should have clear objectives, a consistent input, some working procedures and it should equally mention the outcome of the task. When all these conditions

are met, then that activity turns into a task bringing about learning. Yet, the supreme condition for a task to be validated is the usefulness of the task, which is subjectively decided upon by the students as indicated by Sheldon (1988, 245), who argues that material evaluation is a dynamic process which is "fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity" where "no neat formula, grid, or system will ever provide a definitive yardstick". It is worth mentioning that, despite the above mentioned definitions of the concept task, in the case study discussed below, I will treat all the exercise types as tasks.

5 Methodology

Given the purpose of the research and the surveyed population, the method that was believed optimal for the research reported here was the case study, which is a qualitative, in-depth, real life context method. Yin (2014) claims that case studies are valuable to research thanks to their empirical character and to the importance that the context is given. "Case study research has grown in reputation as an effective methodology to investigate and understand complex issues in real world settings" (Harrison et al. 2007), providing a viable instrument for investigating an array of social situations. For this research, the case study shows its usefulness in that it helps with the 'analysis of participants' words' (Denzin and Lincoln 2011) with the view to understanding the issue from 'the perspective of the participants' (Merriam 2009).

As qualitative research, this research mostly investigates how useful students consider certain learning tasks and why they find them useful and beneficial or not for the improvement of their technical English. The aim is to understand as well as possible the students' opinions about the English tasks they need to work on during their classes. Their subjective reality is thus explored in a familiar setting or 'natural environment' that should encourage participation and contribution. In order to obtain their opinions on the English tasks that have been proposed, both open and closed ended questions have been used as both types of data were needed. Closed-ended questions help better quantify their choices labelled as 'not useful for my learning purposes', 'slightly useful for my learning purposes', 'useful for my learning purposes', and 'very useful for my learning purposes'. Conversely, open-ended questions of the type 'Explain how this exercise helps you improve your technical English. If you consider that it does not help you, please explain why' are supposed to be lengthier, thus, to provide more information on the perceived usefulness of the tasks.

6 Participants and questionnaire

The respondents in the survey were 2nd year engineering students that participated in one of my seminars. They were given the option to choose whether or not to take part in the survey. Anonymity played an important persuasive role as students proved reluctant when asked to assess somebody's activity, even their mates' activity. They are students with heterogeneous English background that have not taken any examination to determine their level of English. Their interest in English and their motivation to learn it may have a certain impact on the answers they give in the questionnaire, but no correlation between the students' level of English and their answers is intended.

After working through the material, the students were asked to answer to a retrospective questionnaire about the utility of the tasks for their learning purpose. The chosen tasks that were meant to undergo evaluation were characteristic for the entire material that students worked throughout the semester. Every closed-ended question–is followed by an open-ended question that would request for students' opinion on that particular task. Four tasks were evaluated: a matching task (students are expected to match some technical words to their definitions), a multiple choice task (students need to choose the correct word for each gap), a word derivation exercise (students are tested the negative derivational rules) and an all-idiom exercises (students have to recognize the meaning of idioms containing technical words and use them in the correct context). The students' evaluations were compared to my justification, as the teacher, for each task in search of compatibilities and/or incompatibilities between the students and teacher's assessment of each task.

7 The data

When devising the tasks, the teacher brings arguments in support of the usefulness and appropriateness of a certain task-type for students. As for task 1, which focuses on matching technical words to their definitions, the premise was that such a task is very useful for students because it activates and improves their vocabulary acquisition, it is context-defined which facilitates comprehension of the role, material, etc. of the vehicle's components, it is appropriate to their field of study (automotive and mechanical engineering), it is appropriate to their level of English, it is good for clarifying the differences between parts that would otherwise seem similar, it was designed in keeping their learning needs and purpose and last but not least, it is original. When answering the closed-ended

question, 90% of the students find the task 'very useful for their learning purposes', 10% find it useful. To the open-ended question related to the usefulness of the same task for their learning purposes, the students gave a number of answers where they justified their opinion on this task. The answers of the students are in concordance with the percentages indicated by students in the closed-ended question. Nevertheless, there is also a negative opinion which does not refer to the task proper, but to its presentation. A selection of the students' answers is given below.

- Specific to the domain; it helps us improve the pronunciation of words from the technical domain;
- It helps us develop a good technical language;
- A power point presentation would be more useful. More concrete definitions would better help understand the text;
- It is useful for learning the technical terms definitions;
- This exercise helps me improve my English by learning technical words and definitions that will help me in the future; I didn't know to define many of these terms in Romanian;
- Because this exercise helps us study technical terms like: catalytic converter, spark plug, etc. and this exercise explains what it is and how it works;
- It helps because the term is not only translated, it is equally explained;
- A very good exercise. You learn both English words, such as crankshaft, and their utility, namely, you understand their role, their functioning mode;
- One of the most appropriate exercises in order to understand the phenomena and the role of the components in this domain;

Table 1. Students' feedback on Task 1

The use of task 2, which is a multiple choice exercise, is justified by the usefulness of this exercise, by the fact that it offers students a larger context that could help them understand the differences between gasoline/diesel cars and hybrids, it represents the challenge of deciding on the right choice out of the four that are offered as it presupposes background knowledge of grammar rules, idioms, phrasal verbs, etc., it helps them discriminate between easily confusing words, it could represent the starting point for a further discussion, it will improve their technical vocabulary in the domain of vehicles, it is original. As for the students' assessment of the second task, when answering the closed-ended question, 65% claim that the multiple choice task is 'very useful for their learning purposes', 35% assert that the task is 'useful for their learning purposes'.

When bringing arguments in support of their opinions on the task, most students seem to appreciate the activity. One opinion, however, was neither favourable, nor unfavourable as the respondent claimed that it is neither good, nor bad for learning. A selection of students' opinions is presented below.

○ Useful, appropriate for the field;
○ I consider that this exercise helps me. It is useful because it challenges us to think and choose the correct answer;
○ I consider that the exercise is very explicit, it contains technical terms that might help us. Sincerely, it helped me understand certain things;
○ It is useful as it helps us understand the differences between words with close meaning;
○ This exercise helps with the structuring of ideas and firstly, with the formation of logical ideas;
○ This exercise helps to learn about different types of engines;
○ This exercise helps a lot because all the terms met at subjects taught in Romanian are met here, as well.
○ I consider that it is a middle exercise, neither good for a faster learning, nor bad.
○ It contains essential terms, basically it belongs to our field, which helps us improve our capacity to understand the text and learn new terms;

Table 2. Students' feedback on Task 2

With respect to the third task, which is a negative derivational activity, students need to turn positive technical verbs into negative verbs. The justification for using this task is based on a number of arguments, among which the fact that it helps students be aware of the rules of derivation, although it may be less result-bearing than the previous ones, it helps students become familiarized with a variety of negative prefixes, it helps them get familiarized with technical pairs of antonyms, it helps them improve their vocabulary, it is original. On the other hand, students have different opinions ranging between 'very useful for their learning purposes' expressed by 25%, 'useful for their learning purposes' expressed by 50% and 'slightly useful for their learning purposes' expressed by 25%. As regards their rationale for the choices they have expressed, the majority of the appreciations were positive, with one exception, as shown below.

- From my point of view it is little useful for technical English;
- This exercise helps me improve my technical English because I need to know also the positive and negative meaning of the verbs;
- This exercise helps me explain phenomena in English, especially for my seminar presentations;
- It helps because you can find the negative of a verb, which is different from Romanian;
- It is a useful exercise because it sets off your mind and it helps you remember the English from the first year (grammar rules);
- This type of exercise will always be appropriate and useful in whatever domain;

Table 3. Students' feedback on Task 3

As far as the fourth task is concerned, where the focus is on idiomatic expressions which contain technical terms that the students had already been exposed to, the choice of this activity is motivated by the fact that it helps consolidate and enlarge the technical vocabulary and in this way the students can find out that a word they know as a technical word has other meanings in other contexts, which may help them understand and become aware of the versatility of some English words. On the subject of idiomatic expressions, the students have divergent opinions: 50% consider that this task is 'slightly useful for their learning purposes', 20% regard the task as 'very useful for their learning purposes', other 20% admit that it is 'useful for their learning purposes', while 10% deem that the task is 'not useful for their learning purposes'. Likewise, more than half of the students' comments are negative.

- Useful to learn technical expressions plus where to use them
- I did not understand certain terms at the lecture even if they were explained. I consider that the terms should be explained first step by step and then put into idioms
- It is useful for the learning of technical expressions
- I consider that for technical English this exercise is not really so useful as the other ones, but it is useful in daily speaking
- I do not think that they are important because they are not terms that can be used in daily speaking
- This exercise is useful for the learning of technical words in English. The context of the sentences helps you realize the meaning of the expression.
- I consider that this is not the most appropriate exercise to improve the linguistic skills in the technical domain, because we need a clearer and more precise expression in order to avoid erroneous interpretations.

Table 4. Students' feedback on Task 4

Because the students had only been asked to rank the usefulness of some tasks, hence, they could not speak up their minds, they were given the opportunity to answer an open-ended question that the teacher considers important to understanding students' views on the proposed tasks. Though varied and sometimes missing the purpose of the open-ended question, students' suggestions are nevertheless consistent with their main interest in learning technical English and they could be roughly divided into two major categories. Thus, most of them consider that videos and/or animations of vehicle components would make tasks more attractive and would facilitate comprehension and learning. Furthermore, they reflect on the effect that this could have on the increase in participation in the seminar. Other students suggest the organization of the entire material into an all-vocabulary package completely separated from some tasks where the purpose may have a grammatical component, as well.

8 Research findings

It is worth noting that each task type was ranked differently by the students. Although all the activities were considered important, the students established a hierarchy of the usefulness of the tasks from the one that seems to be largely accepted by the majority of students as the most useful (the matching task) to the one that is the lowest in students' preferences (the idiom task). The difference in the perception of usefulness between the teacher and the students may be due to the fact that a teacher's representation of technical English is more comprehensive, whereas for students this field is limited to what they perceive to be core, essential information. It seems that what goes beyond the limits they set for the domain is deemed as less important than the core information of their field.

It is immediately salient that the most popular task with students is the matching activity, not so much because of its format, but, because it involves the use of words which are highly frequent in their field, therefore important for them. The task that comes second in students' options is a multiple choice activity which they seem to appreciate because it works on their already existing vocabulary, creating the necessary premises for its extension. The task on the third place is the negative derivation exercise which is not viewed by students as primordial to their learning technical English. This difference is indicative of the two positions the tasks are analyzed from; by technical English the teacher understands all tools, besides the vocabulary, that can help students understand and express themselves in a technical environment. The

students, on the other hand, seem to uncouple technical vocabulary from any other linguistic means that actually make communication possible.

The task that comes last in the students' options is the one involving idioms that contain technical words. The low ranking of this task is only explainable by the little importance that students give to idioms and to their metaphorical values. Despite the existence of technical words, such as: *gas, screw*, and *sledgehammer*, the students consider learning these idioms useless because of their metaphorical meanings that they believe irrelevant for their technical domain. Contrarily, from the teacher's perspective, it is exactly the metaphorical value of these otherwise technical words that should be appealing to the students because it could contribute to a faster learning of new senses of already familiar words. It might have been the metaphorical value of already known technical words that could have convinced students that such a task is the least useful from the four tasks they were asked to assess. Also, it should be emphasized that it is the only task that was considered useless by 10% of the students participating in the survey.
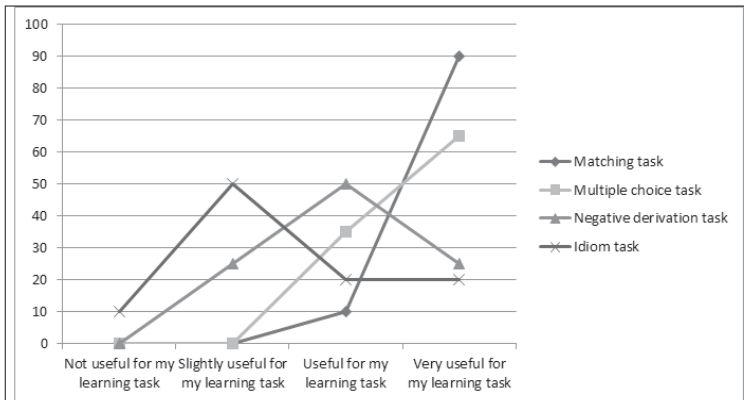
Table 5. Overview of students' assessment of task usefulness

It is nevertheless important to clarify that this research does not assess the usefulness of the task format (matching, multiple choice, negative derivation, fill in) but of their content. Although it is likely that certain task types are more popular among students than others, this is not the purpose of this investigation. However, for the sake of convenience, the tasks are identified by their names, not by their content.

The research yielded some unexpected data that indicate shortages in other areas of students' education that could somehow be provided for by the English classes. To clarify this statement it is necessary to focus on the answers that students gave to the open-ended question aimed at collecting suggestions for the improvement of the efficiency of the English classes. In particular, students were interested in watching videos as a backup teaching means to the tasks proper. Students justified their requests by their need to understand how a particular technical device functions due to their absence of technical information. It is thus implied that English should go beyond teaching vocabulary, grammar patterns and communication techniques, it should also teach content in order to facilitate students' comprehension of the domain. It is nevertheless recommendable to use videos for exposure to various accents, to new vocabulary, to explanations that are meant to help students progress with their English but teaching the technical operation of different mechanical devices would be very difficult even for the most willing teacher. It is normal, on the other hand, to understand that some of the difficulties students stumble upon when learning technical English are also generated by their missing information in Romanian. As long as English is taught by teachers of English who have a limited knowledge of technical matters, it is still difficult to teach technical English thoroughly.

9 Conclusions

This investigation was aimed at checking the compatibility of the perceived usefulness of the tasks by both teacher and students. The task content in each case was customized by the teacher for the use of a particular group of students. The research has been based on the teacher's evaluation of the usefulness of the tasks for the teaching/learning process and on the students' assessment of the tasks in terms of usefulness.

As the findings indicate, there is some degree of dissimilitude between the teacher's and the students' opinions on what is useful. From the teacher's perspective all tasks were important, although the relevance may be lower for some types of exercises, they do play an important role in gaining significant communication skills in technical English. On the other hand, the students established a hierarchy of the tasks based in the perceived usefulness for their learning purposes. Thus, the tasks that focus clearly on technical English vocabulary were ranked higher on the usefulness scale, to the detriment of other activities which may help indirectly the development of their technical English skills. Moreover, the students underrated the importance of idiomatic expressions that contained

technical words for the exact same reason. The existence of the technical words in idiomatic expressions did not convince them of the usefulness of learning such idiomatic structures. This may indicate that the engineering students make a clear-cut distinction between general and technical English that exist independently and do not converge. Therefore, whatever may seem to belong to general English is rejected by students and considered of little or no use given the fact that those tasks are about general English, not technical English.

These findings may be the consequence of an insufficient clarification of the role and contribution of each task to the acquisition of technical English. Comprehensive explanations might prove useful for the students' understanding that technical English is not limited to the knowledge of technical vocabulary. In this connection, another problem identified is the students' expectations of being exposed to technical English only, as if technical English is a separate language that has nothing to do with general English. This misperception may result from their little awareness of what technical English is and of the relationship between general English and technical English. It is again the teacher's responsibility to clarify this relationship, as teachers have the knowledge to help students understand and adopt an appropriate attitude to learning English for specific purposes.

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The Role of Error Correction in English Language Teaching

Adrian-Florin Buşu

Abstract: Considering the new reality of the present time, in which English is considered to be *the Lingua Franca* of the globalized world, having a good command of English has become a very desirable skill. However, using English as a means of communication may sometimes prove to be a tricky task. Despite the fact that English is known to be quite easy to learn, the speakers of English as a second language, on some occasions, have difficulties in expressing concepts, ideas or opinions. These inaccuracies are generally referred to as *mistakes*. However, *mistakes* are not the same thing as *errors*, therefore in this article we will try to make a clear distinction between these two categories, and we will approach the issue of error correction.

Keywords: communication, inaccuracies, error, correction, English Language Teaching

1 Introduction

Starting from an overview of ELT, this article tackles the difference between errors and mistakes, and tries to offer solutions for dealing with each of these two categories of language inaccuracies. Acknowledging the fact that errors and mistakes hinder communication, it is imperative that a proper method to identify and correct them should be applied. In this article we shall discuss the differences between errors and mistakes and attempt to offer guidance for correction.

2 English as Lingua Franca

The status of *Lingua Franca* that English has gained throughout the second half of the twentieth century is a reality that cannot be argued. Approximately 1 out of 4 inhabitants on Earth speak English, either as

mother tongue or as second language. There are studies which claim that, in the near future, the ratio will increase to 1 out of 3 speakers, as English is becoming more and more widespread as a contact language, and due to the availability of learning resources across the world.

English is the third widespread language by number of native speakers, after Chinese and Spanish. According to Macmillan Dictionaries (online), approximately 375 million people speak English as their first language, as follows:

- 258 million people in the USA;
- 62 million people in the United Kingdom;
- 32 million people in Canada;
- 20 million people in Australia;
- 4.5 million people in New Zealand.

However, when combining native and non-native speakers, according to www.statista.com, English becomes the second most widely spoken language worldwide, after Chinese, and followed by Hindustani, Spanish and Arabic.

Naturally, the following question comes to mind: which is the reason why English has become so widely used across the world and how come it has such an enormous number of speakers, given the fact that only a quarter of its users are native speakers? It seems that we are dealing with several factors that have led to such a development:

1. practical reasons - English is, among others, the language of international air control, international tourism, international business and academic conferences;
2. intellectual reasons - most of the scientific, technological and academic information in the world is expressed in English, which is the gateway to Western culture;
3. entertainment reasons - English is the main language of popular music, satellite television, computers and videogames;
4. personal prestige – proficiency in English is often perceived as conferring a higher social status.

There are, of course, military, economic and political reasons that have caused the global expansion of English. It is worth mentioning that the expansion of English began relatively late, compared to French or Spanish. If we consider the historical facts, by the time the British developed the necessary skills to navigate across the Atlantic Ocean to

have the first English colony settled in Jamestown in 1607, on the northeast bank of the James River, the French had already settled by 1600 in Tadoussac, at the mouth of the Saguenay river, in the northern region of America, in what was to become the independent state of Canada in 1867.

Many people would agree that it is quite easy to learn English. English as a second language has some advantages that other languages simply lack:

1. Simple grammar system (Noun and verb conjugation);
2. Middle size vocabulary (approximately 800.000 words, of which 60% come from French and Latin) – a big plus, especially for the people who speak Romance languages in Europe and Latin America;
3. Gender-neutral language;
4. Fixed word order;
5. Simple alphabet, no special symbols - in contrast with German, Polish or Swedish, not to mention Asian languages;
6. Vast selection of resources (TV shows, movies, books, music, websites)

However, if we look at the total number of words forming the English vocabulary (circa 800,000 words), we can observe that, according to royalsocietypublishing.org, it is about four times larger than the Russian or French vocabulary (150,000-180,000 words), and this large number of words might pose some difficulties for its speakers. But if we compare this value to the number of words in Arabic (circa 12.000.000), then it is obviously a clear advantage in terms of practicality.

3 Mistakes and errors

This section is dedicated to a discussion of the concepts of *error* and *mistake* in order to identify their similarities and the differences between them, to determine whether they fall into the same category of language inaccuracies, and whether they should be dealt with in the same manner.

3.1 Errors versus mistakes

By definition, learning a foreign language is a more demanding process than learning a mother tongue. Students have the advantage of having already acquired complex language patterns during the process of learning their own mother tongue. As a consequence, they have the experience of developing strategies for learning, in general. The Behaviourist

theory claims that the process of language learning is reduced to the basic acquisition of skills, similar in a large proportion to the process of learning how to perform a practical activity in everyday life. The main skills are apportioned into smaller subcomponents which are meant as logical actions that would have error-free communication as consequence. In spite of this theory, students make unaware errors. What is the explanation for error occurrence? It seems that, when dealing with a complex task, students may simply lack the ability to control their linguistic performance or focus on all the aspects of the task simultaneously. There are more explanations which identify incomplete knowledge of the target language, mother-tongue interference, overgeneralisation or simply inadequate teaching materials or methods as causes for error occurrence. Nelson Brooks (1960, 58) compared the relationship between error and learning to that between sin and virtue: "Like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected".

Learning a foreign language is a process which takes time and which develops in stages. During this process, mistakes may occur in all the stages of learning. Nobody should expect that mistakes will simply disappear just because they have been pointed out by the teacher to the learner. There are some requirements that language acquisition must meet in order for this process to happen: students should be motivated, relaxed and keen on learning. If students are too concerned about the possibility of making mistakes, they become less receptive and less responsive. It is crucial to create a friendly atmosphere, to encourage cooperation through peer work or small group work and to apply techniques for language acquisition that suit and involve individual learners in order to overcome the learner's concerns about mistakes.

An important aspect of dealing with students' fear of making mistakes is the way in which mistakes can be corrected. As far as EFL is concerned, teachers have an active role in error correction, whereas students assume a passive role and rely on their teachers to point out their mistakes. Lewis (1993) considered that this approach is not successful as it has little effect, particularly on treating the so-called *fossilized* errors. In specific situations, the learner's self-correction of errors proves to be more efficacious and more beneficial for language learning compared to the teacher's correction.

First of all, we will bring in discussion the difference between the concepts of *error* and *mistake*. Chomsky (1986, 107), made the distinction *error - mistake*, by pointing out that native speakers make mistakes especially in speaking, which may sound confusing, because a native speaker has by nature a perfect command of his/her language, more

exactly he/she has good knowledge of vocabulary, phonetics and grammar rules. When mistakes are made by a native speaker, the most logical explanation in most cases might be the Principle of Least Effort, as defined by Zipf (1949, 87): "One explanation for linguistic change is the principle of least effort**.** According to this principle, language changes because speakers are 'sloppy' and simplify their speech in various ways. Accordingly, abbreviated forms like *math* for *mathematics* and *plane* for *airplane* arise. *Going to* becomes *gonna* because the latter has two fewer phonemes to articulate. On the morphological level, speakers use *showed* instead of *shown* as the past participle of *show* so that they will have one less irregular verb form to remember." Millward (1996, 50) observed that. "The principle of least effort is an adequate explanation for many isolated changes, such as the reduction of *God be with you* to *good-bye*, and it probably plays an important role in most systemic changes, such as the loss of inflections in English."

Mistakes can be considered a common problem and can occur in specific circumstances, when we speak too fast, think too quickly, are nervous or tired. Mistakes may be caused by psychological restrictions, memory lapses, distractions, changes of direction half-way through the sentence, hesitation, slips of the tongue or confusion. Errors, on the other hand, are systematically produced problems, which are usually the result of ingrained patterns of language that we are not aware of. Errors are caused in most cases by lack of sufficient target language knowledge. Researchers have not reached an agreement on the above-mentioned distinction. Dulay and Burt (1974) proposed the following set of categories of errors: developmental, interferent and unique. Stenson (1983) proposed a new type of category: induced errors, which result from incomplete instruction of the language.

3.2 Attitudes towards errors

The teacher's attitude in tackling errors plays an essential role in the process of EFL acquisition. Negative comments on students' language performance may well result in undermining the learners' confidence. In addition, insensitive correction during oral work can be particularly damaging because it encourages a withdrawal attitude in students. Generally, students tend to focus more on correcting errors than on developing learning techniques, such as self-assessment and reflection, which will offer them skills to become more effective autonomous learners. Ancker (2000, 68) refers to a consistent pattern of errors. According to his study, *Error and Corrective Feedback Theory*, 76% of

the students interviewed answered that teachers should always correct their errors, otherwise they wouldn't learn how to speak English correctly. For teachers, the opposite was true: 75% of the teachers interviewed by Ancker (2000, 75) agreed that errors "shouldn't always be corrected because in doing so the student's confidence and motivation could be negatively affected."

We must keep in mind that when teachers correct errors, what they actually do is provide a correct model for students to reproduce. Teachers' positive attitude towards errors is the key to students' language performance. Based on my personal experience of teaching English for more than 20 years, I reckon that error correction should be done with extreme caution, as too much correction hinders fluency in the class of students. Learners become overconcerned with responses that should be correct from the grammatical point of view. Students produce long pauses before answering even the simplest questions, giving too much attention to word order, verb tense or sequence of tenses. When teachers decide to give less importance to correction, words rush out of the mouths of students, creating the circumstance when errors occur. This demonstrates that an incorrect level of correction applied by teachers can jeopardize communication. Ideally, a perfect balance of correction should be found in order to have the best results possible.

Having identified these recurrent errors, I found that developing active learning techniques for students worked better than just asking students to focus on correcting the errors. Also, I found that a bombardment of correct forms had little to no effect, as students tend to regard overcorrection as a sign of their personal failure and thus lose confidence. From my point of view, it is more useful to encourage students to practice self-correction, as they become more efficient in internalizing language structures.

Errors are a consequence of structures that trigger confusion about what type of information is the most important, of constructions that generate confusion about the subject of the action, or phrases that cause confusion about the relationship between sentence elements or sentences themselves. Here is one example to illustrate one of the situations in which confusion is caused by inadequate sentence construction: *After having completed the first stage of the process, it will be necessary for it to be checked by errors.* It looks intelligible, though full comprehension is hindered by the faulty relationship between sentence elements. Firstly, it is inaccurate, as the reader is not sure of what or who the subject or the doer is for whom it is necessary to be checked and of the personal pronoun *it*, which has an unclear reference. Secondly, the reader fails to grasp the

meaning of the sentence, as it is ambiguous. Additional information is required to make the meaning clear and comprehensible to the reader: what is the element that needs to be checked? Is it the first step or the whole process? And who is the person to perform the check? Is it the same person who completed it, or is it someone else? This is a typical example of a structure that creates confusion because of the incoherent relationship between sentence elements.

The technical components that can trigger errors may be:

- Dangling constructions:
  - Gerunds (*-ing* forms used as nouns)
  - Present participles (*-ing* forms used as adjectives)
  - Past participles (*-ed*/*-en* forms used as adjectives)
  - Infinitives (*to-* forms used as nouns or modifiers)
  - Elliptical clauses (adj./adv. clauses missing their subjects and auxiliary verbs)
- Unclear pronoun reference
- Overuse of the passive voice

Correcting this type of errors requires taking action in three stages: the use of concrete nouns as subjects and objects, whenever possible, the use of finite verbs instead of verbals and the use of the active voice when expressing why the subject is important. After applying these three basic principles of error correction, we obtain this error-free sentence: *After the users complete the first step of the process, the developers must check the procedure for errors.*

3.3 Types of error correction

Errors occurring as a result of mother-tongue interference may be remedied by the intensive use of correct forms. The use of intense over-teaching is a good strategy to this purpose. Errors occurring as a result of overgeneralisation are not to be regarded as signs of failure, but as evidence that the student is working his way towards the correct rules.

There are three basic forms of error correction:

1. Self-correction (Pinpointing, Metalinguistic feedback/Hinting, Clarification request, Providing answer, Reformulating, Repeating, Echoing and Expression)
2. Peer correction (Student monitors or Group monitors)
3. Teacher correction (Direct or Indirect)

Self-correction appears to be the most effective method of error correction. Students internalize the language more efficiently when they acknowledge and correct their own mistakes. The next most effective method of correction is peer correction. When students are able to identify and correct their mistakes collectively, they basically help each other to develop English language skills with less interference of their personal language filter. Finally, there is the error correction made by the teacher, which is an effective means, but ideally it should be used as a last resort in foreign language error correction. In cases where the EFL teacher are not native speakers, have grammar or pronunciation problems, heavy accent or distinctive speech traits, recorded audio or video materials could be used to provide corrective feedback.

An interesting opinion on error correction is Porter's (1986), who highlighted the importance of self-correction. Porter refers to Noam Chomsky's distinction between errors and mistakes and indicates that most students are unaware of the difference between these two notions. Porter claims that it is essential for students to be able to identify an error in order to avoid it in the future. The researcher also suggests that it is more efficient for learners to correct themselves than to be corrected by the teacher. In addition, the researcher suggests a four-stage scheme for self-correction. After writing an essay, students should read it for a pre-definite number of times, each time trying to answer the questions included in each of the four steps. During each step, students concentrate on a different aspect of their essay. The first task asks them to highlight the verbs and check the tenses; in the second task students concentrate on prepositions; in the third task the students are required to concentrate on nouns and in the last step, students are asked to correct potential personal mistakes. Porter also gives some hints on what personal mistakes are and how to identify them.

Researchers have failed to reach an agreement regarding the advantages and disadvantages of error correction. Error correction is considered a phenomenon that happens because students want it to happen and it takes place because this is what teachers basically do. Unless error correction is performed, students make the assumption that they produce error-free sentences. Correction needs to be applied, as it has two primary functions: it provides students with the correct pattern and it also helps prevent the fossilization of errors. Error correction is sometimes considered a demanding, nerve-racking process that causes fluency interruptions. Sometimes, following the process of error correction, students may be tempted to start using shorter and simpler sentences or lose motivation and start disliking the process of learning.

3.4 Guidelines for the remedy of errors

Error correction should be performed in any situation in which errors prevent the reader, listener or speaker from grasping the meaning of the sentence, impair communication or cause irritation. Hendrickson (1979) claimed that "manipulative error correction should be grammar practice", leaving communicative activities free of a focus on error correction. A number of studies on error correction in ELT classes have demonstrated the degree to which teachers correct errors and these patterns apparently validate Hendrickson's opinions.

Here are some ideas on error correction in ELT, according to Doff (1988):

1. Make the difference between serious and minor errors;
2. Prioritize what needs correction and grading. We should not focus only on grammar because students start to think that grammar is the only thing that counts in writing. Zamel (1985, 86) pointed out that most teachers react primarily to surface errors, treating the composition as if it were a "series of separate sentences or even clauses, rather than as a whole unit of discourse";
3. Distinguish between learners who have tried and those who have not. In the case of writing practice, spelling, punctuation and capitalization mistakes may occur because students did not bother to edit or check their own papers;
4. Provide correct vocabulary choices. Pre-intermediate level learners in particular will have trouble with finding the most appropriate word. Most of the time, word choice is idiomatic or conventionally agreed upon and it is difficult for the learners to identify the correct or appropriate word even if they consult the dictionary;
5. Indicate the correct form if it is used for the first time. When correcting prepositions, a very common error in the written papers of foreign learners of English, it is a good idea to provide the correct preposition if it is introduced for the first time. For recurrent errors, indicating the wrong preposition use and expecting the learners to self-correct would be a good idea;
6. Use standardized methods to indicate the type and place of errors. Correction legends and lists of symbols often prove useful if the teacher first trains students on their meaning and when a certain symbol is used;
7. Be consistent with the contents of written comments. Teachers must use a set of clear and direct comments and questions and should also familiarize students with these comments. They must be linked to the strategies required to improve the essay and not just indicate what the

teacher found faulty. It has been demonstrated that without training, students tend to ignore written comments on their essays;

8. Focus on direct correction. Lower-level learners have been found to benefit more from direct correction rather than indirect correction, in which symbols are used or in which the place of error has been indicated. Another thing that must be kept in mind in teaching beginner level students is that the teacher has to stress different things at different times, because the students are struggling with both linguistic structure and writing patterns. When learners make so many mistakes, it may be useless for the teacher to try to correct every error on the paper; it will be a waste of both time and effort for the teacher and very discouraging and unmanageable for the student. Sometimes, we should wait for the students to reach some fluency, then stress correctness;

9. Offer constant feedback. It has been reported that students who receive feedback and self-correct their mistakes during revision are more likely to develop their linguistic competence than those who receive no feedback and those who are not asked to re-write their papers. Therefore, revision in the form of re-writing is a must, if we want any improvement. The multiple functions of feedback, as reinforcement, information, motivation, and the pressure on teachers to accept the learners' errors leads, however, to the paradoxical circumstance when teachers must either interrupt communication for the sake of formal correction, or let errors pass "untreated" in order to reach the communicative goals of classroom interaction;

10. Try conferencing. This is a particularly useful technique to show the learners the errors in their papers. Students can directly ask the teacher questions on the issues they have trouble with. At the same time, the teacher may check the students' meaning and understanding.

Within the framework of other social interactions, nobody has the right to impose his own judgment on the others' behavior, especially when we refer to linguistic behavior. In cases when correction needs to be done, discretion should characterize the manner in which it is done, as there is a strong preference to allow speakers to correct themselves. Correction is most of the time admitted in the form of non-comprehension signals such as clarification requests, confirmation checks or indications of non-comprehension.

3.5 The mechanism of error correction

A widely agreed definition of the concept of correction considers the process of offering the correct patterns as feedback on errors. Some researchers, for example Murphy (1986), reasserted the notion that correction as feedback claiming that correction is a form of feedback to learners with regard to their use of the language. It is basically a neutral process and describes success or failure, starting from the observation that language in use exploits both form and function. Correction deals with accuracy or fluency and by giving correction, teachers help and improve learning and language comprehension. Murphy (1986:20) pointed the essence of correction: "correction is a way of reminding students of the forms of standard English. It should not be a kind of criticism or punishment".

But what is correction and how does it work? A swift insight into specialized literature reveals that the term "correction" is used with a variety of meanings. For example, Chaudron (1977) observed that there are several denotations of this concept. The most commonly used equivalent is that of "treatment of error", when referring to any teacher behaviour following an error that attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error. The next most general meaning refers to the feedback which is explicit enough to elicit a revised student response. The "true" correction is the type of feedback which causes positive alteration in the learner's interlanguage rule so that the error is eliminated. Sometimes, these three definitions are not clearly distinguished, as neither are the assumptions about the *explicitness* or *implicitness* of correction and its results.

However, it seems that the most difficult task is to have the right balance in error correction. There are some recognizable signs that tell us whether we have got it right or wrong:

- Students are losing their fluency when they speak because they are afraid of making mistakes.
- Many of the errors we correct are things they knew but were just slips of the tongue.
- The Students' facial expressions or body language indicate that they are not open to correction.
- Feedback after a speaking or writing task means mainly error correction, with a lack of suggesting more complex language, making encouraging comments, etc.
- Students make many false friend errors.
- The teacher does not consider which errors could lead to miscommunication before correcting them.

3.6 Breaking the students' fossilized errors

Sometimes students keep making the same mistakes over and over again. This type of errors that occur although correction was offered whenever they were produced are called *fossilized errors*. A 'fossilized' error is an error that is made so often that it has become a natural component of the learner's speech, it has become a habit, part of a student's repertoire and, as a result, it is used subconsciously, as if it were the correct form.

There are a number of factors that contribute to this phenomenon. One is the over-generalisation of rules; for example the addition of "-s" in the present tense, third person singular form of verbs. It is easy for students to remember *I walk, we walk, they walk*. Students can forget to add the "-s" to *he walks* because they follow the same grammar pattern, over-generalizing the rule and applying it to all the verb forms.

Another factor is the tricky use of false friends. For example, in Romanian, *librărie* is the word for "bookstore" in English. In English, the word *library* has a different meaning, referring to the place where you can borrow books. If Romanian students are not corrected on their misuse of the word *library*, they can believe they are using it correctly. Regular use of the word in the wrong context without correction leads to a fossilized error. This concept can also be seen in the use of the present perfect. Many languages have a tense that resembles the English present perfect, but most languages use this tense in different ways.

From my experience, I noticed that only when students concentrated, could they use the correct form; however, when they engaged in spontaneous speech, the incorrectly developed habit re-emerged. Here are a couple of fossilized errors I have encountered in my English language seminars:

e.g. *More informations are required...* (in Romanian, *information* is a variable noun)
or: *I am agree **with** you.* (mother tongue interference - *Sunt de acord **cu** tine*)

The causes for fossilized errors I encountered are mother tongue interference, linear modes of instruction or lack of learner autonomy. Direct intervention has little to no effect, as students tend to produce the same error as soon as they lose concentration on that specific issue. The way to deal with fossilised errors, then, is to raise the students' awareness of the error and to re-teach the language structure. The teacher also needs to be aware of the error. There are numerous things to take into consideration during the process of teaching and the error appears to be so

natural, that it comes easy to let it slip by. When students acknowledge the error and the teacher has checked whether they understand the language point, correction is required every single time the error occurs. Sometimes, a fairly lengthy period of time is necessary to "recover" a fossilized error, therefore patience and good-humour are indispensable qualities. In my opinion, prevention seems to be more effective and special attention should be paid to the identification of the causes that trigger this type of errors.

4 Observation and case study

The study was conducted on 30 first year students from the specialization Automation and Applied Informatics, the Faculty of Automation, Computers and Electronics, University of Craiova, during the first semester (October 2018 - February 2019). The method used in the research is statistical analysis.

The most common errors identified during the study include:

- Misplaced apostrophes: *The programmers's option was to reduce the number of instructions...* **(5 per 5000 words)**
- Incomplete Comparisons: *Feeding instructions to robots was not difficult as computers...* **(4 per 5000 words)**
- Title Capitalizations: *The History of robotics...* **(3 per 5000 words)**
- Run-on sentences: *I am a student in the second year at ACE and I am interested in Automation and I am a member of students' organization ...* (in an interview) **(3 per 5000 words)**
- Subject-verb agreements: *The list of instructions are open to further additions.* **(2 per 5000 words)**

Having identified these recurrent errors, I found that developing active learning techniques for students worked better than just asking students to focus on correcting the errors. Also, I found that a bombardment of correct forms had little to no effect, as students tend to regard overcorrection as a sign of their personal failure and thus lose confidence. From my point of view, it is more useful to encourage students to practice self-correction, as they become more efficient in internalizing language structures.

This study shows that there are at least two reasons why overcorrection can have a negative impact on students' linguistic performance: 1. it can be demotivating for students; 2. it can trigger reluctance to try out new

language. Moreover, from my point of view, it is essential to create a friendly and relaxed atmosphere in language classrooms so that to help students overcome their fear of making errors and to apply appropriate techniques for language acquisition that suit and actively involve individual learners.

5 Conclusion

The discussion on error correction, which has an essential role in ELT classes, is still open for debates. However, there seems to be a general agreement that there is no perfect method of correction, that the teacher should adapt and customize flexible correction methods according to the age, level and motivation of students and that over-correction and poor correction techniques can be demotivating for the learner and may lead to reluctance to try out new language or even to speak at all. According to Bartram and Walton (1994), teachers need to make informed decisions about what, when, and how to correct, in order to help students improve their speaking skills without damaging their confidence.

It is vital that the teachers who teach a foreign language be concerned about what is going on in the learner's mind and be prepared to discuss language problems. They must be prepared and willing to help students filter things for themselves and should not be too impulsive in rejecting a controlled amount of grammatical terminology and mother tongue explanation. Grammatical explanation alone, however, is most unlikely to be effective; it is better used as a back-up device or as a supplementary strategy at the revision stage. Anyway, we should not forget that students do their best to sort things out for themselves and sometimes they require both intellectual and mechanical help.

Learning a language is a lengthy and troublesome process, during which a learner will inevitably make errors. In other words, we take numerous small steps going from not speaking a language to having a satisfactory command of that language. Continuous correction makes students become inhibited and cease to participate in the learning activities. This leads to undesirable results, opposed to the objectives of teaching a foreign language, that is the use of English as a communication channel. In order to avoid such an outcome, error correction should not be regarded as an either/or alternative. Correction is needed and wanted by students. The way in which teachers correct their students' language performance plays an essential role because students either develop confidence in their linguistic abilities or start feeling intimidated and soon lose interest. Strategies such as correcting groups of students at the end of

the activities and allowing them to identify and correct their own errors encourage students to use English instead of letting them worry too much about making errors. The most efficient method of correcting the learners' errors should be customized, planned and applied only after a rigorous analysis of the needs and expectations of the learners.

All things considered, correction as one of the language teaching/learning strategies, depends on time, practice, interest and involvement of both teacher and learner in learning a target language. If a teacher is able to discover the causes of a student's error in one of the four language skills (writing, speaking, reading, listening), then he/she can guide the student towards error correction, plan language learning through error correction strategies and show the causes of those errors to the student.

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VIRTUAL EXCHANGE IN EDUCATION AND BEYOND: AN OVERVIEW

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Abstract: The aim of this paper is to provide an overview of the meaning of the concept of Virtual Exchange (VE, hereinafter), as a strategy of teaching and learning online. There are many aspects to be considered with regards to VE, and my intention here is to build a unitary view of the ways in which the term has been used by both theorists and practitioners, and to highlight its direct implications in the area of students' personal development, which is, after all, the final goal of education. The intercultural environment is the setting for intercultural interaction. Having intercultural interaction as a goal, all the efforts to teach and learn online make sense, because the intercultural encounters assist the development of intercultural communicative competence. What is more, VE aims at maintaining the relationships that are built during online learning. Many subjects in the school curriculum have discovered the usefulness of VE, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic, when the whole world switched to the online mode. In light of the new educational needs, this paper provides an overview of the skills required for the use of VE, on the one hand, and the abilities it is deemed to foster, on the other.

1 Introduction

Education is constantly trying to adapt to technology in order to achieve its goals. Referring to the American public school system, Rothstein and Jacobsen (2006) put forward eight categories of educational goals: academic skills in core subjects, critical thinking and problem solving, social skills and ethics, citizenship and community responsibility, vocational and technical education, physical health, emotional health, and arts and literature. The European Commission built another framework for education

and training, that includes lifelong learning and mobility, equity, social cohesion, active citizenship, creativity, innovation, and entrepreneurship.

In this context, VE emerged as a way of teaching and learning that makes use of information and communication technology in order to connect people from different countries and cultures in online educational activities. Its goals are, as Kilian (2016) noted, language learning, intercultural communicative competence, and digital literacy.

The European Commission (2020) explains on the website of its Erasmus Plus educational programme that in VE the focus is on dialogue and social interaction between students with different cultural backgrounds. Along with study abroad, this educational practice equips students with the abilities to cope with cultural differences and to team up across cultures. Study abroad programmes, however, are not specifically aimed at fostering the dialogue between students from different cultures; moreover, most of the students cannot afford the costs they incur (European Commission 2020).

Surveying the specialist literature, this paper will consider the various acceptations that VE has been given by those concerned.

2 What VE is

The word "exchange" means, above all, a two-way road. Therefore, the significance of VE can best be considered from different perspectives, according to the aims for which it is employed.

2.1 A learning opportunity

To begin with, from an educational perspective, many authors e.g., Belz (2002) and Furstenberg et al. (2001), describe VE as an activity devised in an institutionalized setting in order to help language students acquire both linguistic competence in the foreign language and intercultural competence. In a similar vein, Schleicher (2020) explains that the online teaching and learning environment widens and complements the student-teacher, teacher-teacher, and student-student relationships.

Gradually, VE becomes more than a language learning strategy, extending to every kind of collaboration over the internet that is used in an institutionalised setting. From this perspective, VE can be considered a means of assisting other subject areas to achieve their goals, in the form of online courses. And indeed, the year 2020 can be considered as a peak period for VE, because it has become the only way to continue education during the COVID-19 pandemic. Taking a broader view, Mullen and

Bortoluzzi (2019) see VE as an opportunity for both language learning and social interaction.

2.2 A new teaching tool

VE can be considered as a compliant environment for teaching/learning. Computer mediated communication can smooth out the relationships between students. The anonymity that the online medium (and, implicitly, VE) provides is likely to blur any existing disparities between students and increase in-group cohesion due to the equality of status that it fosters (Richards 2009, in Pritchard and Woollard 2010, 30). Moreover, as Pritchard and Woollard (2010, 30) note, "in general, in the online world the differences of opinion do not lead to conflicts and breakdowns in relationship that are not retractable."

With the help of VE, teachers may not need to split the class in order to work differently with non- homogeneous groups as often as in the traditional setting. "[Chat] is particularly suitable for students who may not access emotional literacy and pastoral care support in any other way," says Richards (2009, in Pritchard and Woollard 2010, 29). In computer mediated communication, the chances of noticing emotions, such as "quizzical expressions, nodding, or frowning" are reduced (Straus and McGrath 1994, 88). This implies "a sense of anonymity" due to the lack of feedback, and anonymity lowers inhibitions (Straus and McGrath 1994, 88). Moreover, the frequency of participation in solving a task tends to be more balanced in computer mediated communication than in a face to face environment (Straus and McGrath 1994, 88).

2.3 A promoter of intercultural communicative competence

One of the perspectives on VE is linked to the acquisition of intercultural competence. Vîlceanu (2011, 75) defines intercultural communicative competence as "life skills." This view resonates with that of the European Commission (2020), which describes VE (together with study abroad) as a branch of the field of educational exchange, based on the use of internet, dealing with the theory and practice of providing young people with life skills.

In the same line of thought, VE is a means to develop students' learning, research and investigation skills. They can take control of their learning, negotiate with their peers, and assess their own work (Smith 2019). Palloff and Pratt (2007) explain that in a virtual exchange activity the main actors of the teaching/learning process are no longer the teachers,

as sources of knowledge, but the students, as explorers of the learning content. Likewise, the learning content is no longer an aim, but a means to develop learning skills and strategies (Weimer, 2002, in Palloff and Pratt 2007, 106). In light of this, Fink (2003) and Palloff and Pratt (2007, 106) draw the conclusion that VE is a means to make students autonomous learners.

Derrick (2003, in Palloff and Pratt 2007, 105), argues that in the online medium students become more creative and independent, acquiring skills necessary for lifelong learning. Therefore, when they know how to learn, students become independent learners that inquire and construct knowledge (Fink 2003, Palloff and Pratt 2007).

2.4 A framework for social interaction

VE can also be seen as a means to involve students in social interaction. The teaching/learning process becomes a social activity in the virtual medium (Smith 2019). Students put into practice "[how to] explain, discuss and negotiate with the teacher and other learners" and, as a result, they develop "empathy, tolerance and understanding of difference" (Smith, 2019). Johnson and Johnson (2005 in Palloff and Pratt 2007, 157) explain that participants must reach a compromise in order to succeed: collaboration itself is based on the awareness that group members "sink or swim together", as the authors put it. Moreover, Johnson and Johnson (1996, in Graham and Misanchuk 2004, 189) note that collaborators get to "like each other, [...] value heterogeneity, which leads to perspective taking, feelings of acceptance and esteem, and psychological success", features that characterise intercultural communicative competence as well.

Furthermore, Driscoll (1994, in Graham and Misanchuk 2008, 186) argues that social interaction in learning is an important element in the development of higher mental processes such as reasoning, judgment, decision, and problem solving. Cunningham (1992) explains that students learn how to negotiate when they are put in situations of justifying their own ideas and questioning others' ideas. "[T]he differences in knowledge, skills, and attitudes among collaborators become strengths rather than weaknesses" (Kai-Wai Chu and Kennedy 2011, 2); therefore, VE can also be looked at as an environment that facilitates the attainment of the educational goals.

2.5 The bigger picture

As the overview above suggests, the prevalent tendency is to describe what VE is by focusing on the educational or social goals it is designed to serve. Taking a broader view, Smith (2019) observes that VE represents both an end product and a tool.

Besides education and intercultural communication, VE is regarded as a means to assist research communities: the Stevens Initiative (www.stevensinitiative.org), a co-funded international organisation, refers to VE as a new field, dealing with "creating knowledge, filling gaps in research, sharing resources and perspectives, and recommending practices." The Stevens Initiative also refer to VE as an educational tool that builds global competencies such as communication, collaboration, empathy, problem-solving skills, stimulates understanding of people from other backgrounds and develops the ability to team up with them. VE is therefore a means to equip students with research skills such as "leadership, creativity, critical thinking, and dialogue" (Brookfield 1996, in Palloff and Pratt 2007, 158).

Navracsics (2016) writes that VE is an umbrella term that covers all aspects of the intercultural exchange in the online medium. Belz (2003) includes online distance learning courses in the category of VE. Scholars such as O'Dowd and Lewis (2016) argue that online games can be considered VE activities because, as Thorne (2008, 317) explains, "gamers must learn to negotiate, [...] be socialized into culturally specific discursive formations, and [...] play in real-time." Online exchange partnerships between faculties and companies that aim at preparing students for work are also VE tasks, and O'Dowd (2018) gives as example the Business Studies field in this respect.

To sum up, the table below draws on the specialist literature in order to build a comprehensive view of VE.

VIRTUAL EXCHANGE	
Meaning	**Aims**
An activity	Acquisition of linguistic competence in the foreign language Acquisition of intercultural competence
A means of assisting other subject areas to achieve their goals	Online courses
An opportunity	Social interaction
A branch of the field of educational exchange	Acquisition of intercultural competence
A means to develop students' learning and investigation skills	Research skills Self-assessment skills Negotiation skills
An environment	Acquisition of educational goals
An end product and a tool	Educational and/or social goals
An over-arching term	All aspects of online intercultural communication

Table 1. A comprehensive view of VE

3 Pre-requisites and potential of VE

There is no doubt that, in order to communicate, students must share a language. The more they practice, the more proficient they become. Furthermore, as Hofstede et al. (2010) state, students must share the same culture. This view of a common, mutually negotiated culture points at the need for intercultural awareness, developed through a common language. Besides being able to use a foreign language, VE requires some measure of computer literacy. As students get involved into VE tasks and have to solve all sorts of computer based assignments (see section 4), they tend to become more and more knowledgeable in the field of ICT.

Teaching/learning requires academic skills (Smith, 2019). For instance, not all of the content material can be taught in the virtual mode. For example, there are units, especially at the beginning of a stage, that require analysis and immediate rectification from the teacher. Another example would be the vocational subjects. Nevertheless, after the students acquire elementary skills, they can continue in virtual fashion, and work independently. Moreover, learning by doing may well be more effective than lecturing, and the skills developed are likely to enable them to carry out research work.

VE requires social skills. Any kind of interaction requires social skills. In the case of VE, the participants have to solve a task together. They need to build a relationship, as they can succeed only as a group. The more they collaborate, the more they increase the practice opportunities for their skills, so the more skilful they become.

More than in the traditional classroom, students need communication skills when they need to ask for clarification, explain, take turn, negotiate, not only because breakdown in online communication occurs much more often, but also because of the lack of non-verbal cues. Their communication skills will become increasingly honed as they are put into practice in shared activities.

In virtual exchange activities, the dialogue is the principal way of investigation (Christiansen and Dirckinck-Holmfeld 1995). Veerman (2003, in Pritchard and Woollard 2010, 29), uses experimental evidence to show that "computer-based technologies can successfully facilitate dialogue and constructive argument." Kearney (2004, 427) observes that "the increased level of pupils' control of the learning tasks helps initiate quality peer discussions." However, worth pointing out here is the fact that Pritchard and Woollard (2010) conclude that students only launched the conversations and reached no conclusion by themselves. The mitigation from the teacher's side was of utmost importance when it came to differences of opinion and negotiation.

Along with dialogue, VE also prompts collaboration and the ability to team up in intercultural groups (Gütl 2011, 279). Therefore, by involving students in VE, they are provided with the opportunity to gain the expertise required to enter the work field.

Decision making and motivation are traits that can be enhanced by working collaboratively (Johnson and Johnson 2003; Driscoll 1994). Therefore, developing intercultural projects has been found as a very valuable technique when employing VE.

Pritchard and Woollard (2010, 26) explain that collaboration and cooperation are linked together, and that there is no collaboration without cooperation. They define cooperation as "a relationship based on support and helpfulness". On the other hand, collaboration is "a long-term relationship that requires commitment of time, responsibility, and trust."

The table below taps into the specialist literature in order to essentialize the nature of VE along the lines of the skills required for the use of VE, on the one hand, and the abilities it is deemed to foster, on the other.

VIRTUAL EXCHANGE		
Purposes	**Knowledge and skills required**	**Abilities/competencies developed**
Teaching, learning, research	**Academic skills** cf. Smith, 2019 **Social skills:** empathy, tolerance, understanding of difference cf. Smith 2019 **Communication skills:** giving explanations, discussing, negotiating cf. Smith 2019 **Dialogue** cf. Christiansen and Dirckinck-Holmfeld 1995 **Foreign language** cf. O'Dowd 2005, Kilian 2016 **Responsibility** cf. Kearney 2004 **Peer evaluation and self-evaluation** cf. Lindner and Méndez Garcia 2014	**Autonomy** cf. Weimer 2002, Derrick 2003, Fink 2003, Palloff and Pratt 2007 **Creativity** cf. Derrick 2003 **Critical thinking** cf. Palloff and Pratt 2007 **Dialogue** cf. Kearney 2004 **Foreign language development** cf. O'Dowd 2005, Kilian 2016 **Independence** cf. Derrick 2003 **Inquisitiveness** cf. Fink2003, Palloff and Pratt 2007 **Intercultural awareness** cf. O'Dowd and Lewis 2016 **Problem solving** cf. Driscoll 1994, Palloff and Pratt 2007 **Responsibility** cf. Pritchard and Woollard 2010
Communication for professional/social/ personal purposes	**Social skills** cf. Jonassen et al. 1995 **Communication** cf. Kai-Wai Chu and Kennedy 2011 **Computer based activities** cf. Kearney 2004, Pritchard and Woollard 2010 **Computer literacy** cf. Johnson and Johnson 2008,	**Building relationships** cf. O'Rourke 2007, Thorne 2010 **Changing perspective** cf. Cunningham 1992, Johnson and Johnson 1996, Johnson and Johnson 2003, Palloff and Pratt 2007 **Collaboration** cf. Johnson and Johnson 2003, Johnson and Johnson 2005

Cooperation	Computer literacy
cf. Pritchard and Woollard 2010	cf. Johnson and Johnson 2008,
Differences in knowledge, skills, and attitudes	**Creativity**
	cf. Brookfield 1996
cf. Kai-Wai Chu and Kennedy 2011	**Critical thinking**
	cf. Brookfield 1996
Project creation	**Dialogue**
cf. Kai-Wai Chu and Kennedy 2011	cf. Brookfield 1996
	Judgment, decision taking
Social interaction	cf. Driscoll 1994
cf. Alavi 1994	**Leadership**
	cf. Brookfield 1996
	Learning
	cf. Kearney 2004, Johnson and Johnson 2008, Pritchard and Woollard 2010
	Motivation
	cf. Johnson and Johnson 2003
	Negotiation
	cf. Cunningham 1992, Curtis and Lawson 2001
	Participation in solving a task
	cf. Straus and McGrath 1994
	Self-esteem
	cf. Johnson and Johnson 2003
	Social skills
	cf. Johnson and Johnson 1996, Gütl 2011 Teamwork, Gütl 2011

Table 2. Purposes of VE, skills required and competencies developed

4 Examples of VE task types

This section lists activities that have so far been designed and used in educational settings, either synchronously, in chats or videoconferences, or asynchronously, by email or forums. The task types were identified by Harris (1998) and O'Dowd and Waire (2009). The examples listed below

aim at clarifying the real situations in which VE has been found successful.

1. Keypals, in which "students discuss topics such as native animals, traditional folktales, daily schedules, homes, religions, traditional dress, and school curricula." (Harris 1998, 21)
2. Global Classrooms, in which "two or more classrooms in different locations study a common topic together, […] conceptualized not only as interdisciplinary investigations, but as thematically organized inquiries" (Harris 1998, 23)
3. Electronic Appearance, in which "students communicate with locally, nationally, or internationally known people" (Harris 1998, 25)
4. Telementoring, in which "specialists from universities, business, government, or other schools can serve as electronic mentors to students wanting to explore specific topics of study in an interactive format." (Harris 1998, 28)
5. Question and Answer Activities, are designed to help "students who either can't find the information they need to fully answer a question they have, or who don't fully understand the information they have found online." (Harris 1998, 30)
6. Impersonations, in which "participants communicate with each other in characters. […] Characterizations are provided by the teaching staff." (Harris 1998, 32)
7. Information Exchanges, which means sharing information (Harris 1998, 32)
8. Database Creation, meaning "collecting information and organizing it into databases so that project participants and others can use it for studying," (Harris 1998, 37)
9. Electronic Publishing, in which "students are invited to write news stories of local, provincial, or national scope and share them." (Harris 1998, 38)
10. Telefieldtrips, in which students take a trip and then share their impressions online. For instance, "remotely located classes send questions to which sightseers must answer." (Harris 1998, 40)
11. Pooled Data Analysis, such as "issuing a survey, collecting the responses, analyzing the results, and reporting their findings." (Harris 1998, 41)
12. Information Search that can take the form of a competitive activity in which students have to find answers to a set of questions. (Harris 1998, 32)

13. Peer Feedback is an activity that "encourages participants to offer constructive responses both to others' ideas and to the forms in which those ideas are expressed." (Harris 1998, 46)
14. Parallel Problem Solving, referring to "exploring solutions separately, and then coming together online to compare, contrast, and discuss the solving methods." (Harris 1998, 46)
15. Sequential Creations, in which participants are required to "create either a common written text or a shared visual image." (Harris 1998, 47)
16. Telepresent Problem-Solving that makes use of different kinds of multimedia systems to remotely connect students in order to take part in different activities simultaneously (Harris 1998, 32).
17. Online simulations are tasks that depend on the coordination of all activities (Harris 1998, 32).
18. Social Action Projects are tasks "oriented toward taking action, rather than stopping at comprehension." (Harris 1998, 52)
19. Authoring "cultural autobiographies," aimed at "establishing personal relationship with partners and increasing awareness of cultural differences." (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
20. Carrying out virtual interviews, aimed at developing intercultural communicative competence, (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
21. Engaging in informal discussion, aiming at "independent learning and fluency in the target language," (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
22. Exchanging story collections, aimed at the acquisition of cultural knowledge (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
23. Comparing parallel texts, aimed at "awareness of the target culture and of one's own culture," (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
24. Comparing class questionnaires, aimed at intercultural pragmatics – awareness of meanings (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
25. Analysing cultural products, also aimed at "awareness of the target culture and of one's own culture," (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
26. Translating, aimed at fluency in the target language and intercultural pragmatics (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
27. Collaborating on product creation, aimed at developing intercultural communicative competence and digital literacy (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
28. Transforming text genres, aimed at fluency in the target language and linguistic awareness (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)
29. "Closed outcome" discussions, aimed at negotiation of meaning (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176)

30. Making cultural adaptations/translations, aimed at developing intercultural communicative competence (O'Dowd and Waire 2009, 176).

5 Conclusions

The different studies surveyed above show that there is no unitary view on what VE is, on the competencies it requires and on the skills it is designed to foster. VE is still a developing concept and this may be one reason for the coexistence of many acceptations with which it is used. Another reason may be the many aims that were assigned to the activities designed in VE format. Moreover, it appears that VE does not have an aim of its own, but rather helps other subject areas achieve their goals.

There are many preconditions to be met before starting to work online, and VE cannot do all things from scratch. This paper has provided an overview of what it takes to work in the VE mode and also of the benefits it may yield.

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Acknowledgements

MOBILE TECHNOLOGY FOR ESP STUDENTS: USAGE AND ATTITUDES

ALEXANDRA STAN

Abstract: The advent of new technologies has changed the face of learning. While their cognitive value is being questioned by some, foreign language teaching and learning have been particularly influenced by the new mobile technology, which bridged the gap between formal and informal learning. Teachers and students everywhere use mobile devices like mobile phones and tablets to perform various didactic tasks. In an attempt to achieve more efficient teaching by structurally integrating formal and informal learning via mobile technology, this baseline study set out to find out what kind of mobile devices undergraduate forestry students at my home university use when learning ESP, why they use them, and the learners' attitudes towards the usefulness of this technology when learning English. For this purpose, a questionnaire was administered to 119 first and second year students at *Transilvania* University of Braşov. The results indicate that the majority of students often use mobile devices in the EL learning process, particularly the mobile phone, and the reasons for their use are, among others, for translation purposes and for consulting dictionaries. The students' attitudes towards the benefits and usefulness of mobile devices are generally positive, which may be encouraging for teachers, as they could incorporate this technology into the classroom or foster its use in their students in informal settings.

Keywords: mobile technology, MALL, mobile devices, digital program, digital app

0 Introduction

The availability of mobile/portable devices has changed foreign language teaching and learning with today's students (Abdous et al. 2009). According to studies (e.g., Viberg 2012) that investigated the use of mobile technology in various aspects of language learning, mobile devices can enhance learners' second and foreign language acquisition. This is because mobile devices have become personal tools that help people learn

wherever they go, by means of formal training or informal support and conversation (Kukulska-Hulme et al. 2007, in Kukulska-Hulme et al. 2011, 13). This can boost the development of independent learning skills, which is increasingly being perceived as of great importance to foster in learners (Benson 2006, in Barrs 2012, 12).

Teaching ESP as L2 to Romanian undergraduate forestry students, I wanted to find out to what extent my students turn to mobile technology for help in learning English either in class or in informal settings, and their attitudes towards the usefulness of this technology. A look into Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (or MALL) was necessary, a field whose researchers should, as Kukulska-Hulme (2009, in Chen 2013, 22) put it, "focus more on how mobility, accompanied by digital, location-aware technologies, changes learning". Stockwell (2010, in Chen 2013, 22) argued that this can be achieved by examining the use of mobile tools by learners in the learning process, especially in informal settings, and the learners' perception of mobile devices as tools in assisting language learning. Thus, language instructors can provide learners with valuable guidance on how to better use them to achieve their learning goals (Chen 2013, 22).

Existing studies investigate students' usage and attitudes towards the use of tablets in informal language learning in China (Chen 2013), the use and perception of apps for smartphone and tablets to support informal language teaching and learning of English as a Foreign Language by teachers and students in China (Liu et al. 2016), and the perception on the usage of MALL in English as a Second Language among private vocational college students in Malaysia (Azli et al. 2018). Closer to home, studies conducted in Romania relate to the impact of social media on the educational process in Romanian higher education (Stanciu et al. 2012), teaching Romanian to international medical students via integrated communication devices (Colibaba et al. 2014), high school students' usage and attitudes towards the use of digital tools in learning English vocabulary (Cojocnean 2016), teaching and learning approaches in context using mobile devices in primary and secondary schools from rural communities (Gheorghiu and Ştefan 2016), practical ideas for using mobile technology in secondary education (Turc 2017), and using smartphones in the ESP class to upgrade the communicative approach to language learning (Mihăeş and Dimitriu 2019).

However, to the best of my knowledge, no investigation has so far been undertaken in the Romanian context on the role of mobile devices (mobile phones, tablets, notebooks) in the teaching/learning of English in higher education, and on the university students' perception of them.

The aim of this research, therefore, is to learn **what mobile devices** university students use in the (formal and informal) EL learning process, the **frequency** of use, the **purpose** for their use, and their **views** on the **usefulness** and benefits of these devices in learning a foreign language. In this paper, the term **mobile device** will encompass any devices described by Klopfer, Squire, and Jenkins (2002, in Demirbilek 2010, 237) as offering: (a) portability (which means they are location independent); (b) social interactivity (can exchange data and collaborate with others); (c) individuality (can provide scaffolding for individual paths of investigation); (d) connectivity (can connect handheld devices to other devices to create a shared environment); and (e) context sensitivity (can gather data "just-in-time and place").

The discussion starts with a theoretical overview of definitions and features of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning, dimensions of mobility in learning according to Vavoula et al. (2005), and functions of mobile devices in the communicative context, according to Wong and Looi (2010). It will then go on to describe the survey employed to accomplish the aims stated above, and it will end with a discussion of the findings.

1 Current status of the field

Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (henceforth MALL) is a new area of CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) inquiry. It is linked to the development of new mobile devices such as smartphones, e-book readers, laptops, and tablet computers.

Mobile learning, or m-learning, has been found to be effective in improving educational outcomes because it (a) improves access to education, and (b) promotes learning that is learner-centered, personalized, collaborative, situated, and ubiquitous (Valk, Rashid, and Elder 2010, in Chen 2013, 20). It has been defined extensively in the literature (e.g., Vavoula et al. 2004, Sharples et al. 2009, Chen 2013, Kukulska-Hulme 2013, in Stockwell and Hubbard 2013, etc.) as formal or informal learning via handheld/mobile devices (in conjunction with web-based tools) available anytime, anywhere. In other words, mobile learning is "any sort of learning that happens when the learner is not at a fixed, predetermined location, or learning that happens when the learner takes advantage of the learning opportunities offered by mobile technologies" (Vavoula et al. 2004, 7).

Chan et al. (2006, in Kukulska-Hulme et al. 2011, 26) use the term "seamless learning" to describe the new situations when students can learn when they are curious and "they can switch from one scenario to another

easily and quickly using their personal mobile device as a mediator." Such a scenario implies learning individually, either with a peer or a large online community, with the possible involvement of teachers, etc., face-to-face or in other modes of interaction, at a distance in classrooms, outdoors, etc. (Kukulska-Hulme et al. 2011, 26).

With all these descriptions, Viberg (2012) notes that the field of MALL needs more conceptualized knowledge consisting in field-specific definitions, theories, models, and solid evidence on how using mobile technology can assist foreign language acquisition. On the other hand, Stockwell and Hubbard (2013, 2) believe that this field has been researched extensively over the past twenty years, which has developed the field at the same pace with the enormous advances that have happened in mobile technology.

Some features of mobile learning as recorded in the literature include mobility, possibility of spatial and time shifts yielding increased learning opportunities, and connectivity (Wi-Fi, Internet) which provides opportunities of meaningful real-context interactions in out-of-class situations), leading to collaborative learning (Chen 2013, 21).

The **mobile** concept in **mobile learning** refers to mobility in physical space (learning "on the move"), mobility of technology (the portability of tools and resources, transferring attention across devices), mobility in conceptual space (attention moves from one conceptual topic to another depending on one's personal interest), mobility in social space (learners performing within various social groups, i.e., family, office, classroom, etc.), and learning dispersed over time (learning as a cumulative process involving reinforcement across formal and informal learning contexts) (Sharples et al. 2009, 235 and Kukulska-Hulme et al. 2011, 20-21). In other words, learning "flows across locations, time, topics and technologies" (Sharples et al. 2009, 235).

Vavoula et al. (2005, 22) identified the following dimensions of mobility in learning:

Dimension	Non-mobile	Mobile
Portability of tools/resources	Fixed tools/resources	Portable tools/resources
Peripatetic learner (spatial mobility)	Learner at usual learning location	Learner away from usual learning location, or on the move
Learner alternates between tools/resources (tool variance)	Learner uses single tool-resource	Learner uses a variety of tools-resources
Learner alternates between topics/areas (thematic variance)	Learner activity relates to single topic/area	Learner activity relates to a variety of topics/areas
Learning is dispersed in time (not always clear-cut start-finish)	Learning in one-off experience	Cumulative learning

Table 1. Dimensions of Mobility in Learning (Vavoula et al. 2005)

The advantages to "mobile" learning as opposed to "non-mobile" learning are obvious as far as the portability of tools, the space where the learning takes place, tool variance, thematic variance, and dispersion in time are concerned.

According to Wong and Looi (2010, 423), in the context of the communicative approach to language learning, mobile devices may function as:

o   A data collection tool (for recording casual interactions with others in the target language which could be used for future reflections, content creation and sharing);

o   A communication tool (for learners to communicate with their peers, instructors or native speakers via phone calls, SMS or phone e-mail in the target language);

o   A language assistant (providing instructions or references to support language learners in conversing with native speakers in real-life situations);

o   A productive tool for learners (to create short write-ups, photos or animations, perhaps *in-situ*, i.e., related to the contexts that the learners are situated in);

o   A tool for learners to interact with augmented realities (i.e., to detect the RFID-or 2D barcode-tagged objects in their surroundings for further situated language learning).

Sharples et al. (2010, 89) indicate the convergence between the new conceptions of learning as a personally-managed lifelong activity and the new personal and mobile technologies:

New Learning	New technology
Personalized	Personal
Learner centred	User centred
Situated	Mobile
Collaborative	Networked
Ubiquitous	Ubiquitous
Lifelong	Durable

Table 2. Convergence between learning and technology
(Sharples et al. 2010)

New personalized and learner centred learning relates to personal and user centred technology, as the latter provides personalized services adapted to each learner. Situated and collaborative learning is understood to occur "wherever people, individually or collectively […] have knowledge to share" and correspondingly, "mobile networked technology can enable people to gain and share information wherever […], rather than in a fixed location." (Sharples et al. 2010, 90). New learning and technology are ubiquitous, they can occur anytime, anywhere and, just as the new technology is durable, so can it enable lifelong learning.

2 The present study

2.1 Methodology

The instrument used in this survey is a questionnaire (see **Appendix**) administered to an overall of 119 students in Silviculture and Forest Engineering enrolled in my ESP classes, and having an intermediate level of competence in English. The questionnaire consisted of six items: the first four are close-ended questions and the last two are open-ended. It includes three variables: *gender, age,* and *study year*. I included the *gender* variable because the majority of the respondents, 83 to be exact, are male, and 36 are female, which is not unusual in this male-oriented specialization.

The *ages* of the participants ranged between 18 and 24. As far as the *study year* variable is concerned, there were 58 first year undergraduate students and 61 second year undergraduate students. These variables were considered in order to find out if the students' level of experience and education would influence the results of this survey.

2.2 Results

In what follows, I will present and discuss the results of the investigation which relates to (a) whether the respondents use mobile devices, (b) what types of mobile devices the respondents use in the English language learning process, (c) the frequency of use, (d) reasons for the use of mobile devices, (e) types of mobile devices preferred, and (f) perception of the usefulness of mobile devices in learning a foreign language.

a. The replies to the first question, *Do you use mobile devices in the English language learning process?,* showed that all students used mobile devices in their learning of English, but the types of device varied.

b. The second question allowed for multiple answers. As Figure 1 below shows, the use of mobile phones is predominant with all the students, specifically 56 first year students (96.5%) and 58 second year students (95%). This choice can easily be explained by the fact that mobile phones are affordable, easy to carry around, and function as mini-computers. Notebooks are the second most used mobile device by students in both study years (9 first year students, or 15.5% and 17 second year students, or 27.8%) and the tablet is the third most used by 5 first year students and 1 second year student. The "other" category includes respondents' input in the form of what they understood (or not) to mean mobile devices: laptop (8 first years and 4 second years), computer (2 first years and 1 second year), and TV (1 first year student).
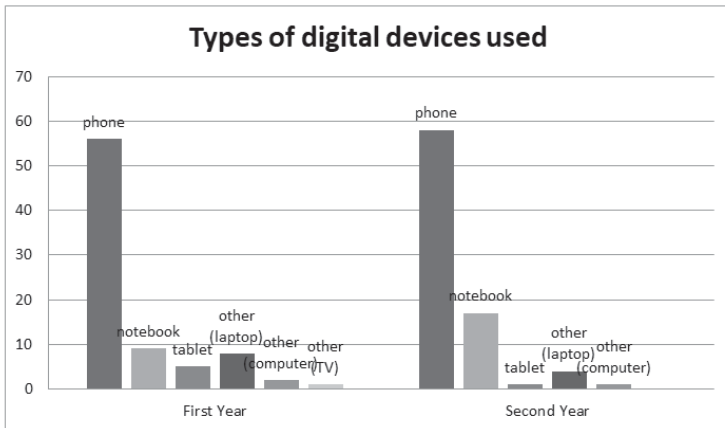
Figure 1. Responses to Question 2: *What mobile devices do you use in the English language learning process?*

c. The third question, *How often do you use mobile devices in the English language learning process?*, sought to find out the frequency of use of mobile devices in the EL learning process. The results shown in Figure 2 below indicate that both first and second year students use mobile devices often (27 first years, or 46.5% and 30 second years, or 49.1% respectively), sometimes (24 first years, or 41.3% and 20 second years, or 32.7%), daily (6 first years, or 10.3% and 10 second years, or 16.3%), and very rarely (1 respondent from each study year). These statistics are encouraging for me, their ESP teacher, because they show that the students are motivated to use mobile devices (especially their mobile phones) in order to develop their EL skills beyond the original purpose for which these devices were made.

Figure 2. Frequency of mobile devices use – first year (left), second year (right).

d. The fourth item in the questionnaire, for which the respondents could tick more than one choice, was aimed at learning the reasons behind the respondents' use of mobile devices in the EL learning process. Figure 3 below reveals that "to translate" was the top reason for using mobile devices among both first and second year students (54 first years, or 93.1% and 53 second years, or 86.8% respectively). This choice is understandable considering the fact that they are learning English as a foreign language, and they would be motivated to understand it in order to decode messages and communicate better. As far as the specific digital programs/apps used by the respondents "to translate", dictionaries were complemented by Google Translate, Duolingo, etc. (see the answers to Question 5 below, in section *e.*).

This answer was followed by "to consult dictionaries" (34 students in each study year, or 58.6% of first years and 55.7% of second years), which here goes beyond the translation and communication reasons above, as it refers to the students' reference skills (looking up certain types of information, like monolingual definitions, parts of speech) developed during the teaching process.

The next reasons for using mobile devices were "to watch and listen to videos" (30 first years, or 51.7% and 37 second years, or 60.6%), understandably so, as people (especially young people) may tend to acquire a foreign language faster and more easily via audiovisual materials; "to read texts" (24 first years, or 41.3% and 25 second years, or 40.9%), "to write texts" (21 first years, or 36.2% and 23 second years, or 37.7%), and "to view images" (11 first years, or 18.9% and 14 second years, or 22.9%). The last category, namely "other", consists of the following answers provided by the first year students: "to watch movies" (2 students), "to communicate/interact with foreigners" (1 student), and "for projects" (1 student), and by the second year students: "to learn grammar" (1 student), "to use apps to check accuracy in language" (1 student), and "to operate certain software in English" (1 student).
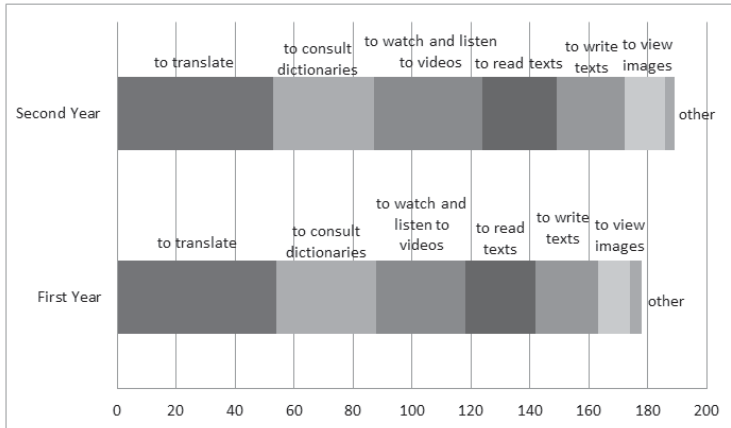
Figure 3. Reasons for using mobile devices in the EL learning process.

e. Item 5, *What digital programs or apps do you use to accomplish activities for English language learning? Please provide examples of activities accomplished using the digital programs or apps mentioned*, is an open-ended question aimed at finding out what digital programs and/or apps the respondents use when accomplishing activities for EL learning and the specific activities they achieve by means of digital programs/apps i.e., online programs, apps, platforms, and media services offered via the Internet, like Youtube, social media (Instagram, Facebook, etc.), search engines (Google, Bing), Netflix, etc.

Not all the respondents provided examples of activities performed by means of digital programs/apps; but the answers to this question

indicate that the three most used digital programs/apps by students in both study years are Google Translate (39 first years, or 67.2% and 32 second years, or 52.4% respectively), Duolingo (10 first years, or 17.2% and 15 second years, or 24.5%), and Youtube (9 first years, or 15.5% and 12 second years, or 19.6%).

First year students use:
- o Google Translate – to translate (25 students), to write coherent sentences (2 students), to learn new idioms (1 student), and to listen to pronunciation (1 student);
- o Duolingo – to improve their pronunciation (2 students), because it is easy to learn using it (2 students), to learn new vocabulary and tenses, in order to connect words in a sentence (2 students), as a game (1 student), for practice (1 student);
- o Youtube – to watch videos in English (7 students), to learn about history, science, and physics (1 student), for in-depth understanding of certain topics (1 student).

Second year students use:
- o Google Translate – to translate (21 students) and to check translations or spelling (1 student);
- o Duolingo – to learn new vocabulary (3 students), to listen to pronunciation and view images (1 student), for reading, writing, and speaking purposes (1 student), to learn in a relaxed manner and to set goals (1 student), to write, translate, and speak (1 student);
- o Youtube – to listen to and watch foreign songs, documentaries, movies, and as an online teacher (10 students), for pronunciation (1 student).

Other digital programs/apps used by the first year students are:
- o online dictionaries (8 students) like *Merriam-Webster dictionary* (1 student) – for writing and translation purposes (3 students), to write papers (1 student), to learn new words easily (1 student), to look up synonyms (1 student);
- o search engines like *Google* (6 students) – to consult dictionaries and for translation purposes (2 students), to view images (1 student), to learn more information about courses and find explanations of words (1 student), and *Bing* (1 student);
- o the Internet (4 students) – to read books in English on various websites (2 students), to translate (1 student), to learn grammar (1 student), to watch movies and TV shows (1 student);

- o Netflix – to watch movies and TV shows, to enrich their vocabulary (3 students);
- o games (2 students) – to enrich their vocabulary (1 student);
- o apps like *My Fitness Pal* to find out the caloric value of certain foods (1 student), *PONS vocabulary trainer* to enrich their vocabulary (1 student), and *Fun Easy Learn* (1 student);
- o social media (1 student), like *Instagram* (1 student), *Tik Tok* (1 student), and *Facebook* (1 student);
- o Whatsapp and messenger – to communicate/interact with foreigners (1 student);
- o websites (2) such as www.cambridgeenglish.org, https://www.britishcouncil.ro/, https://www.perfect-english-grammar.com/ – for reading, writing, and listening purposes (1 student);
- o Microsoft Word (3 students) to read and write texts (2 students) and Microsoft Power Point (1 student).

The digital programs/apps used by the second year students are:

- o online dictionaries (9 students) like *Merriam-Webster dictionary* (1 student) and *https://www.wordreference.com/* (1 student) – to translate (3 students), to look up pronunciation, definitions, synonyms (1 student), and to look up synonyms and translations, respectively (1 student);
- o *Google* search engine (6 students) – to view images (1 student), to look up unknown words (1 student), to look up information (1 student);
- o apps like *WordBit* (3 students) to enrich their vocabulary (1 student), *Hello Talk* (2 students) to communicate/interact online with other people (1 student), *Skillshare* to practise English with professionals (1 student), *LearnEnglish Grammar* to learn grammar (1 student), *Grammarly Keyboard* to spell-check texts (1 student), *Word Hippo* (1 student), *Mondly* and *Busuu* (1 student), *Audio Bible* (1 student), *Google Lens* (1 student), apps provided by the faculty (1 student), and other apps and programs set to English (1 student);
- o social media like *Facebook* (2 students) and *Instagram* (1 student) – to communicate/socialize with people in English (1 student), to read texts (1 student);
- o Netflix (2 students) – to watch movies, TV shows, and documentaries (1 student);
- o Google Scholar to look up information (1 student);

    o   websites (5 students) such as https://www.cabi.org/ to learn useful things that cannot be found on Romanian websites (1 student), https://www.reverso.net/text_translation.aspx?lang=EN for translation purposes (1 student), https://fmog.oikothesis.org/ to learn and understand terminology (1 student), https://books.google.com/ to read texts (1 student), https://elearning.unitbv.ro/login/index.php to access educational materials (1 student), https://archive.org/index.php (1 student);

    o   online books – to enrich their vocabulary (1 student).

According to the answers above, some of the digital programs/apps used by the respondents in the EL learning process are language-oriented (e.g. Word Hippo, the online dictionaries), and others are not (Youtube, Netflix, etc.). These answers can be useful in that they allow teachers to make informed suggestions as to what digital programs/apps their students can use in correlation with the skills they can develop: e.g. monolingual (https://www.dictionary.com/, https://www.lexico.com/) and bilingual dictionaries (https://ro.bab.la/, https://ro-en.gsp.ro/dictionar-englez-roman), databases, especially for writing (like https://ludwig.guru/) or for teamwork (like Padlet). Students can benefit from finding out about many more useful digital programs/apps that can actually make a difference in their EL learning process, besides the ones they already use.

This discussion raises another interesting question: How can the teacher capitalize on a non-language oriented program/app that the students often use as a learning tool? A possible answer is through the task setting process and by selecting the right materials to achieve EL learning. For example, students can be tasked to look for Youtube videos which contain material relevant for their specialization and then present or discuss those videos with their peers in terms of the terminology used therein, terminology for the understanding of which they can consult dictionaries or other translation programs/apps. The task can be achieved individually or collectively, either in the classroom or anywhere else, and the discussion may take place, for instance, on an elearning platform at an appointed time.

f. Finally, the last item in the questionnaire asked the respondents to use the cues given in order to express their attitudes towards the usefulness and benefits of using mobile devices when learning a foreign language: *Mobile devices are useful in learning a foreign language. Yes, because… / No, because…*

Most of the respondents showed a positive attitude towards the use of mobile devices when learning English. Some of the reasons given were

similar in the case of all the students, for example the easy access to information (34 students), the high speed of access to information (25 students), the large quantity of information and data provided by these mobile devices (24 students), the ease of learning a foreign language (18 students), the fact that mobile devices contain various audio and video features that help with pronunciation (5 students), visuals (4 students), and games that enable vocabulary acquisition and the development of communication skills (3 students).

Another common reason for the usefulness of mobile devices in learning a foreign language among the surveyed first and second year students was that they are *fun* (4 students).

In other words, it appears that, in the fast-moving world of today, teachers need to provide students with fast, easy access to a lot of fun learning materials which can enable them to learn a foreign language easily via audiovisual aids.

The first year students also validated the benefits of mobile devices because they provide accurate information (2 students), they replace traditional means when necessary (1 student) (in a pandemic, for instance), and they provide means for individual study (because some students experience shyness when speaking English in front of their peers) (1 student).

The second year students, on the other hand, explained their affirmative choice by saying that mobile devices enable users to expand the range of their vocabulary and communicate in an international language (8 students), as well as learn English informally because certain apps require English knowledge to operate (2 students), and they adapt to each user (4 students). Mobile devices are useful in the second year respondents' opinion because they are portable, mobile, and they offer continuous opportunities to study (3 students), they motivate them to communicate (2 students), and last but not least, they are cheap (1 student).

The negative answers to the last item in the questionnaire relate to the lack of accuracy which characterizes the sources of information provided via mobile devices (6 students), the fact that they distract attention from study (2 students), they offer merely a medium level of language competence, while a teacher would provide an advanced level (1 student), and finally, learning a language can be achieved easier by communicating/speaking with people, not by using mobile devices (1 student).

These results beg the question: *how can the mobile technology that the students use anyway be incorporated into the teaching and learning*

process and how can the teacher foster the use of mobile technology in the students' informal environment?

By and large, informal learning takes place in situations where the students learn in their own way, at their own pace, and in unscripted circumstances (cf. Vavoula et al. 2005, 12). This entails that informal learning can occur virtually anywhere as long as the students choose their materials.

As far as the previous question is concerned, related to incorporating mobile technology into the teaching and learning process, the example mentioned under *e.* above is one possible answer: tasking the students to use their mobile devices and digital programs/apps (like Youtube) in order to collect and present information individually or collectively, either in the classroom or anywhere else (e.g. on an elearning platform) at an established time.

3 Conclusions

This study set out to investigate the use of mobile devices among Romanian undergraduate forestry students in the process of learning ESP, and their attitudes towards the usefulness of this technology in learning a foreign language. To achieve this aim, a questionnaire was administered to 119 students from my home University. Overall, the findings show that all the respondents use digital devices **often** in the EL learning process, and the most popular mobile device for this purpose is the **mobile phone**, probably due to its affordability, connectivity, and portability, among others. The top three reasons the respondents use mobile devices in the formal and informal EL learning process are bilingual translation (which has the potential to develop translation skills, reference skills, including mining skills, as well as reading and listening skills), dictionary consultation*,* and accessing audiovisual material on the internet.

The three most accessed digital programs/apps via mobile devices by respondents are Google Translate, mostly for translations, Duolingo, to enrich their vocabulary and for pronunciation, and Youtube, to watch videos in English. Lastly, the students' attitudes towards the usefulness of mobile devices in learning a foreign language are generally positive, which is a good sign for language teachers and students as it shows that language learners want to use mobile technology in their studies, and this opens a new world of possibilities for language learning and teaching (Chen 2013, 25). Despite the limited number of participants, the results of this survey are revealing in terms of the possibilities of incorporating mobile technology in formal and informal teaching/learning and of great

help in disseminating recommendations of digital programs and apps to aid the students' EL learning process.

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Appendix

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is aimed at learning information related to the mobile devices used by students in the English language learning process (both in academic and informal settings). Your feedback is confidential and there are no right or wrong answers: tick the answers which apply to your case.

Gender:	☐ M	☐ F	
Age:	☐ 18-24	☐ 25-35	☐ over 35
Study year:	☐ I	☐ II	

1. Do you use mobile devices in the English language learning process?
   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

2. What mobile devices do you use in the English language learning process?
   ☐ mobile phone ☐ tablet ☐ notebook ☐ other…….

3. How often do you use mobile devices in the English language learning process?
   ☐ very rarely   ☐ sometimes   ☐ often   ☐ daily

4. I use mobile devices in the English language learning process to:
   ☐ consult dictionaries
   ☐ translate
   ☐ read texts
   ☐ write texts
   ☐ view images
   ☐ watch and listen to videos
   ☐ other:
   ………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………

5. What digital programs or apps do you use to accomplish activities for English language learning? Please provide examples of activities accomplished using the digital programs or apps mentioned.

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6. Mobile devices are useful in learning a foreign language.

☐ Yes, because ……………………………………………………
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………………………………………………………………………
☐ No, because…………………………………………………….
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………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………

Thank you!

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