Teodora Popescu

THE BUSINESS ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

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List of Abbreviations

BE – Business English
BELMA – Best European Learning Materials Award
BNC – British National Corpus
CLIL – Content and Language Integrated Learning
CMA – Critical Metaphor Analysis
CMA – Critical Metaphor Analysis
EAP – English for Academic Purposes
EFL – English as a Foreign Language
EGAP – English for General Academic Purposes
EGBP – English for General Business Purposes
EOP – English for Occupational Purposes
ESAP – English for Specific Academic Purposes
ESBP – English for Specific Business Purposes
ESL – English as a Second Language
ESP – English for Specific Purposes
EST – English for Science and Technology
EUROCLIC – European Network of Adminsitrators, Researchers and Practitioners
General English – GE
IDV – Individualism
IL – Interlanguage
IND – Indulgence
LSP – Language for Specific Purposes
LTO – Long-term Orientation
MAS – Masculinity
NA – Needs Analysis
NL – Native Language
PDI – Power Distance Index
SL – Source Language
SP-LT – Special-Purpose Language Teaching
TBS – Task-based Syllabus
TL – Target Language
TSA – Target Situation Analysis
UAI – Uncertainty Avoidance Index

INTRODUCTION

The present study came to life as a result of the scientific inquiry and classroom practice I carried out over a period of almost twenty years of teaching business English at tertiary level, before, during and after completing a PhD thesis in Business English language curricula. I have constantly, throughout these years, tried to combine theoretical investigations with practical applications, and whenever possible, I kept a record of the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data obtained as a result of my classroom research, and analysed it in order to improve my teaching performance and my students' learning experiences, or, as the case may be, to present the results on different occasions, such as conferences or round tables dedicated to the subject.

It is structured into four main chapters, which lead us along the path of business language curriculum, from the general, wider perspective upon curriculum to more hands-on, practice- and research-based approaches to business English.

The first chapter, *Curriculum. A history of the concept* focuses on the evolution of curriculum, from its birth to nowadays theory and practice. The main definitions, together an overview of the main theorists' models and philosophies are presented, although not exhaustively. Curriculum, as an overarching concept will by necessity include learning situations and experiences, as well as the design, implementation and evaluation of educational programmes. Types and components of curriculum are also described, with an emphasis on current challenges of the contemporary world.

Chapter two, *The language curriculum* deals with some aspects of what makes the difference between curriculum and syllabus, and addresses the historical typology of the language syllabus. Therefore, it describes, in turn, the formal, functional, situational / topical, lexical, skills-based, procedural, process and task-based syllabi, assessing their relevance to the process of language learning / teaching.

The third chapter, *The business language curriculum* tackles the subject of the business language education within the larger framework of English for Specific Purposes, a part of which it is indeed, functioning according to the ESP principles and methodology. It starts with an introduction into the history of ESP, continuing with a conceptual framework, including purpose, content and categories. The history of ESP is further analysed through the description of the main development stages up to the 21st century and present-day challenges. A special emphasis is placed on ESP course evaluation and the ways in which this can be achieved. Next, the chapter addresses the distinction between General English and Business English. Specific topics pertaining to business English are tackled, such as materials design, the interplay of culture and business language, or the metaphoricity of business English. Finally, a potential paradigm for the design and implementation of business language programmes is brought forth, drawing on the model already envisaged by Popescu as back as 2006, as a result of her doctoral research.

Chapter four, *Practical applications* concentrates on several hands-on aspects related to the business language curriculum, such as materials design with a focus on both skills and grammar and lexis knowledge, translation in the business English class, business dictionaries and glossaries, and last, but not least, CLIL applications for tertiary education.

All in all, the book is intended for teachers of business and ESP teachers in general, who need to keep up to date with the latest developments in the field (such as the use of corpus studies, CLIL or EAP methodological suggestions). It can be equally useful to MA students of English who want to expand their knowledge in the field of the business language subgenre.

Teodora Popescu,
Alba Iulia, 2017

CHAPTER ONE
CURRICULUM. A HISTORY OF THE CONCEPT

1.1 Definitions of curriculum

Curriculum represents a highly-debated concept nowadays, still in the focus of researchers, in particular educationalists, being used in conjunction with almost all basic concepts used in modern pedagogy: teaching, learning, instruction, assessment, etc. At national, European and international level there is a constant preoccupation for curriculum reform in all major areas of education. The need for commonly accepted principles across countries, triggered by the increasing mobility of individuals for study or labour purposes is felt by governments and educational institutions (schools, universities, life-long learning institutions, etc.) alike.

Therefore, research undertaken by all stakeholders, i.e. educationalists, practitioners, Ministries of Education decision-makers has contributed to permanent curriculum modernisation and reform. At European level, curricular reform is one of the top priorities, and the Erasmus+ programme encourages joint projects between different institutions within, for example, the Key Action 2 (e.g. Strategic Partnerships, Capacity Building projects, etc.).

According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary, the etymology of the word ***curriculum*** is from New Latin (*currere*), meaning *running* or *course* (sg.: *curriculum*, pl.: *curricula*), having its ultimate root in classical Latin (from which also come words such as *corridor, courier,* or *currency*). It first appeared as such in the documents of Leiden (1582) and Glasgow universities (1633), but in time, it knew numerous re-formulations and re-definitions. The initial meanings of the concept were related to educational contents, study plan or programme (plan d'etude/d'enseignment), in relation to compulsory educational/learning route /path or students' learning trajectory. All conceptualisations of curriculum along history represent an all-encompassing, painstaking endeavour carried out by theorists and practitioners in order to bring utmost relevance to educational processes, to ensure that essential, useful, mutually-beneficial and feasible aspects are adequately materialised.

The re-emergence of the term *curriculum* in the United States in the 20th century builds on this primary, restricted meaning of the educational contents, engrained in a space- and time-bound instructional situation. However, the underlying premise was to go beyond contents, plans and programmes/syllabi, which were considered as static, merely quantitative, objective-oriented and teacher-based and move towards a more student-centred approach, which is primarily based on the learners' actual needs and capabilities.

According to Glatthorn et al. (2015), the term curriculum can be defined from both a prescriptive and a descriptive perspective, and they realise a summary of curriculum definitions considering these two important aspects, which pertain to the focus of the different curricular philosophies. On the one hand, there might be a prevalent attitude towards setting down / prescribing the directions for action, while on the other there may exist an emphasis on describing the action itself.

First of all, prescriptive definitions lay down "what ought to happen", but most of the times they come in the shape of a plan or

> "an intended programme, or some kind of expert opinion about what needs to take place in the course of study." (Ellis 2004, p. 4)

Table 1. Prescriptive Definitions of Curriculum
(from Glatthorn et al., 2015, pp. 3-4)

Theorist	**Year**	**Definition**
John Dewey	1902	Curriculum is a continuous reconstruction, moving from the child's present experience out into that represented by the organised bodies of truth that we call studies [...] the various studies [...] are themselves experience — they are that of the race. (pp. 11–12)

Franklin Bobbitt	1918	Curriculum is the entire range of experiences, both directed and undirected, concerned in unfolding the abilities of the individual. (p. 43)
Harold O. Rugg	1927	[…] a succession of experiences and enterprises having a maximum lifelikeness for the learner […] giving the learner that development most helpful in meeting and controlling life situations. (p. 8)
Hollis Caswell in Caswell and Campbell	1935	The curriculum is composed of all the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers. (pp. 66) Thus, curriculum considered as a field of study represents no strictly limited body of content, but rather a process or procedure. (p. 70)
Ralph Tyler	1957	[…] all the learning experiences planned and directed by the school to attain its educational goals. (p. 79)
Robert Gagne	1967	Curriculum is a sequence of content units arranged in such a way that the learning of each unit may be accomplished as a single act, provided the capabilities described by specified prior units […] have already been mastered by the learner. (p. 23)
James Popham and Eva Baker	1970	[…] all planned learning outcomes for which the school is responsible. […] Curriculum refers to the desired consequences of instruction. (p. 48)
J.L. McBrien and R. Brandt	1997	[Curriculum] refers to a written plan outlining what students will be taught (a course of study). Curriculum may refer to all the courses offered at a given school, or all the courses offered at a school in a particular area of study. (p. 59)

Second, the descriptive accounts of *curriculum* regard it from an experiential perspective, "not merely in terms of how things ought to be", but also look at how things happen in real classrooms in a school (Ellis 2004, p. 5). The learning experiences are quintessential to learning and instruction, and learners are the main focus of education.

Table 2. Descriptive Definitions of Curriculum
(from Glatthorn et al., 2015, p. 5)

Theorist	**Year**	**Definition**
Hollis Caswell and Doak Campbell	1935	All the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers. (p. 66) Thus, curriculum considered as a field of study represents no strictly limited body of content, but rather a process of procedure. (p. 70)
Thomas Hopkins	1941	Those learnings each child selects, accepts, and incorporates into himself to act with, on, and upon, in subsequent experiences. (p. 169)
W.B. Ragan	1960	All experiences of the child for which the school accepts responsibility. (p. 62)
Glen Hass	1987	The set of actual experiences and perceptions of the experiences that each individual learner has of his or her programme of education. (p. 5)
Daniel Tanner and Laurel Tanner	1995	The reconstruction of knowledge and experience that enables the learner to grow in exercising intelligent control of subsequent knowledge and experience. (p. 43)
D.F. Brown	2006	All students' school experiences relating to the improvement of skills and strategies in thinking critically and creatively, solving problems, working collaboratively with others, communicating well, writing more effectively, reading more analytically, and conducting research to solve problems. (p. 779)
E. Silva	2009	An emphasis on what students can do with knowledge, rather than what units of knowledge they have, is the essence of 21st-century skills. (p. 630)

1.2 Main theorists

John Dewey

One of the forerunners of curriculum research was the American pedagogue and philosopher John Dewey, Professor of Education at Columbia University, Teachers College (among others), who set up a laboratory school, the first experimental, non-graded school in New York City that opened in September 1969, with an initial intake of 1000 students. In his influential work, *The child and the curriculum* (1902), he warns against the separation between the curriculum, seen as series of subjects studied in school and the child and his learning experiences, bringing forth three arguments:

1. the discrepancy between the *narrow but personal world of the child and the impersonal but infinitely extended world of space and time*;
2. the chasm between *the unity, the single wholeheartedness of the child's life, and the specializations and divisions of the curriculum*;
3. the divergence between the *abstract principle of logical classification and arrangement, and the practical and emotional bonds of child life* (Dewey 1902).

Hence, the conflict between the child and the curriculum – the child, as an affective, emotional entity, and the curriculum, as an impersonal, logical entity, comprising compartmentalised subjects according to pedagogical objectives. The proponents of the curriculum claim that *the life of the child is egoistic, self-centred, impulsive*, and therefore his experiences are *confused, vague, uncertain, at the mercy of the moment's caprice and circumstance*. The solution would be then to *ignore and minimize the child's individual peculiarities, whims, and experiences*. The child was simply considered as an immature being, who needed help in order to grow up, a superficial being who needed to reach depth, by receiving and accepting knowledge. *His part is fulfilled when he is ductile and docile*. (Dewey 1902)

On the other hand, supporters of the child as the centre of education propound that the ultimate aim of school should be self-realisation, self-fulfilment and not knowledge or information transmitted to the child, since the educational process is an active one, with emphasis on personality and character, with contents / subject-matter regarded simply as spiritual food. Learning, as an active process, involves organic assimilation of knowledge filtered from within the child himself.

The answer to this ideological war is actually to understand the child and the curriculum as two limits that define a single process. The process of learning should be a continuous reconstruction, smoothly moving from the child's current experience out into that provided by the organised bodies of truth.

The laboratory school created by Dewey was based on some important principles, which even nowadays underlie the humanistic, student-centred philosophy of educational currents:

1. school is meant to educate children towards co-operative and mutually benevolent integration and growth into the community;
2. all educational activities should pay heed to the instinctive, impulsive, inner-driven activities of the children, and not to the imposition of structured, logical, outward subject matter.

According to his approach, children should be able to create their own learning experiences, able to discover their own powers, exercise their capacities and realise their attitudes. In summary, John Dewey remains as an important figure in the history of curriculum development, given the following dimensions:

- Curriculum represents a comprehensive, dynamic, both retroactive and proactive reality;
- Curriculum is a two-way interactive process between educators and learners;
- Curriculum foreshadows a bridge between the learner (the child) and education (the curriculum).

Franklin Bobbitt

The second major scholar to be taken into account is Franklin Bobbitt, who, through his major works: *The Curriculum* (1918) and *How to make a Curriculum* (1924) laid the foundations of scientific research on structured curriculum. According to him, curriculum represents a series of both directed and undirected experiences which children and youth must have through the attainment of the total range of human abilities, habits, systems of knowledge, etc., that one should possess (Bobbitt 1924, p. 43).

Only by performing specific activities, for any social class, will individuals acquire the abilities, habits, attitudes, values, and forms of knowledge needed by humans. He further states that the profession of educationalists entails the practical task of defining innumerable specific objectives; and then of identifying the *countless pupil-experiences that must be induced by way of bringing the children to attain the objectives* (Bobbitt 1924, p. 282).

Bobbit's actual goal was to make society more efficient in dealing with the challenges it faces by educating its members for the roles they have to assume, regardless of their profession, i.e. workers, teachers or lawyers. Following his theory that a school's main purpose was to prepare children to assume their roles as productive adult citizens, Bobbitt studied adult activities and clustered them around ten major fields of experience:

1) language activities;
2) health activities;
3) citizenship activities;
4) general social activities;
5) spare-time activities;
6) keeping oneself mentally fit;
7) religious activities;
8) parental activities;
9) unspecialised or non-vocational activities;
10) the labour of one's calling, with just this last one not actually being covered by the school curriculum (Bobbitt 1924, pp. 8-9).

Ralph W. Tyler

Curriculum has long been considered as an ends-means dichotomy based on a very much debated work on the subject, the well-known book by Ralph W. Tyler, *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*, which appeared in 1949, and for quite a long period dominated the approaches towards curriculum theory.

According to him, the main questions educators should strive to address, in order to construct a principled curriculum are:

1. Which educational goals should the school strive to achieve?
2. What educational experiences can teachers provide that are likely to achieve these goals?

3. How can such educational experiences be successfully organised?

4. How can we conclude whether these educational purposes are being achieved? (Tyler 1949, p. i)

Tyler considered that it is essential for educators to first establish clear-cut purposes, which need to be subsequently translated into educational objectives, and therefore he proposes the following strategy to adopt in the curriculum evaluation processes, because objectives represent the most important "criteria for guiding all the other activities of the curriculum maker" (Tyler 1949, p. 62):

1. Establish broad goals or objectives;
2. Classify the goals or objectives;
3. Define objectives in behaviour terms;
4. Identify situations in which achievement of objectives can be pinned down;
5. Develop or select measurement techniques;
6. Collect performance data;
7. Compare performance data against behaviourally specified objectives.

Tyler stressed that the elaboration of objectives has to take place before the curriculum designer can continue with "all the further steps of curriculum planning" (1949, p. 62).

Hilda Taba

Hilda Taba furthered the theorisation of curriculum in *Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice* (1962), in which she advanced a theoretical base for curriculum development. According to her, there was "a strong tendency to assume that the theoretical foundations of our current curriculum are sound and that the difficulties occur chiefly in translating theory into practice" (Taba 1962, p. v). She identified a lack of systematic vision about curriculum planning, denouncing "little discussion of the methodology of designing curricula and less clarity about the elements that may constitute a design" (Taba 1962, p. 2).

Taba further states that curriculum planning should take into account the societal and cultural patterns and demands, the learning process, the development of the individual, and the specific characteristics and unique contribution of the various disciplines. (Taba 1962)

Along the same line with Tyler's four questions on curriculum design, Taba proposes a seven-step model of curriculum development processes:

1. Diagnosis of needs;
2. Formulation of objectives;
3. Selection of content;
4. Organisation of content;
5. Selection of learning experiences;
6. Organisation of learning experiences;
7. Identification of what to evaluate and how to do it. (Taba 1962, p. 12)

Hilda Taba considers that curriculum development entails "expertness of many varieties", among which "technical skills in curriculum making, mastery of intellectual discipline, the knowledge of social and educational values, which underlie educational decisions", along with an awareness of these educational decisions and human engineering (Taba 1962, p. 480).

Lawrence Stenhouse

Another curriculum theorist was Lawrence Stenhouse, the author of *An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development*, published in 1975. His approach was a process-based one, and he identified three main elements, i.e. planning, empirical study and justification.

Planning is based on the following principles:

1. Principle for of content selection – decision on what will be learnt by and taught to learners;
2. Criteria for the development of teaching strategies - how the content is to be learnt and taught to students;
3. Principles for the making of decisions regarding the didactic sequence;
4. Principles according to which to diagnose individual students' strengths and weaknesses and distinguish the three general principles described above, in order to address individual cases.

Empirical study consists of the following:

1. Principles according to which to analyse and evaluate the students' progress;
2. Principles according to which to study and assess the teachers' progress;

3. Guidance as to assessing the achievability of implementing the curriculum in different school environments, pupil contexts, learning environments as well as peer-group situations;

4. Information on the different effects in diverse contexts and on various pupils as well as an understanding of what caused such variation.

As far as *justification* is concerned, an expression of the intention or purpose of the curriculum that should be accessible to critical scrutiny is needed (Stenhouse 1975, p. 5).

According to him, a curriculum is any attempt at communicating the important principles and characteristics of any "educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice". (Stenhouse 1975, p. 4)

1.3. Curriculum studies nowadays

Before proceeding to any further statement regarding curriculum nowadays, I will concentrate on the fact that even to date, there is no commonly accepted definition of curriculum, as different authors have different approaches. Portelli (1987) identified more than 120 definitions for the concept, each focusing on different aspects that the authors had in mind, from either a narrower or broader perspective. According to Marsh (2009, pp. 5-9), there can exist six main directions for defining curriculum:

1) Curriculum represents the permanent subjects which epitomise essential knowledge;

2) Curriculum signifies those subjects which are most useful for daily existence;

3) Curriculum means all planned learnings for which the school assumes responsibility;

4) Curriculum represents all the learning experiences through which students can acquire general skills and knowledge from a range of learning sites;

5) Curriculum denotes what the students create from working with a computer and its numerous networks, including the Internet;

6) Curriculum indicates the critical questioning of formal authority and the quest for complex understandings of human situations.

However, the author identifies both benefits and shortcomings of each of the above-mentioned groupings.

What is to be remembered is that there exist mainly two directions. The traditional, narrower perspective, which dominated the educational disciplines until mid-19th century viewed curriculum as overlapping the educational contents, substantiated in school and university programmatic documents which aimed at planning instruction contents and laid down relevant information on educational processes and learning experiences provided for learners: curricula, school and university syllabi, etc.

Later on, the wider, modern perspective gained ground, which views curriculum as an all-encompassing, holistic concept, approached from a global and systemic angle on the educational process. While preserving the idea of learning trajectory, as intellectual and emotional endeavours that schools challenge learners with, curriculum is no longer understood traditionally, but as in-depth turning to account of learners latencies.

At present, curriculum can be seen as both theory and practice, encompassing the multifaceted and multidimensional interdependences between the following elements: educational ends, teaching contents, instructional strategies, and assessment strategies.

Curriculum represents the entirety of educational processes, direct and indirect learning and training experiences designed and outcome-based construed by the school, through educational syllabi in order to ensure the moral, professional and social development of children. It includes the school educational offer and epitomises the system of direct and indirect learning and training experiences offered to learners and undergone by them in formal, non-formal and informal contexts. It embodies the interactive reality revolving around educators and learners, with tangible effects, realistically anticipated as impacting upon the latter category and the process itself.

1.4. Learning situations and experiences integrated in the curriculum

Curriculum design entails envisaging and structuring of learners' effective learning, an activity that necessitates the foresight of learning situations in which learners will get involved and the prompted learning experiences that they will undergo.

The learning situation constitutes a key component of curriculum, a pedagogic context arrived at through conjugated, convergent and combined pursuit of the following features:

1) learning and training goals articulated in an objective manner;
2) learning contents seen as stimuli;
3) the learning task;
4) learners' knowledge, skills, abilities and competences involved in the learning task;
5) teaching-learning methodology;
6) assessment methodology;
7) material resources of the learning environment;
8) contextual traits of didactic communication and relational context engendered by the learning task;
9) time resources.

A well-designed and structured learning situation from a logistic, psycho-pedagogic and teleological point of view, centred on educational ends may trigger in the learner constructive, positive and desirable learning experiences.

The learning experience is another component of curriculum pertaining to the personalised means of internalising the learning situation, to the personal feelings generated by a learning situation, feelings which can be objectified in changes of cognitive, affective or psycho-kinetic structures. It represents more than a personal reaction to a learning situation; faced with the same learning situation and learning task the learners have different learning experiences, shaped by their own personality traits and subjectivity.

An official curriculum cannot anticipate the large repertoire of individual learning experiences, but can plan learning situations suitable for the objectives at hand, with a view to induce or generate positive, successful, beneficial learning experiences.

From a pragmatic perspective, the main challenge of the curriculum is the transposition, the translation of tasks into relevant learning and training experiences (Bocoș & Chiș 2013).

Conjuring up a learning experience marks a new evolution in the curriculum conceptualisation process. The source of elaboration of the learning experience does not only consist of knowledge or culture structures, but also of the needs, interests and aspirations of the education beneficiaries, and in the organisation of learning what really counts is not only what is being learnt, but also how it is being learnt. Moreover, in order to outline that learning is not just a medley of unrelated, disconnected experiences, and that education is more than a collection of educational, teaching-learning activities, the concept of metacurriculum was introduced. This helps the learners to get schooled and develop a set of values and competences and to help them make sense of their experiences.

1.5. Educational programmes from a curricular perspective

Metacurriculum is also what we find in *The Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century Learning: The treasure within*, which offers a global perspective on nowadays education, seen from multiple perspectives. Delors stresses the fact that "the importance of the role of the teacher as an agent of change, promoting understanding and tolerance, has never been more obvious than today" (Delors 1996, p. 119), as teachers find themselves looking for new perspectives. The author further contends that "one of the main functions of teacher education, both pre-service and in-service is to equip teachers with ethical, intellectual and emotional wherewithal to develop the same range of qualities in the pupils, as society demands" (p. 221). He considers that the whole vision on curriculum as a whole should be revisited, starting from the assumption that an individual never stops learning throughout their life. Life-long education rests on four pillars, i.e.: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be. All these four learning types interweave so as to contribute to the full rounding of an individual.

1) *Learning to know*, by merging a sufficiently wide-ranging general knowledge with an opportunity to work in depth on a rather limited number of subjects. This pillar can also be referred to as to learning to learn, in order for an individual to take advantage of the opportunities education can provide throughout life. It entails the acquisition and mastery of knowledge instruments.

2) *Learning to do*, with a view to acquiring not only an occupational skill but also, more roughly, the competence to cope with various situations and work in teams. It can also mean learning to do in the context of young peoples' different social and work experiences, which may be informal, following the local or national context, or formal, comprising courses, mingling both study and work. It refers to transversal competences, such as connecting to the environment.

3) *Learning to live together*, through developing a better understanding of other persons and gaining an appreciation of interdependence – by implementing joint projects and learning how to manage conflicts – while paying heed to the values of pluralism, mutual understanding and peace. It refers to the ability to empathise, to do teamwork, to perform collaborative management, etc.

4) *Learning to be*, in order to better develop the individual's personality and to be able to perform with ever-increasing autonomy, judgement and personal responsibility. In this respect, education must take into consideration all aspects of an individual's potential, such as: memory, reasoning, artistic sense, physical capacities as well as communication competence. It helps an individual fulfil their individuality and capabilities, contributing to self-actualisation and autonomy.

Formal education systems are likely to underscore the acquisition of knowledge to the disadvantage of other learning types; however, it is critical now to comprehend education in a more encompassing manner. Such a novel vision should inform and steer future educational reforms and policy, in relation to both contents and methods.

These guidelines are extremely relevant to modern educational approaches to educational policy orientation.

From a structural and functional perspective, the following questions have to be addressed when designing a curriculum:

- To whom is it addressed? Or Who are the learners / instructional subjects, what are their age characteristics, their individual traits, their hopes and opinions? etc.

- Why? or What for? do they have to follow the designated programme – questions addressed by the educational objectives aimed at.

- What exactly needs to be taught / learned? or What exactly needs to be improved? Questions that pertain to the learning contents, to their selection and classification in accordance to a well-defined scientific and didactic logic.

- How exactly will be teaching and learning carried out, what type of activities the learners will be involved in – these are all questions in correlation with the strategic decisions of instruction, i.e. the articulated set of methods, organisation forms adequately combined in given situational contexts.

- Under what spatial, temporal, material and human circumstances will an activity be carried out at its fullest efficiency? When designing a curriculum it is essential to foresee the time necessary to follow through the programme, the necessary spaces and physical conditions, as well as the human resources needed to implement the programme.

- How are the effects, results and progress achieved evaluated, the efficiency of teaching-learning situations, which leads to the necessity of conceiving objective assessment strategies, methods and techniques, in close connection with the educational objectives pursued and with the contents at hand. At the same time, the educational objectives, as well as competences aimed at by the syllabi, their contents, the textbooks and other teaching materials and curricular support will be evaluated.

Considering all these aspects, it can be safely stated that from a curricular perspective, the value of an educational programme will depend on:

- the agents of action – learners and educators;
- educational objectives aimed at;
- the instructional-educational contents delivered;
- the instructional strategies used;
- spatial, temporal and material conditions, i.e. the context and environment;
- the evaluation strategies used.

From an action-oriented perspective, one can outline four main tasks in elaborating and carrying out an educational programme, i.e.:

1) establishing educational objectives;

2) selecting learning and training experiences which will contribute to the attainment of these objectives;

3) organising learning experiences in order to maximise their cumulative effect;

4) evaluating the efficiency of the educational programme through checking progress.

Therefore, in the elaboration of the curriculum, there exist four fundamental questions, practically correlated with the four tasks / basic components mentioned above:

- Which are the educational objectives pursued?
- Which are the relevant learning experiences?
- How is it best to organise learning experiences?
- Which are the identification and results assessment methods?

Except for positive and desirable experiences pursued, curriculum can be associated with unplanned learning experiences, as well as negative effects on modelling learners. However, the nature of the curriculum is essentially determined by planned learning experiences, which aim at achieving positive effects in the learning process, training and informing learners.

The experience gathered so far has proved that a cumulative, summative, linear manner of meaning-enrichment of curriculum is no longer representative for the dynamic and action-oriented character of modern curriculum. At present, a modern curriculum needs to address the following questions:

- What is worth being taught / learned / evaluated?
- To what extent?
- In what succession?
- Alongside what other elements?
- On the basis of which previous experiences?
- On the basis of which current experiences?
- Under what conditions (spatial, temporal, material)?
- Through which educational activities?
- How will the new acquisitions be materialised (abilities, competences, behaviours, personality traits)?
- To what extent do the new acquisitions tally with the learners' expectations?

Since curriculum can come in all shapes and sizes (as concept, as project, as process, as product, as design, as potentiality, intent, document, action, plan, field, structure, configuration, fact, etc. a generic triad of curricular instances was brought forward, encompassing all above mentioned cases:

a) curriculum as representation – covering the theoretical and conceptual approaches, structural analyses of the curriculum and the study of curricular fields;

b) curriculum as representation of action, as action project – an illustration correlated with the design and implementation of study programmes, of curricular documents, of different learning materials;

c) curriculum as action proper – an illustration which positions us on a practical-operational level which reveals that a curriculum represents an educational reality, its implementation entailing the fulfilment of effective actions, instantiated in learning experiences. (Ungureanu 2000)

Hence, curriculum can be viewed as a concept-construct, as a mental construct forecasting a would-be reality, rather than a notion better of less reflected by an existing reality.

The identity of the concept can be defined and analysed through a multidimensional approach to curriculum, i.e. through three perspectives:

a) Functionally, curriculum engenders educational ends to be attained, through which it orients, organises and manages the instructional and learning processes;

b) Structurally-functionally, curriculum includes fundamental components, such as: educational ends, instructional-educational contents, teaching and learning strategies, evaluation strategies, instruction time;

c) From a product-oriented perspective, curriculum get objectivised in teaching programmes, syllabi, manuals, documents and support materials, etc.

The three perspectives on curriculum analysis can be corroborated with the two complementary dimensions of curriculum, considered, from a larger perspective, as a project / action plan: the design / vision perspective and the structural perspective (Wiles & Bondi 1984).

a) The design / vision perspective is shaped by the functional analysis perspective and is given by the system of ideas and outlooks on the process of moulding human personality, thanks to the realisation of some philosophical understandings of the role of education played in this process.

b) The structural perspective is given by the role / mission of the curriculum to transpose values appropriated at the level of society into educational ends and beneficial learning and training experiences. The elaboration of learning experiences goes through a cyclical process, in which the analysis, design, implementation, evaluation and regulation stages are contingent and permanently interweaving. Therefore, it is necessary to carry out continuous monitoring of these processes, to evaluate results, to carry out ameliorating pedagogic research so that their quality level is satisfactory.

From a structural perspective, curriculum represents a system of planned didactic activities aimed at attaining some desirable impact on learners. These actions are to be put into practice, while the instructional-educational process is the hands-on activity of translating the project / the plan, of the intention into action, i.e. of implementing a study programme of a certain extent.

Therefore, curriculum needs to be approached from two perspectives:

a) as intention, objectified in the project / working plan which will guide through the educational action;

b) as practical realisation, considering that the project is applied in educational practice.

Nevertheless, it is important for a curriculum developer to take the following principles into account, regardless of the approach: a clear philosophy must be adopted, as well as a set of all-encompassing objectives that shape the entire curriculum alongside the decisions that impact each aspect of the curriculum. The curriculum designer needs to create structures both within and between levels and assure an articulated and coherent transition from one level to another.

1.6 Types of curriculum

According to various classification criteria, there exist several types of curricula (Cristea 2002, p. 78). Among such criteria, mention should be made of:

- design paradigm (philosophy of education, theory of education, policy of education) – discipline-based curriculum, interdisciplinary structure-based curriculum, competence-based curriculum, complete learning-based curriculum, student-centred curriculum);

- realisation manner – explicit curriculum, implicit curriculum, hidden curriculum and absent curriculum;

- research strategy (fundamental research – general curriculum, specialised curriculum, hidden curriculum, informal curriculum and applied research – formal curriculum, written curriculum, taught curriculum, learned curriculum, tested curriculum, recommended curriculum);

- generalisation degree (general curriculum, specialised curriculum)

- organisation degree (formal curriculum, non-formal curriculum, informal curriculum);

- degree of compulsion (compulsory curriculum, optional curriculum, elective curriculum);

- type of project build-up (basic or main curriculum, complementary or additional curriculum).

I will focus in the following on just a few of the types of curriculum mentioned above.

Goodlad and al (1979) brought forth a few key distinctions as to types of curriculum planning. Goodlad identified five such categories of curriculum:

a) The *ideological curriculum*, representing the ideal curriculum as envisaged by theorists and practitioners – a sort of curriculum of ideas meant to reveal sound knowledge.

b) The *formal curriculum*, by which is understood the curriculum officially approved by state and local school management – the authorised curriculum serving the society's interests at large.

c) The *perceived curriculum*, or the curriculum of the mind, by which we mean what teachers, parents, and other stakeholders believe the curriculum to be.

d) The *operational curriculum* embodies the observed, witnessed curriculum born out of class observation, of the processes seen to take place in reality in the school environment.

e) The *experiential curriculum* encompasses all the learning experiences undergone by learners.

Glatthorn et al. (2015, pp. 6-17) offer an alternative classification, as follows:

a) the *recommended curriculum*, recommended by academics, professional associations, and different local and national commissions; it also comprises the curriculum requirements set by policymaking groups, such as, for example, education ministries. It resembles Goodlad's "ideological curriculum," in that it represents a curriculum that emphasises "oughtness," formulating the skills and concepts that ought to be highlighted, in line with the perceptions as well as value systems of the available sources.

b) the *written curriculum*, chiefly meant to ensure that the system's educational goals are appropriately translated into practice; it is therefore a curriculum of control. Basically, the written curriculum is in fact more specific and more comprehensive as compared with the recommended curriculum, revealing a rationale that upholds the curriculum, the general aims that are to be achieved, the specific objectives which need to be attained, the succession in which those contents should be addressed and studied, and the types of learning activities that will be carried out.

c) the *supported curriculum* represents the curriculum as it is reflected in and shaped by those resources allotted in order to support and deliver it. In this case, four types of resources are most important:

- the amount of time allocated to a certain school subject at a certain level or grade (e.g. How much time should we allot to one subject at a particular grade?);

- the time allocated by a teacher as part of the overall subject distribution to certain aspects of the curriculum (e.g. How much time should I devote to the first learning unit?);

- human resources allocations as reflected in and deriving from class-size decisions (e.g. How many English teachers do we need in secondary school if increase the class size to 35 students?);

- the textbooks or other learning materials offered by the school management for free to be used by students (Can we still use the English manuals for one more year?).

d) the *taught curriculum*, or the delivered curriculum, by which we mean a curriculum that an outsider sees as being performed, what happens while the teacher teaches. It is based on teachers' designing, planning, and decision making, as to which compromises will best benefit one teacher and one particular class.

e) the *tested curriculum*, representing the set of learnings which is evaluated through teacher-made classroom tests; through locally-developed, curriculum-referenced tests; as well as through nationally or internationally standardised tests.

Out of the above, four types of curricula, i.e. the *written,* the *supported,* the *taught,* and the *tested* ones constitute elements of the intentional curriculum, by which we understand a set of learnings which the school system consciously lays down, as opposed to the hidden curriculum, which does not represent a result of conscious intention.

f) the *learned curriculum*, which encompasses all the changes in values, perceptions, and behaviours that take place as a result of learning experiences. As such, it comprises what the student understands, acquires, and remembers from both the hidden curriculum and the intentional curriculum.

From the point of view of the realisation manner, Cristea (2002, pp. 79-80) identified four types of curriculum: explicit curriculum, implicit curriculum, hidden curriculum and absent curriculum.

1) The *explicit curriculum* equates the official, formal curriculum (c.f. Goodlad's "ideological curriculum" or Glatthorn et al.'s "recommended curriculum"). It is set down based on macrostructural pedagogic ends (the educational ideal, educational goals) that characterise the personality paradigm and overall development guidelines of a given educational system and of the microstructural pedagogic ends (general and specific objectives) that set forth the value criteria for the elaboration of school curricula and syllabi, in keeping with age peculiarities, school subject areas, educational / instructional forms and dimensions.

In practice, the explicit curriculum promotes two curricular subtypes:

a) a main curriculum, representing the basic (core, nucleus) curriculum that creates and supports the fundamentals of permanent training and development of the learner;

b) a complementary curriculum, extending, deepening, enlarging the main curriculum, in optional or elective organisational structures (with specialist, area-targeted objectives, in upper-secondary education), propounded to minimum extent (5-10%) in primary and lower secondary education and to a larger extent (up to 30%) in upper secondary education.

2) The *implicit curriculum* is the result of a set of informal situations and influences occurring in school and out of school, as part of the explicit curriculum and outside it. The content of the implicit curriculum (also termed informal curriculum) is dependent upon a set of information which can increase over time, permanently connected with the school and classroom environment, classroom management, teachers' educational style, organisational culture of the school, interpersonal relations, the system of punishment and reward, family /community /friends' customs, traditions and beliefs, leisure time patterns, secondary effects of the explicit curriculum, etc.

3) The *hidden curriculum* (also called obscure or subliminal curriculum) constitutes a variant of the implicit curriculum which concentrates the psychosocial effects of the education system and process in its entirety. This type of curriculum is characterised by a propensity towards dissimulation of intentions at the level of organisational structures (educational stages and levels, training routes and specialisations) and of the triad teaching-learning-assessment (lesson planning, implementation and development).

Therefore we witness such phenomena as "reproduction of socio-cultural inequalities", subtle brainwashing of both children and parents, early and forced upon orientation (through manipulation of the complementary curriculum), centrally- or locally-controlled ideologisation, censorship and strengthening of the manipulative power of opinions, etc.

4) The *absent curriculum* represents the effectively or virtually unrealised part of the formal, explicit curriculum, as a result of limitations born along the design process or the implementation of the teaching-learning-assessment activity. Under certain circumstances, this type of curriculum signals, as a matter of fact, the existence of exaggerations or redundancies at the level of planning documents, compensated for by the teacher through elimination or avoidance at the time of operationalising the lesson objectives.

On the other hand, from the perspective of continuous professional development, the absent curriculum is a good opportunity for teachers to attend various training courses.

1.7 Curriculum components

Traditionally speaking, the components of the curriculum are the following:

1) *Curricular policies*, by which we understand a given set of rules, criteria, or guidelines meant to control curriculum development and implementation.

2) *Curricular goals* which represent the overall, long-term educational outcomes which the school system aims at achieving through the implementation of its curriculum. It is worth mentioning in this context that goals are expressed in much more general terms than objectives.

Brown (2006), as cited in Marsh (2009, pp. 19-22) identified, as a result of a survey among education stakeholders, the following skills deemed as necessary to be developed by school in general:

a. Critical-thinking skills;

b. Problem-solving strategies as well as effective decision-making skills;

c. Creative-thinking processes;

d. Efficient oral and written communication competence;

e. Basic literacy, mathematics, and writing abilities;

f. Knowledge of when and how to apply research to solve problems;

g. Effective interpersonal skills;

h. Technology skills;

i. Acquisition of good health and hygiene practices and habits;

j. Understanding and acceptance of various cultures and ethnicities;

k. Knowledge of how to manage personal finances;

l. Willingness, strategies, as well as ability to further learning.

Much to our distress, in real life, educational policies are not always in sync with goals, and these goals are not always correlated to fields and programmes of study.

3) A *field of study* is a systematic and clearly delineated set of learning experiences usually provided over a period of several

years (e.g. 4 years – primary education, lower secondary education, upper secondary education, etc.). In most school curricula, the above fields of study correspond to the standard school subjects: Language and communication, Mathematics and sciences, Man and society, etc.

4) A *programme of study* represents the overall set of learning experiences provided by a school to a given group of learners, typically over a period of several years and usually encompassing several fields of study. This programme of study is often laid down in a policy statement which demarcates which subjects are compulsory and which are elective, together with their respective time allocations and if it is the case, with credits.

5) *Courses of study* are subsets of both a programme of study as well as of a field of study. It represents a set of organised learning experiences, as part of a study field, provided over a given period of time (e.g. a year, or a semester) for which the student typically receives ratings, grades or academic credits. A course of study is commonly given a title as well as a grade level or number label.

6) *Units of study* represent subsets of one course of study. They are a structured set of interrelated learning experiences provided as part of one course of study, typically lasting from one to three weeks. Most units are organised around one single all-embracing concept, such as Myths and legends; Famous personalities; Birthday party, etc.

7) *Lessons* are a collection of related learning experiences ordinarily lasting from 20 to 90 minutes, centred on a rather small number of objectives. A lesson is a didactic programme, based on a system of "structured actions" (Cristea 2002, p. 213), in accordance with the general and specific objectives of the educational process, appropriately operationalised at microlevel. Cristea (op. cit.) proposes a tridimensional model of the lesson:

a) the functional dimension referring to the general and specific objectives of the educational activity, set forth in educational policy documents (programmes and courses of study), which are in fact a reflection of curricular goals, derived from the educational ideal;

b) the structural dimension pertaining to the pedagogic resources involved in the activity, i.e. material (available didactic space and time, available teaching and learning materials and equipment), informational (study programmes, electronic and print reference materials) and human resources (teachers' pedagogic skills, students' abilities);

c) the operational dimension referring to the design and implementation of the concrete objectives of the activity, derived from the general and specific objectives of the lesson, paying heed to classroom characteristics, through unlocking the pedagogic creativity of the teacher in order to fully turn to account the existing resources (contents-methodology-instructional environment) and the assessment means necessary in a given didactic context.

As a transition to the next chapter, I will in the following introduce the theory of a specialist in language pedagogy, Hans Heinrich Stern (1983, pp. 435-436), according to whom, curriculum theory deals with:

1) the underlying ideological and philosophical assumptions of curriculum, or as he calls it, curriculum philosophy;

2) the conceptualisation of three main components of curriculum:

a) purposes and content,

b) instruction,

c) evaluation;

3) curriculum processes:

a) systematic curriculum development,

b) the implementation of curriculum in educational institutions,

c) curriculum evaluation.

The three main components in 2) above are reminiscent of Stenhouse's own curricular elements: planning, empirical study and justification (see above).

When addressing curriculum philosophies, Stern (1983, p. 436) makes reference to Eisner and Vallance's (1974) five key orientations:

1) the school curriculum should develop *cognitive processes.* The school's main function is not to merely transmit a predetermined content but to equip children with enquiry skills, to develop their cognitive abilities, to help them to learn how to learn.

2) *self-actualization* or *curriculum as consummatory experience.* In Eisner and Vallance's point of view (1974, p. 9), schooling should provide the child with something *hic et nunc* and through the mediation of the curriculum, school 'should

enter fully into the child's life'. A curriculum should bear relevance at any given stage of the child's growth, rather than offer him experiences which will only prove useful when he is a grown-up.

3) *social reconstruction / relevance,* an orientation which focuses on the needs of the society which are to be met by education and curriculum.

4) *academic rationalism,* which lays emphasis on the heritage of classical scholarship and on a 'common literacy', embedded in the content of the curriculum, to be found at its very core.

5) *curriculum as technology.* Within this stance, values are neither questioned nor consciously set. Conversely, the focus is on the appropriate identification of goals and means.

To conclude, the complex realities of curriculum never cease to arouse interest and debate, given the multifaceted approaches and interpretations: sociological (sociocultural constraints and determinations at play in a society), psychological (interrelations established during the learning process between students' inner resources and the curricular framework), pedagogical (interrelations established between educational goals and educational practice), epistemological (pertaining to scientific content which encompass science fields corresponding to a curricular subject.

CHAPTER TWO
THE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

2.1 Language curriculum vs language syllabus

Following the delineation of the conceptual framework and theoretical background above, we need to further address terminological clarifications. Sometimes in the specialist literature we come across the terms *curriculum* and *syllabus* used interchangeably and therefore there is a need for further explanation in this case, since these are indeed, close in meaning when used in various contexts.

Thus, Allen (1984, p. 61, as cited in Nunan 1988, p. 8) considers that there is a clear-cut difference, resembling the one that dominated the European educational landscape, meaning that the curriculum focuses more on

> planning, implementation, evaluation, management and administration of education programmes, and the syllabus focusing more narrowly on the selection and grading of content.

As I explained in the previous chapter, there exists a wider understanding of curriculum, which incorporates the whole teaching/learning process, ranging from materials, equipment, examinations, to the training of teachers. From this perspective, curriculum can be seen as focusing on the contents that "can and should be taught to whom, when, and how" this should be done (Eisner & Vallance 1974, p. 2). Furthermore, Nunan (1988, p. 14) supplements his curriculum with "elements designated by the term syllabus along with considerations of methodology and evaluation", whereas White et al. (1991, p. 168) consider curriculum as involving objectives and methodology, as well as content. This definition entails reflection on the philosophical, social and organisational aspects of a language programme.

The main difference between syllabus and curriculum is articulated by Robertson (1971, cited in Yalden 1983, p. 18) who states that the curriculum comprises “the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and of the school and community through classroom instruction and related programs” In contrast, the syllabus is to be considered in the broader context of a process of ongoing curriculum development. Syllabus is, therefore, subsumed to curriculum.

Richards et al. (1992) advance a view on ‘curriculum’ as having two meanings. On the one hand, if we take curriculum to be an educational programme, which summaries the goals, the strategies for content implementation, and means of assessment, then curriculum acquires its complete sense. Nevertheless, if we mean by curriculum a selection and grading of grammar items, lexical elements, learning situations, as well as communicative functions and meanings in order to describe a course of instruction, then the curriculum equals the syllabus.

Generally speaking, we take curriculum to consist of three main stages: planning, implementation and evaluation. Naturally, different authors emphasise different stages (and there even exist overlappings, for example some authors include programme/syllabus development in the planning stage, whereas others place it under the implementation stage).

According to Richards (2001), the main issues to be addressed in language curriculum development are the following:

1) What are the procedures involved in order to establish the content of a language programme?

2) What are the learners’ needs?

3) How can learners’ needs be identified?

4) What contextual factors need to be taken into consideration when planning a language programme?

5) What is the nature of aims and objectives in teaching and how can these be set and developed?

6) What are the factors involved in planning a syllabus and the learning units in one specific course?

7) How can effective teaching be delivered in a programme?

8) What are the questions to be addressed when selecting, adapting and designing teaching materials?

9) How can the efficiency of a programme be evaluated and measured?

We encounter in the specialist literature various definitions of ‘syllabus’, ranging from Breen’s rather general definition (resembling some of the *curriculum* definitions already dealt with in the previous chapter), as the convergence point of a larger understanding of language itself, a perspective upon using language, as well as upon teaching and learning, i.e. a contemporary and widely accepted interpretation of the congruous interrelations between theory, research, and real classroom practice. (1987, p. 83), to Prabhu’s (1987) more detailed description of what needs to be learnt (p. 89).

According to Allen (1984), the syllabus represents the sub-division of curriculum which focuses on a “specification of what units will be taught” (p. 61), while for Yalden (1987), it mainly embodies a teacher’s declaration of goals and content, with both formal and functional elements in a double development of both linear and spiral learning (see Stern 1983, p.14). Furthermore, Brumfit (1984) makes reference to content (from a linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, cultural, and substantive point of view), as well as to sequences in the learning process that takes place, whereas Nunan (1988) presents a larger, non-specific outlook on “a framework within which activities can be carried out: a teaching device to facilitate learning” (p. 6).

At the same time, Prabhu (1987) brings forth his own definition, considering syllabus as a type of reinforcement for the teaching activity, which is planned and implemented in the classroom, as well as a type of guidance in the creation of appropriate teaching materials (Prabhu 1987, p. 86). On the other hand, Kumaravadivelu (1993, p. 72) understands the syllabus as being “a preplanned, preordained, presequenced inventory of linguistic specifications imposed in most cases on teachers and learners”.

Just as it happens in the case of curriculum, it is virtually impossible to provide a single, widely accepted definition of syllabus, considering the vast array of educational theories and approaches regarding syllabus goals and functions. However, the unifying factor is connected with each theorist’s views on language learning, as expressed by Breen (1987a, b), who takes each syllabus to be a specific representation of knowledge and abilities, which will be moulded by the designer’s perspective on the nature of language, on the way in which that language can be most adequately

> taught or presented to learners, and how the language may be productively worked upon during learning. (Breen 1987a, p. 83)

In general, syllabi should provide data on the target learners to whom the syllabus is addressed, as well as information regarding their needs, the objectives of the course of study, the content as being structured into manageable units, and also how these units will be sequenced. Moreover, syllabi often give methodological recommendations about teaching the content, and evaluating it (Breen 1984).

Brumfit (1984, as cited in White 1988, p. 3) identifies six directions around which definitions of syllabus are centred:

a) A syllabus is the description of the work of a certain department in a school or college, structured in subsections outlining the work of a certain group or class;

b) It is often related to time, and will lay down a starting point and final goal;

c) It will stipulate some sort of sequence:

- i) Sequencing inherent to a language learning theory or intrinsic to the structure of given material relevant to language acquisition;
- ii) Sequencing constrained by administrative requirements, such as teaching/learning materials;

d) It is a document of administrative accessibility and will only be partially justified on theoretical grounds and therefore is negotiable and adaptable;

e) It can only stipulate what is taught; it cannot lay down what is learnt;

f) It is a public document and a manifestation of institutional accountability.

Such a categorisation naturally overlooks some issues which can likewise be important, such as the theoretical bases of a syllabus, or issues of negotiability. As White also mentions, this approach is only mindful of selection and organisation of content, while there exist other approaches to syllabus which focus on methodology (White 1988, p. 3)

Historically speaking, as said before, various approaches to language teaching founded on different principles and outlooks regarding acquisition and learning have brought about various types of syllabi, and have entrusted different roles to the learners. At the same time, they have promoted a whole array of methodologies and classroom practices. There has long been a disagreement between models which contend that decisions in syllabus design should rest on findings in SLA (e.g. Long 1985; Long & Crookes 1992; Robinson 1998) and on the other hand, those that advocate criteria which do not necessarily have to be supported by SLA (Nunan 1989; Willis 1990).

Basically, syllabus design is based on the units that govern classroom activity as well as the sequence in which these units will be implemented. Decisions regarding what will be taught, in what order, how it will be graded also impact on the role allocated to the learner. Historically speaking, syllabi have been organised around structures – formal / structural / grammatical syllabus (Ellis 1997), words – lexical syllabus (Willis 1990), notions and functions – notional–functional syllabus (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983; Wilkins, 1976), language skills – skill-based syllabus (Johnson 1996), and tasks – task-based syllabus (Long & Crookes 1992).

In the following I will try to have a more detailed look at various syllabi representations along time.

2.2 Types of language syllabi

As said above, the evolution of syllabus design is a progression of postulations about language learning, distributed by Breen 1987a, p. 81) under to two central paradigms, also called frames of reference, the first being established and predominant (labelled "propositional", deriving its name from the concept of propositional representation of knowledge, taken from cognitive science), while the second newly evolving, called "process". Traditionally, language teachers have almost unanimously resorted to structural or grammatical syllabi, which were preferred due to the orderly manner in which linguistic structures (grammatical rules) and lexical structures (lists of words or expressions) to be acquired were organised. As examples of this type of syllabi, mention should be made of the Audio lingual Method, Grammar-Translation, or Situational Language Teaching (see Richards & Rodgers 1994, pp. 31-63; Yalden 1987, p. 21).

However, the shortcoming of this approach was the fact that other linguistic facts (semantic meaning, pragmatic use of language, etc.) were highly overlooked.

In the theory of second language learning, the traditional paradigm is epitomised by the *formal* and *functional* syllabi, understanding language through a propositional scheme and a formal, system-based expression of both the knowledge and capabilities aimed at when learning a new language.

According to Breen (1987b, p. 160), the new, emergent paradigm deals with *how* something is done, also pertaining to how to communicate in a classroom as well as how to better learn how to communicate. It is classified in *task-based*, on the one hand, and *process* syllabi, on the other. He considers that, basically, each one of the four categories of syllabus provide pertinent answers to the following question:

> "What does a learner of a new language need to know, and what does a learner need to be able to do with this knowledge?" (Breen 1987a, p. 85).

Further on, when examining each syllabus type in turn, Breen additionally subdivides this question into five sub-questions:

a) What knowledge does the syllabus focus on?;

b) What capabilities does the syllabus focus on and prioritise?;

c) On what basis does the syllabus select and breaks down what will be learned?;

d) How does it structure what will be learnt?;

e) What is its rationale?

In line with Breen's focus on language learning paradigms, Long & Crookes (1993) bring forth a demarcation between two so-called superordinate categories, i.e. analytic and synthetic syllabi (1993, p. 11, as cited in Wilkins 1974; 1976). Moreover, White (1988) also distinguishes between *Type A* or *Type B* syllabi (1988, p. 44). Here, the label *synthetic* makes reference to structural, notional, lexical, functional, and the majority of situational and topical syllabi, which focus on acquisition as a process of gradual build-up of independently taught parts, eventually accumulating to the whole lexical and grammatical structure of the language. In other words, the language learner is exposed to a purposefully limited chunk of language at any given time, and is required to re-construct the language which has been divided into a big number of small items in order to make the learning task easier for the learner (Wilkins 1976, p. 2).

Synthetic syllabi focus on learners' presupposed capability to learn a foreign language in individual chunks (e.g. structures and functions), but also to be able "to integrate, or synthesise, the pieces when the time comes to use them for communicative purposes". (Long & Crookes 1993, p. 12)

On the other hand, as far as *analytic syllabi* are concerned, it is not necessary to carry out a previous analysis of the whole language system, breaking it down into a set of distinct chunks of language, and therefore analytic approaches are structured according to the reasons behind people's learning languages and the categories of language performance which are needed to attain those aims (Wilkins 1976, p. 13). In this context, *analytic* does not pertain to the syllabus as design outcome, it refers to the operations that the learner has to perform. Language educators compel learners, in a direct or indirect manner, to recognise the linguistic elements of the language they are acquiring. Thus, the learners' own analytic capabilities are brought to the fore (Wilkins 1976, p. 14). They focus on *how* the language is learnt and how it is integrated within learners' own experiences.

Analytic syllabi organise the L2 in discrete pieces, without any linguistic interference or control, therefore relying on the learners' ability to prompt and infer language rules, and at the same time focusing on an inborn knowledge of linguistic universals. The different components of the syllabus occur as a result of a negotiation process between learners and teachers; they are process-oriented and the assessment criteria are established by the learners themselves. As exemplification of the analytic syllabus one can mention procedural, process or task syllabi (Long & Crookes 1993 p. 11).

Going back to White's two types of syllabi, Type A and Type B (White 1988, p. 59) we can identify two distinct approaches, an interventionist one and a non-interventionist one, both being concerned with the questions of "What is learned?" and "How is it learned?", reminiscent of Breen's propositional and process paradigms.

In this respect, Type A syllabi emphasise content and the pre-determination of either linguistic or skill objectives, whereas Type B focus on an experience-based, “natural growth” approach, which intends to “immerse the learners in real-life communication without any artificial pre-selection or arrangement of items”. (Allen 1984, p. 65)

White (1988) compares the two types of syllabi, as follows:

Table 3. Types of language syllabus design (from White 1988, p. 44)

Type A syllabus: what is there to be learned?	**Type B syllabus: How is it to be learned?**
Interventionist character	Non-interventionist character
Extrinsic to the student	Intrinsic to the student
Other-directed	Inner-directed and self-rewarding
Determined by authority	Negotiated between both learners and teachers
Teacher acting as decision maker	Learner and teacher acting as joint decision makers
Content is what the subject represents to the expert	Content is what the subject represents to the learner
Content is a gift to the learner from the part of teacher or knowledge repository	Content is what the learner himself brings and wants
Assessment by mastery or by achievement	Assessment in relation to learners’ own standards of attainment
Doing things to the learner	Doing things for or together with the learner

Moreover, White (1988, p. 46) additionally categorises language syllabus types on three main bases, i.e. content, skill and method, as follows:

I. propositional paradigm

a) content-based:

- form (structure-based focus);
- situation (context-based focus);
- topic (information-based focus);
- functional (notional / functional focus).

b) skills-based:

- language perspective (receptive / productive);
- learning perspective (skill acquisition focus).

II. process paradigm:

c) method-based syllabi;

- process-oriented (learning focus, learner-led);
- procedural (cognitive focus, task-based).

Regardless of the perspectives listed above, each syllabus is considered by Breen to be dependent on six universal prerequisites, which lead the designer to perform the following actions in relation to the adequate outcomes of language learning: focus upon; select; sub-classify; and sequence (Breen 1987, p. 83):

1. elaborating “an accessible framework” of necessary knowledge and skills;
2. providing continuity for the users;
3. empowering learners to give a reflective account of what has been attained;
4. assessing - ensuring accountability to stakeholders: colleagues, learners, as well as the institution and society at large;
5. ensuring purposefulness, so that language learning can be evaluated for appropriateness through its implementation;
6. ensuring “sensitivity” to the wider environment for which the programme is envisaged. (cf. Breen 1987a, p. 82)

According to Rodgers and Richards (1987), there exist four types of approaches to syllabus design that can be clustered along a continuum, starting from centralised to decentralised syllabi:

a) The State-based Approach, which is the most centralised form of syllabus design and it is implemented by the state in the form of national projects. Its drawback is that it does not involve teachers and learners in the process;

b) The School-based Approach, in which the state empowers individual schools to bring changes and innovations in the curriculum, through headmasters and department heads;

c) The Teacher–based Approach, in which the classroom is the context for educational planning, whereas the teacher is the educational planner (Rodgers and Richards 1987, p. 18). Unfortunately, teachers have too little time, resources and specialisation to make this really work in practice;

d) The Learner-based Approach, in which the learner’s participation in his learning process is brought to the fore.

When referring to grading, Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964, p. 210), identify two distinct aspects, i.e. staging (division of a course into time segments, with reference to the number and frequency of lessons and intensity of teaching) and sequencing (the order in which different items should be taught). Despite several examples of grading in syllabi, there is little guidance as to 'how-to-do' it, in terms of principles and procedures to follow by those who wish to grade their syllabus. Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens state that actually practical teaching experience is a must if we are to achieve success in sequencing a syllabus intended for a group of pupils, since ultimately "the teaching programme must be sensitive to the precise needs of the pupils, both in general terms and in close detail" (1964, p. 210).

In spite of an unaccountable lack of published directions on syllabi grading, a series of criteria have been put forward and have gained wide acceptance through use. The table below summarises these criteria:

Table 4. Criteria for selecting and grading syllabi

STRUCTURAL	**TOPIC**	**FUNCTIONAL**
frequency	interest & affectivity	need: immediate and long-tem
coverage	need	utility
availability /simplicity	pedagogic merit	coverage /generability
complexity / learnability	relevance	interest
teachability	depth of treatment	complexity of form
combinability	practicality	
contrast	utility	
productiveness / generabilisability		
natural order of acquisition		

2.3 The formal syllabus

In summary, the formal syllabus (also called 'structural' or 'grammatical') may be classified as 'Type A' (White 1988), 'synthetic' (according to Long & Crookes 1993), or 'propositional' (Breen 1987a, b). It addresses the central question about what is a learner of a new language supposed to know, further broken down into five sub-questions:

1. What knowledge does it concentrate on?

Answers:

- a systematic, rule-based view on the nature of language and language learning itself;
- a major concern with what a language learner knows from the code of the language to be learnt;
- subsystems of phonology, grammar (morphology and syntax), the lexicon, discourse seen as text are highlighted.

2. What capabilities does it emphasise and prioritise?

- language use and skills use, usually recommending that the skills be practised in a gradual sequence from receptive to productive.

3) On what basis does the syllabus choose and subdivide what needs to be learnt?

- pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar (morphology and syntax), structural features of discourse are taken discretely;
- the criterion of 'level' derives from the degree to which learners have managed to master the linguistic sub-systems, from the point of view of accurate production;
- the criteria of selection and subdivision of formal syllabi are on close connection with a language analysis performed by linguists themselves.

4) How does it sequence what is to be learnt?

- it predicts that learners will gradually build up and synthesise the different elements of the new language system;
- it is sequenced mainly from simple to complex, however it is not indifferent to frequency of usage.

5) What is its rationale?

- it is widely acknowledged and documented by a vast tradition of linguistic analysis. Teachers in particular find it accommodating.
- it provides learners with a subject matter that is systematic and rule-governed.
- the new language is more open to planning as a subject matter because the linguistic system is logically organised.
- this type of syllabus triggers the human propensity towards metalinguistics, compelling humans to reflect

> upon, communicate about, and apprehend the workings of a language. It actually caters to our need for order in the apparent chaos of a new language. (Breen 1987a, pp. 85-87)

The formal syllabus draws on the first function of language as described by Halliday (1973; 1978) – textual, ideational and interpersonal, inspired from descriptive linguistics, from the contrastive linguistics theories in vogue in the 1950s and 1960s, and in the writings of traditional, descriptive grammarians of the 1970s and 1980s, with an emphasis on surface structure differences between different languages. This type of syllabus is the strongest, most widely accepted by language teachers, with its roots dating back to the description and study of the classical languages, and even to this day it remains the most widely used one, in particular in foreign language environments, as teachers and teacher trainers consider it to be user-friendly and accessible.

Structural syllabi typically are made up of discrete chuncks, yes/no or wh-questions, speech parts (articles, possessives, personal pronouns, prepositions) or syntax units (if-clauses, relative clauses, reported speech), alongside inductively or deductively structured "grammar points", usually introduced one at a time, usually in contrastive pairs (e.g. present simple vs. present continuous, past simple vs. present perfect), following the guidelines formulated by Palmer (1968) as a selection pool, rather than drawn from empirical evidence.

According to Skehan (1998) structural syllabi have been terribly popular among the teaching community for the following reasons: they leave teachers with a feeling of unquestionable professionalism; they can easily be organised into units without interference from the learner; they establish unambiguous learning goals, and precise and clearly-defined evaluation systems.

However, as Long & Crookes (1993) rightly asserted, structural syllabi no longer reflect contemporary linguistic theory and research, while bearing little connection to modern generative grammar or functional-typological grammar. Criticisms brought to structural syllabi (best embodied in the formal syllabus) pinpointed the following aspects:

1. the uncanniness of dialogues or reading passages that are structurally and lexically graded (Widdowson 1968; Crystal 1981);

2. a preference for modelling usage, not use (Widdowson 1971);

3. the confusing mishmash of various functions of language that come about to be encoded by using the same linguistic form;

4. the negative impact on learners' motivation, who find themselves under the pressure of time to communicate as soon as possiblein a foreign language (Wilkins 1972);

5. the useless idea that learners need to be taught the whole grammatical system, since most of them do not need it all;

6. the insufficiency of descriptions of linguistic competence, which are non-psychological and cannot address the complexity of the psychological processes involved in second language acquisition (Kellerman 1985; McLaughlin 1987);

7. the failure to admit that learners never acquire structures in isolation, as these structures are embedded in form-function relationships;

8. reliance on instructional sequences that do not accurately reflect acquisition sequences (Lightbown 1983, Pienemann 1987);

9. the insufficiency of completely native-like target structures considered as an item of analysis at least for beginner level learners. (Long & Crookes 1993, p. 15).

2.4 The functional syllabus

A viable alternative to the formal (or structural / grammatical syllabus) has been the functional syllabus (Wilkins 1972; 1976), as can be seen also in the statements of The Council of Europe (1971), or in the writings of Wilkins (1972, 1976), Van Ek (1976), Jones (1977), or Van Ek & Trim (1984).

Although conventionally, this syllabus has been called notional-functional, in some cases notions and functions have been presented separately in different syllabi (Jones 1977; 1979). On the one hand, notions may be either universal, abstract concepts, e.g. space, time, distance, quantity, quality, etc. or specific ones, which are typically referred to as being ‘contexts’ or ‘situations’ (e.g. ‘marital status’ is a specific notion that includes information on one's situation in terms of being single, *married*, separated, divorced, or widowed.). Functions, on the other hand, correspond to language functions, i.e. apologising or complaining (Van Ek & Alexander 1975). However, considering the analogous criteria used to select and sequence their units, they will be discussed together in this chapter, and will be designated as notional-functional syllabi.

According to Breen (1987), the functional syllabus can be subject to five sub-questions, as follows:

1) What knowledge does it focus on?
   - the learners’ knowledge of Speech Acts;
   - purpose-oriented focus of the learner who needs to perform well in certain social activities or events;
   - prioritisation of various functions of a language and how these are coded;

2) What capabilities does the syllabus concentrate on and prioritise?
   - the learners’ ability to be just in the interpretation and production of the linguistic components, or code features that carry out specific uses of language and which denote particular concepts;
   - a skill-oriented perspective of learner abilities, similarly to the formal syllabus.

3) On what grounds does it select and distribute what will be learnt?
   - it is categorical, i.e. it categorises the main types of language purposes into sets and sub-sets, while at the same time it identifies how these functions can be put into practice in different ways through the language code.
   - the principles of selection and categorisation are similar to those laid down in a comprehensive phrase book.

4) How does it sequence what is to be learnt?
   - from more general sets of functions to specific functions;
   - from common linguistic realisations of various functions to more complex, or refined realisations of such functions;
   - a cyclic character – from general to particular.

5. What is its rationale?
   - first a response to the disappointment with the apparently mechanistic methodology promoted by grammar-translation and audio-lingualism;

- an attempt to integrate the new approach to language knowledge brought forth by linguists
- a preoccupation for meaningfulness considered as an important aspect of the language learning experience.
- an intention to empower learners to use language from the beginning of the learning process with a view to perform successfully in interpersonal or social encounters;
- language is viewed as a means for achieving a goal rather than knowledge in itself;
- fluency is just as important as accuracy, it is fluency that carries along accuracy. (Breen 1987a, pp. 88-90)

Derived from a concern for communicative competence, the new perspective on the nature of content for language pedagogy led to the introduction of two main aspects of syllabus design:
a) a notional or conceptual element (time, space, or movement, cause and effect);
b) a functional element (intentional / purposive use of language).

This leads us in the direction of Halliday's third function of language, the interpersonal one, supporting the highly influential model of communicative competence advocated by Sauvignon (1983) and Hymes (1971; 1972), who integrated Chomsky's concept of competence into a sociolinguistic context. A knowledge of language entails knowing how to use that language in appropriate ways.

Despite the emphasis placed by the notional/functional syllabus upon the articulated meanings or the functions accomplished through language, as Wilkins *et al.* put it (1981, p. 83), it is in fact a content-based, propositional, or synthetic, Type A syllabus for language knowledge and abilities, with the only mention that its communicative focus is conducive to various applications of the governing principles of syllabus design as compared to those of the formal syllabi (Breen 1987a, p. 87).

In this vein, we no longer see the target language a mere set of discrete linguistic items which contribute to the development of isolated linguistic sub-skills, they are in fact groups of linguistic devices, as Long & Crookes (1993, p. 15) put it. The content of functional syllabi is not exclusively linked to structural teaching goals, and therefore we can introduce similar language functions, with various structures. Nevertheless, as it happened in the case of formal syllabus, designers do not have empirical evidence to help them validate the choice of structures and exponents while operating within a functional framework; unfortunately, according to White (1988, p. 82) up to the present "there has been an unsatisfactory reliance on intuition".

Attempts at combining functional with formal selection and grading of content have been rather difficult, thus functionally based syllabi (such as *Threshold* [by Van Ek 1975], or *Waystage* [by Van Ek & Alexander 1977]) relied more on the learners' needs, from the perspective of both classroom functions and usefulness in the 'real world', coverage or generalisability, complexity of form, interest or relevance.

In spite of promoting awareness of the 'communicative value' of learning a foreign language and a preoccupation for learners' present or future language needs, functional/notional syllabi do not bring much on the scene of language learning, and several weak point may be underlined:

a) preparation, just as it happened in the case of formal syllabi, entails fragmentation of the target language, introducing one notion or one function at a time, starting from the assumption that learners will eventually synthesise the whole, while functions in fact co-occur in discourse, acquiring communicative value from the very content of discourse (Crombie 1985; Widdowson 1978);

b) the groupings of functions are non-finite; moreover, it is hard to define or distinguish many individual notions and functions, and the linguistic exponents can often be difficult to pinpoint (Long & Crookes 1993, p. 16);

c) they lack a sound psychological basis, as the psychological reality of different notions was not paid heed to until a decade after they were introduced (Cook 1985);

d) functional syllabi tend to overlook the theory of language acquisition, being reliant on reasoning to the detriment of empirical evidence (Paulston 1981). According to Brumfit (1981, p. 92), we first need to be able to say "A is a notion and B is not, and consequently they can be tested in these ways", in order to come the full circle.

The uncritical and rather unsubstantiated use of notional-functional syllabi changed when designers turned their attention to hybrid structural and notional-functional syllabi started to gain ground, in which there was a re-emergence of the role played by mastery of grammatical systems, as Wilkins *et al*

(1981, p. 85) put it, seen as crucial “to anything more than ‘a rudimentary communicative ability’ ”. Syllabi were now taken to vary from being mainly grammatical to completely notional, in keeping with the learners’ needs (Wilkins 1974).

2.5 Situation and topic syllabi

Following the observation that language structure cannot itself make up the full basis of a completely realised, integrated syllabus, due to the fact that language use has to be contextualised, including interactive, communicative, or social use of the language, White (1988, p. 73) underlined the importance (within limits) of the category of ‘situation’ in syllabus design. Therefore, two not so well-known and less widely used categories of synthetic syllabus resort to *situation* and *topic* as basis for their analysis.

2.5.1 The situational syllabus

Examples of situations dealt with in such a syllabus may be: *At the airport*, *At the supermarket*, etc. Learners are provided with the language that is deemed necessary for them to perform linguistically in the social context in which they are likely to need that language.

Situational syllabi benefit from the advantage of drawing on students’ existent knowledge of the world as support in the learning process, and at the same time, of providing realistic, and therefore motivating materials, although, as Alexander (1967, p. xvii) stated, at the beginning of the learning process, it is possible to resort to a rather limited number of patterns, meaning that the learning situations are frequently “unconvincing and barely possible”. The issue at stake is the danger of using structures as the dominant form of sequencing, leading to a type of ‘structural-situation’ syllabus, which can be subject to the same criticisms that structural syllabi were brought (see Long & Crookes 1993, p. 20). The word ‘situational’ in syllabus design can also refer to courses which are, according to Mohan (1977, p. 251), structured “around situations and deal with structures as they arise” in the classroom setting.

2.5.2 The topical syllabus

Topical syllabi represent a typical and appropriate method of structuring ESL/EFL textbooks, offering the same motivational potential as situational syllabi, in particular if selection relies on the identification of needs, carried out in terms of topics, which are identified based on the principle of frequency of use in everyday conversations. Nevertheless, they also have in common the difficulties of defining or distinguishing situations and topics, in an attempt to handle the broadness of the concepts used in materials design, anticipating grammatical form, as well as grading and sequencing the content of syllabus.

According to Long and Crookes (1993, pp. 20-23), we cannot speak of a valid method to grade situations in relation with difficulty or with the order in which they should be learnt. Moreover, topic represents a broad semantic construct, and similarly to situations, the topics display an ill-fated predisposition towards merging into one another and incorporating other topics. Using *situation* and *topic* to construct the unit of investigation in a synthetic syllabus becomes in this way rather problematic, since it is impossible to distinguish boundaries or to predict what they involve. In Long & Crookes' words, "Where you use language, it also turns out, is less relevant for language learning than what you use it for, i.e. *task*" (1993, p. 23).

2.6 The lexical syllabus

This type of syllabus can be included within the propositional paradigm, taking the word as being the discrete unit of both investigation and content of syllabus design. Different studies on vocabulary selection, dating as back as the beginning of the 20th century (Ogden 1930; Faucet *et al.* 1936), as well as more recent research into computer-based analysis of large corpora of authentic texts have led to a reappraisal of direction. The lexical syllabus, from a modern perspective has been addressed by Sinclair and Renouf (1988), according to whom the main advantage of a lexical syllabus can be taken to be its emphasis on usefulness, as learners are provided with the most frequently used lexical units. Further work on collocation has also contributed to a wider reception of the lexical approach (Sinclair 1987; Willis 1990; Lewis 1993, 1997; Lewis & Hill 1995; Popescu 2007, 2011a; Willis 1990).

According to Willis (1990, pp. vii-viii), the lexical syllabus, therefore, offers learners a coherent learning opportunity, since it does not impose either what will be learned or in what order. It provides the learner with the experience of a small, but balanced corpus of natural language out of which it is possible to draw generalisations about the language taken as a whole. Moreover, it offers the learner the stimulus to peruse that mini-corpus with a view to making productive generalisations.

The lexical syllabus makes an attempt at reconciling the contradictions between the process of itemising language in order to identify what is to be learnt and the communicative methodology which entails exposure to the use of natural language so as to enable learners to employ their inborn faculties to recreate the systems of the target language. On the one hand, itemising language means that items can be learnt discretely, building up language from a gradual accumulation of these items, and on the other, communicative methodology is holistic, relying on learners' ability to make abstractions from the language which they are exposed to with a view to recreating a whole picture of the target language.

The lexical syllabus aims to find more economical and efficient means of teaching grammar, although, being a structural syllabus, it ultimately intends to internalise the system. As an example, the complex structure of the passive voice may be simplified by introducing the past participle as adjectives. It can be said that there is change from teaching structural patterns to focusing on word meaning.

Proponents of this approach claim that by emphasising lexical meanings learners will focus more on input and thus understand further input. They also maintain that learners will be empowered to infer more generalisations about the language as a lexical explanation is founded on a more powerful generalisation than a grammar description might be. Moreover, by simply retrieving words, learners can theoretically re-create language structures themselves. It is considered that words resemble the categories employed by learners to decipher the language system. Learners do not operate with the complex categories of linguists and course designers, so they should be able to identify 'surface forms' which, in Willis's opinion, are words.

2.7 The skills syllabus

It was Johnson (1996) who proposed a syllabus which is centred on skills, similar to, but however different from those of Munby (1978) and Wilkins (1976), aiming to lay down the units of analysis in communicative syllabus design. It is organised at four levels which comprise linguistic items, semantic categories, writing strategy, and processing demands. At the first level we deal with language specific skills, i.e. "identifying the present perfect" or correctly contrasting minimal pairs in phonetics/phonology, such as /ʌ/ and /a:/, in the same vein as traditional syllabus designers have chosen and classified units (Johnson, 1996, p. 164). The second tier comprises semantic categories, i.e. notions and functions, however, only those that can be subject to pedagogically accessible generalisations (1996, p.165). that is to say, if we are to choose between two functions such as 'inviting' and 'being polite', Johnson advises the use of being polite' since it is less phrasal, and thus, more generalizable. At the third level we have writing skills, e.g. generating ideas/brainstorming, drafting and structuring essays, evaluating them, etc. The choice for the first three skills-based levels is motivated by his belief that language learners firstly resort to procedural knowledge in order to produce the language which only later turns into declarative knowledge. Lastly, the fourth tier includes the processing demands of the level of complexity of classroom tasks, which should count for decisions regarding sequencing the syllabus units. As learners gradually practice the language, their attentional demands decrease and thus knowledge becomes proceduralised. That is to say, initially unattended and unanalysed linguistic units the learners move on to addressing and analysing the formulaic language that they initially used to achieve fluency. Once declarative knowledge develops, learners can start making useful generalisations about the language.

2.8 The procedural syllabus

The procedural syllabus has its origins in the "Bangalore Communicative Teaching Project", based in India, where Prabhu (1987) and his colleagues made a shift from a traditional, old-fashioned grammar-based programme to a task-based, more modern one. This was a major transition from long established grammar-based syllabi, when first linguistic units were no longer taken as a reference point. Instead, the procedural syllabus resorted to a succession of opinion-gap, information-gap, or reasoning-gap tasks that were fundamentally meaning-focused.

Opinion gaps comprised expressing personal preferences, attitudes, or feelings when confronted with a situation. Thus, information-gap was conceived as an information sharing process between or among language learners. The reasoning-gap task involved inferring and deducing from, as well as practical reasoning about a certain piece of information. According to Prahbu, learners construe grammar in an unconscious way, this being best facilitated by arousing in the learner a concern with message meaning, saying, and doing (1987, p. 2).

With a view to designing the tasks that are to be used in the English class, Prahbu and his collaborators selected the content from other subjects the students learnt, and decided to teach that content in the English language. To achieve his aim, Prabhu resorted to a rather repetitive pre-task, to expose learners to the language, and moreover, he incorporated listening activities and used visual aids. In a very structured way, during the pre-task stage, he introduced a demonstration of the task with two of the students in the class.

However, the process syllabus is not without criticism. For example, Long (2000) points out that Prabhu designed tasks that students would never use in real life; and that his syllabus was not founded on needs analysis; it was merely an indiscriminate selection of chunks taken from the content of other school subjects. Long also denounces that the procedural syllabus was a typical example of emphasis on meaning, with no focus on language as object.

According to other researchers (e.g. Long & Crookes 1992; White 1988) another drawback was the somewhat undefined concept of task, which lacks an evaluative component. Likewise blameworthy was that task selection was founded on the teacher's own intuition rather than on well-grounded, principled criteria. Nevertheless, as we shall see in the following, it was a first attempt to create a task-based syllabus.

2.9 The process syllabus

Proponents of process syllabi bring forth a social and a problem-solving prototype for syllabus design, with the learner playing the leading role and in which negotiation is the fundamental concept. This model is based on general philosophical and educational ideologies rather than on principles of second language acquisition. Candlin (1984) discarded structural and notional-functional syllabi due to the following reasons:

a) they are externally enforced, in accordance with certain principles of institutions, be they educational, social, moral, or content-related, and they usually overlook the intentions, values, and genuine educational contexts of the very learners.

b) linguistic syllabi are primarily teacher-centred, the teacher being the representative of a 'pre-packaged' structuring of items.

c) they lack authenticity, since they provide an extrinsic, static and rather idealised picture of 'reality'.

d) from an SLA perspective, such linguistic syllabi are not in line with research findings regarding learnability (Pienemann, 1984), a concept which states that learners learn only what they are prepared to learn, by passing through developmental sequences of certain grammatical domains, such as relative clauses or negation, and at individual, personal rates of development.

In contrast with traditional previous structural or notional-functional syllabi, the process syllabus attempts to incorporate content (subject-matter) with learning experience, through reconciling what should be taught with what is actually taught. According to Breen (1984, p. 56), a process syllabus refers to "who does what with whom, or what subject matter, with what resources, when, how, and for what learning purpose(s)". Therefore, the attention is not so much to the outcome, but rather on the process. This type of syllabus is mainly focused on the people that interpret it and not towards those who typically specify it. We could state that the process syllabus is personal, inner-directed, intrinsic and reflects 'reality' in process. Both teachers and learners decide together on the objectives as well as routes to follow, thus contributing to a 'dynamic' and 'negotiated' syllabus instead of a 'static' and 'imposed' one. It is important however, to integrate strategic planning into curriculum design, through establishing some general, open-ended procedures for purposes, content and learning experiences, as well as assessment. Next, syllabus designers need a bank of items, together with sets of guidelines and a large array of learning formats and educational experiences. Thus, having at one's disposal this vast range of resources, teachers and learners can jointly construct a viable programme by negotiating the questions of what, how, and why.

More recently, Breen and Littlejohn (2000) underlined the pivotal role of procedural negotiation involved in syllabus design, which would empower learners to analyse their attitudes, beliefs, intentions and goals for learning and discuss them with teachers and other peers, thus contributing to improved classroom discourse. Besides other social, cultural, or educational arguments in favour of a negotiated syllabus, Breen and Littlejohn (2000) advance the idea that procedural negotiation is conducive to language acquisition, as it encourages negotiation of meaning, broadens the scope of input, offers renewed occasions for learner output, and also empowers learners to assess appropriateness and accuracy of the language used. As far as attention to form and detailed metalinguistic information are concerned, according to Breen and Littlejohn, these must occur when the learner needs it most, when confronted with a communication problem, or when he or she identifies a gap in their knowledge of the language (either in input or output), when they want to make language more controllable for themselves, or merely when they want to find out this kind of information.

According to Breen and Littlejohn task can be defined as referring to any single structured or planned classroom action which openly serves or is closely related to the teaching/learning processes implied by the foreign language (2000, p. 36). It features its own objective(s), has its own content, working procedures, as well as explicit or implicit criteria for achievement.

As in the case of other syllabi, the process syllabus has been found fault with. For example, Long and Crookes (1992) disapprove of the arbitrary selection which occurs as a result of the absence of needs analysis which, could bring relevance and efficiency to how class time is used. They also criticise the lack of a reasoned proposal for task sequencing, which apparently is based solely on learners' wants and wishes. Moreover, it has been pointed out that they do not offer any theory or pedagogic research in SLA to account for evaluation. Long and Crookes (1992) also disagree with the lack of a reasoned proposal for task sequencing, which apparently is based solely on learners' wants and wishes.

In addition, it has been pointed out that they do not offer any theory or pedagogic research in SLA to account for evaluation. Despite some SLA research findings, process syllabi make no statements about form, as this is left solely to learners' choice. Additionally, it expects teachers to be highly autonomous and to possess a high degree of expertise, it overlooks the importance of teacher authority in some contexts, and it requires too wide a range of teaching materials as well as learning resources.

2.10 The task-based syllabus (TBS)

The task-based syllabus falls under the process paradigm, in contrast with the propositional paradigm, which was challenged due to its syllabi focusing on the transmission of pre-selected, pre-digested knowledge. It promotes the language task as an essential unit of process syllabus design as well as classroom use. It came also as a response to growing dissatisfaction with different method-based approaches, such as Grammar Translation, The Audiolingual Method, the Direct Method, etc., alongside other issues associated with the propositional syllabi. Type A syllabi (the synthetic ones) were considered as too interventionist, too authoritarian, without any regard for the expression and cultivation of individual learning styles or preferences (Long & Crookes 1993, p. 33).

The task-based syllabus attests to a preoccupation with 'means' rather than 'product', which has gained ground since the Bangalore project (1979-84) as well as a follow-up to Breen's article of 1987, so that the concept of 'language task' has been increasingly regarded as a building block of the curriculum (Nunan 1993:66), and “a central pedagogical tool for the language teacher as well as a basic unit for language syllabus design and research” (Williams & Burden 1997, p. 168). Similarly to how grammar and structure had started to be regarded as inadequate explanations of language *per se*, the highly-praised four macro-skills promoted by the functional syllabus have started to be considered as components of an underlying competence for language use, rather than as the language itself (Widdowson 1978; Breen & Candlin 1980).

The use of Task-based Syllabi (TBS) rests on the following justifications:

a) it is in line with research findings on foreign language learning (Ellis 1985b; Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991);

b) it approaches content selection on the basis of course design principles developed in the 1970s (Widdowson 1979; Selinker, Tarone & Hanzeli 1981; Swales 1985; 1990);

c) it attempts at integrating findings derived from classroom-centred research with reference to materials and methodologies design (Chaudron 1988).

According to Breen (1987b, p. 164), the roots of task-based theory can be traced back to ‘situational’ approaches to language teaching (see also Corder 1960), as well as three other influences are to be identified:

a) a wide-ranging analysis of knowledge and abilities that learners need if they want to achieve successful language learning (Singleton 1978);

b) use of theme-based, project-based and open-ended materials in the classroom, which are not necessarily linked to the syllabus (see for example, The Humanities Curriculum Project 1971);

c) problem-solving is used as a way of learning a whole range of knowledge and abilities, considering that problem-solving represents a more holistic interpretation of learning that what is meant by item a) (Winitz & Reeds 1975; Adams 1986).

Advocates of this type of syllabus can therefore advance four advantages of using a task-based syllabus:

a) the intrinsic value attached to problem-solving tasks which can generate learner interaction and, thus, lead to negotiation of comprehensible language input (Long 1983; 1985);

b) reliance on psycho-pedagogy to concentrate on the processes of learners' participation in discourse (Widdowson 1981) and on the procedures they adopt when they try to acquire new knowledge (cf. Bialystok & Sharwood Smith 1985);

c) the opportunity to sequence a syllabus in consideration of learners' problems, which can be addressed as they occur, thus surmounting sequencing constraints that conventional syllabus design criteria used to have (Schinnerer-Erben 1981);

d) the learners' ability to process input and information, as well as materials design, thereby lowering the pressure on teachers to permanently look for content material (cf. Breen et al 1979).

All in all, the key characteristic of task-based structuring of content is that it resorts to activities that the learners perform for non-instructional purposes especially outside the classroom, but that are conducive to language learning. Tasks are considered to be different from other activities in that they do not have clear-cut instructional purposes (Krahnke 1987, p. 67).

As for possible pitfalls, according to Skehan (1996), one should beware of excessive attention to meaning while completing a task, which may limit learners to the strategic choices they make themselves, without sufficiently paying heed to structural change or accuracy. Consequently, it could not be possible to just count on a task-based approach in order to automatically advance interlanguage ahead, which means it might be necessary to come up with different methods of emphasising form without overlooking the value of task as genuine communication triggers and motivators, and as real occasions for successful language acquisition processes (Skehan 1996, p. 42).

CHAPTER THREE
THE BUSINESS LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

3.1. The origins of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

The branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an essential component of second language teaching and learning, a major innovation, as Riddell (1991, p. 73) called it. Its development, since its birth, was parallel with that of general English Language Teaching (ELT), and that is why it cannot be analysed in isolation. We all remember the idyllic presentation of ESP made by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 1), an account which has made history in itself: "Once upon a time there was a city called ELT. […] They were welcomed by the local inhabitants, and they founded a new city which they called ESP."

The preoccupation with specialised languages seem to be quite old, starting from the itinerant merchants who travelled to foreign countries and needed to communicate with their business partners. Dudley-Evans & St John (1998, p. 1) remarked that the birth of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) date back to the Greek and the Roman Empires. According to Dudley-Evans & St John (1998), the story goes on with Howatt's (1984) statement that a need to school Huguenot and Protestant refugees in the England of the 16th century spurred an interest in Business English in early English Language Teaching. Given the importance of trade and international commerce, it comes as no wonder that these precursors of present-day ESP were all preoccupied with doing business.

Strevens (1977, pp. 190-191) makes reference to language courses of the type 'German for science students' and the 'traveller's language courses' as examples of early 'Special-Purpose Language Teaching' (SP-LT). He also maintains that WWW II brought about a need for specialised language courses aimed at students who only needed a limited competence in a foreign language so as to successfully carry out pre-set, pre-defined tasks. An example in case would be Royal Air Force personnel, who were trained to listen and decipher Japanese fighter aircraft radio oral exchanges. For this particular task, they only got practice in listening skills, with a limited amount of lexical input. However, the real explosion in this field only took place after the war. Strevens (1977, p. 191) further states that the increase in international business relationships, and the spread of multinational companies and agencies engendered an acute demand in foreign business language courses aimed at empowering learners to discuss and negotiate contracts, maintain business correspondence, promote sales of products on foreign markets, advertise in the countries of destination, etc.

By the same token, the advances in the field of science and technology, a similar boom was witnessed for English for Science and Technology (EST), which was necessary for scientists and university science students in all areas in order to understand the specialised language that was used in science books. English was acknowledged as the most powerful and salient language and was adopted as the unquestionable language for business, politics, technology, and science. Secondly, another major factor for the proliferation of the English language was the educational mobility and internationalisation of higher education in particular. However, we see no reasons for this status quo to change, despite the impending Brexit.

As mentioned above, the foremost reason for the development of ESP was the economic development, a sort of rise 'in currency', obviously triggered by the economic imperialism of the United States following WWW II. The enormous invasion of the American dollar into various countries across the globe brought about as a side-effect an increased need to develop the ability to communicate in English, particularly in the field of science and technology. Consequently, a significant number of journals and scientific data started to be published only in English. Additionally, there was an influx of foreign workers in developing countries, coupled with a larger need for English in former British colonies, which were starting to disintegrate, so the need for teaching English was felt more and more prominently. Likewise important was the inflow of western specialists into the oil-rich nations of the Middle-East, leading to an increased need for some *lingua franca*, which undoubtedly was, is now, and still will be, English.

Secondly, the worldwide educational upsurge also lead to the rise of ESP, in particular due to learner-centeredness or the "new educations" (Văideanu 1988), in which central issues of human existence started to come to the fore; the learner became pivotal to education, as well as other concerns for environment education, education for participation and democracy, education for a new world order, modern household education, etc. According to Strevens (1977, p. 152), the advent of a dominant 'wave' in educational philosophy, across all countries and influencing all subjects. This movement to which reference is being made is actually the "global trend towards 'learner-centred' education".

Derived from the above factor, not to be overlooked is the development in the field of applied linguistics, which in particular focused on theories of language learning, which have prompted linguists to understand languages as not being "only a set of grammatical structures but also a set of functions" (Kennedy & Bolitho 1984, p. 2). The Threshold Level English, brought forward by the Council of Europe in 1975 contributed to the boom and spread of communicative approach which has been for so long central to ESP teaching. Language began to be seen as a useful set of notions and functions necessary for successful communication.

3.2 Definitions of ESP

One of the main issues regarding ESP has been whether specific situations in which language is used can engender situational or subject-specific language. There has been an agreement that whereas the situations do not generate separate, or special languages *per se*, we still come across some restriction of language choice as well as a certain degree of specialist lexis.

The process of acquisition of this rather restricted, specialised language, has to be first undergone by teachers for them to be able to teach it, and its ensuing transferral to learners, has led to a learning dynamic which is very different from that we witness in the case of mainstream ELT. Consequently, most definitions in the specialist literature will be focused on either language or on the teaching thereof.

Strevens (1977) claims there are four leading criteria for SP-LT:

a) *Restriction*: only a limited, basic set of skills are necessary for the learners' purpose;

b) *Selection*: only the lexical and grammatical structures actually needed by the learners;

c) *Themes and topics*: only those that are truly required by the learners;

d) *Communicative needs*: only those that are needed by learners in their given situations.

Coffey (1984 p. 3), mainly restating Strevens's ideas, contended that we cannot speak of a special language, only of some selection principle from the language in question to meet the purposes aimed at. He also argues that before designing a course, regardless of the considerations we have, the process called by Strevens as 'restriction' needs to occur, i.e. a selection of elements and features extracted from the language corpus, which are significant to the designer's intent and the students' needs (Coffey 1984, p. 4).

As mentioned before, a central element of ESP is represented by learners' needs. According to Kennedy and Bolitho (1984), ESP rests on an examination of the learner's aims and the "set of communicative needs arising from those needs" (p. 3).

If we take a look at later writers, who luckily have the advantage of hindsight, we can get further insights into the issue. According to West (1997), ESP is based on five *conceptions*, i.e. authenticity, research basis, language, needs and learning methodology. He further argues that each of these criteria has a double and possibly contradictory origins on the one hand in the real world, and on the other in ESP pedagogy (1997, p. 33). Below is a model of the ideas he propounds:

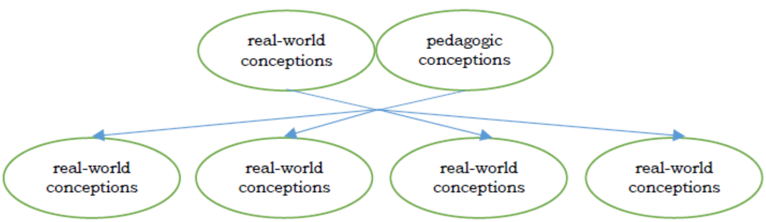

Figure 1. ESP conflicting bases (West 1997, p. 33)

This is to say that the students' real-world needs may for example conflict their pedagogic needs, or the authenticity of learning materials may be limited by pedagogic considerations, etc.

In terms of methodology, Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) have identified one that can be applied to all ESP courses. Starting from earlier ideas, such as the fact the ESP students acquires a body of knowledge and a set of skills that are quite different from general English (Robinson 1980, p. 6), they assert that the ESP teacher's role also varies from that performed by the general English teacher, to the point that at times, the teacher's role is more like that of a language consultant, on a par with the learners who bring in their personal "expertise in the subject matter" (Dudley-Evans & St John 1998, p. 4). Furthermore, they describe ESP from the perspective of *absolute* and *variable* traits, as we will see in the table below:

Table 5. ESP from the standpoint of absolute and variable traits (Dudley-Evans & St John 1998, pp. 4-5)

Absolute characteristics	**Variable characteristics**
aimed at meeting specific needs	may be connected with or tailored for specific disciplines
resorts to the basic methodology and activities specific to the discipline it relates to	may use in certain teaching situations a methodology that is different from general English
is focused on the language skills, discourse and genre suitable for the activities involved	most likely to be intended for adult learners
	most often created for intermediate or advanced level learners

Consequently, the ESP methodology under discussion resides in the type of relationship established between teachers and learners, which itself is brought about in turn by the emphasis on the specific language employed by the disciplines in which students themselves are experts, whereas the teacher is not, he is more of a neophyte. This underlying methodology which views the teacher as 'coach'- wards off teachers' need to very quickly learn the specific language of the learner's discipline.

ESP is also defined in accordance with some factors, such as purpose, course content, learner constraints, all which will be analysed, in turn, in the following.

3.2.1 Purpose of ESP

The notion of purpose in ESP entails some issues such as 'special' or 'specific' as well as 'specific' vs. 'general'. ESP as an acronym has been used for both 'English for Special Purposes' and 'English for Specific Purposes' interchangeably or alternatively as can be seen in Mackay and Mountford (1978) where even the same authors use both senses without any difference in connotation.

According to Coffey, the 'S' in ESP is now definitely meant to stand for 'Specific', ", a usage endorsed by, for example, the entries in the list of British University course tides in the British Council's TEFL/TESL Guide for 1983/1984". (1984, p. 3)

Indeed, the term 'Specific' is meant to establish a contrast with 'General' when referring to language courses. 'General' is understood as a language course that is culture and literature-oriented, and that equips learners with skills needed or general life experience, in which language *per se* is the subject matter, as well as the aim of the course. On the other hand, the ESP learner "is learning English en route to the acquisition of some quite different body of knowledge or set of skills" (Robinson 1980, p. 6). Culture is actually related to both ESP and GE, which need to take heed of the ever increasing trans- and intercultural mutations of the contemporary world.

By using the word 'specific' in ELT syllabus planning, the focus is shifted towards the actual learner's purpose. This entails that the educational or occupational need for English has to be clearly set in the programme designer's mind. With reference to the above-mentioned purpose, Mackay and Mountford put forward the categories of "occupational, vocational, academic, or professional" requirements (Mackay & Mountford 1978, p. 3).

Furthermore, Strevens (1978, p. 190) indicates ‘purpose’ as an important criterion that is to be considered when defining ESP. In other words, for Mackay and Mountford (1978, p. 2) ESP has a rather utilitarian purpose; the ESP learner is thus studying to be able to perform a role; and therefore both teacher and learner should be aware of this reality, so that no redundant or irrelevant material would be introduced in the programme. Purposefulness is one essential characteristic of ESP.

This leads us unquestionably to the next characteristic of ESP, i.e. the centrality of learner needs, which are “a key element in any definition of ESP” (Robinson 1980, p. 10). According to Munby (1978, pp. 56-58), the understanding of the concept of ESP rests on orienting the course towards learners’ needs.

Provided that we understand the concept of purpose, and its significance to why the learner want to learn a language, we are in a position to better design an ESP programme. Phillips (1981, p. 92) also noted that “the first and crucial notion which gives LSP its identity as a distinctive area of language teaching activity is that of learners' purpose”.

Purpose should be based on the following major principles:

a) homogeneity – all learners taking the same course as one homogeneous group must share the same purpose;

b) common behavioural character – tasks should be coherent with the real life needs of the learners, i.e. what the learner will actually do, what he has the ability to do and what he should learn to do in order to achieve the purpose;

c) realistic nature and achievability by the learners, considering the time and money constraints.

In Brumfit’s (1980) opinion, purpose is both functional and communicative. According to him, an ESP programme is directly focused on the reasons why learners need English, and thus purposes are generally worded in functional terms. “ESP thus fits firmly within the general movement towards ‘communicative’ teaching of the last decade or so” (pp. 107-108). ESP empowers learners to function appropriately and successfully in their areas of interest.

3.2.2 ESP course content

Strevens (1978, p. 190) asserts that the content of an ESP course is decided upon based on the following issues:

a) restriction of the four basic skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking) imposed by the learners' purposes/motivation behind learning a foreign language;

b) selection of the linguistic devices necessary for the programme content, such as lexical items, language structures, notions and functions of language as might be required to serve the learners' goals and purposes.

c) themes, topics, and situations employed to help attain the declared purposes. These can show rather accurately whether there is a cultural component of ESP courses, where the topics may relate to the company culture and particular practices, customs, traditions, behaviours, etc. of the Western and Eastern worlds in relation to each other.

d) inclusion of communicative needs, as required, in order to serve the stated purposes.

There seems to exist a certain characteristic of ESP that distinguish it from General English, which pertains to the lexis, rather than syntax (Farrel 1990, p. 6).

3.2.3 Learner constraints

Generally speaking, ESP learners are grown-ups (Mackay & Mountford 1978, p. 2), adults who are now at a turning point in their career or education, and need to enhance their specific skills in this direction. Most of them have already completed some general English courses, in very few exceptional cases they might be complete beginners. Such cases are the most unfortunate ones, since as Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp. 183-184) remarked, ESP for beginners could not attain the goals specified for the programme. Therefore, one essential constraint that should be dealt with is that of the learners' age. Psychopedagogic insights are important, as syllabus designers need to know the peculiarities of the age group they are dealing with. Adults in general have a clear sense of purpose, but at the same time are more self-aware and therefore more afraid of making mistakes and losing face in front of their peers, which might impede the learning process.

Secondly, another learner constraint is time. Closely linked to what was said before, given the fact that ESP learners are adults, already having a job or enrolled on an academic degree programme, they do not have too much time at their disposal to devote to achieve their educational goal in terms of language learning. Therefore, course designers might be forced to create extremely specific courses, e.g. a three-week long course on business presentations, or an intensive course on report writing, etc. Moreover, if courses are commissioned by professional organisations (e.g. banks, multinationals, etc.), the designers then have to consider, besides syllabus, materials, methodology, other elements such as location (in-company language programmes), scheduling (e.g. 7.00-9.00 AM) and duration (e.g. 48 hours). Naturally, all these will impact negatively on syllabus design, and therefore, ESP teachers definitely will need specific training in how to run such courses.

3.3 ESP Categories

3.3.1 Occupational vs educational orientation

At a basic level, we recognise two main branches of ESP, i.e. for academic, or educational purposes, and for occupational purposes (Strevens 1978). In general, EAP designates the ESP courses organised in universities, to help students (especially international, for whom English is not their mother tongue) understand the subject matter they are studying. EOP indicates ESP courses for learners who are either enrolled on a programme towards some kind of profession (other than languages), or already having a profession and in need of language training for that specific occupation they have. Despite the fact that specialisation in research fields requires specific and precise divisions between course labels, Mackay and Mountford (1978, p. 3) include under the large umbrella-term ‘occupational’ all the designations of ‘occupational, vocational, and professional’.

In the figure below, there is a visual model of the categorisation proposed by Strevens (1978, p. 196):

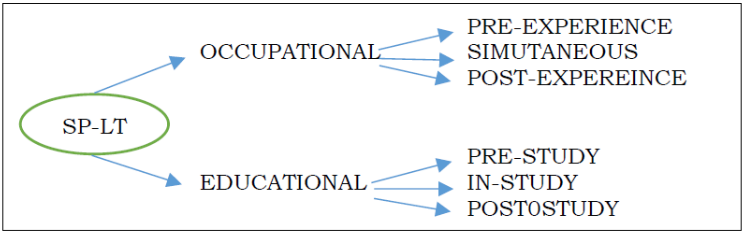

Figure 2. Strevens' model of Special Purpose Language Teaching categories (1978, p. 196)

3.3.2 English for Business within ESP

Drawing on the classification made by Strevens (1978, p. 196, see figure above), Ellis and Johnson (1994) identify three main categories of Business English learners:

a. *Pre-experience learners*: students enrolled in business schools and not yet having a place of work;

b. *Low-experienced learners*: junior company members as well as learners who are changing jobs, but without too much work experience;

c. *Job-experienced learners*: business professionals who need to learn Business English for a large number of reasons.

Therefore, people learn English for a variety of reasons, and settings. It is a large, and ever increasing area of ESP, perhaps the most dynamic and long-lasting, with both salient, and adaptive features.

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 1), Business English is a type of umbrella term which is used in the same way as English for Specific Purposes, in order to encompass both general courses for the acquisition of appropriate vocabulary and grammar for business communication. Along the same line, Johnson (1993, p. 201) states that Business English does not precisely fit into the widely accepted categorisation of ESP, quoting Munby (1978), who introduced a broad range of different situations and possible types of business English learners. Johnson (1993, p. 201) goes on to say that business English is a much wider area than any other variety of ESP, given the large number of various purposes for which people learn it.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) underlined yet again the scarce research on the subject, and that, even in the case when we see it, research is mostly focused on written communication, whereas, in real practice, teaching concentrated mainly on the spoken language. According to them, there exist two basic divisions of business English, depending on the learners' linguistic competence and business expertise, i.e.: English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP).

This aspect is also visible in the manner in which different textbooks are conceived, the selection and grading of tasks, and even in specialist dictionaries or glossaries.

3.4 ESP development stages

As the world, both economically and educationally is in constant change, so is English language teaching, and along time one can identify several stages, sometimes overlapping, nevertheless fluid. Approaches to ESP have advanced and developed in a way that has definitely also influenced English for Business.

3.4.1 Register Analysis

If we make an analysis of literature in the field, we see a consensus as to the first documented origins of ESP, we find that it was contemporary with Register Analysis (RA) in general linguistics, starting with the early 1960s. The underlying philosophy of RA was that selection of language to be used in given circumstances is pre-determined. Such a predisposition is ruled either by the situation in which the speakers find themselves, or by the subject matter they are studying. Therefore, it might be possible to create a special language, or a register to address these subjects or situations; in other words, as Pickett (1986, p. 16) stated, one could come up with 'the right words in the right place'. The study of these particular registers was consequently called *Register analysis*.

In an attempt to best serve the students of these special, or as Strevens (1977) put it, 'restricted' areas of English, teachers and researchers tried to provide learners with the essential grammatical features and lexical items that were most common in their area of expertise. Therefore, corpora of texts belonging to different disciplines, in particular scientific ones, and undertook a thorough analysis of these texts, with a view to determine "the statistical contours of different registers" (West 1997, p. 36), as well as to identify frequency of certain grammar or vocabulary structures.

The underlying premise was that scientific texts feature certain characteristics that are unique to themselves, and that can be established and further used for creating and adapting teaching materials. Among proponents of this theory mention can be made of Barber (1962) and Ewer and Latorre (1967). Nevertheless, this so called 'discrete-item', approach, as (Swales 1990, p. 3) put it, which tackled structures in isolation did not catch on that much, as it only functioned at sentence level and did not look into more complex elements of text which are to be found at intersentential level. What is more, research demonstrated that actually there was difference in 'scientific' language when compared to general English. In Coffey's words (1984), register is of little help, since there is no noteworthy way in which the specific language of science may differ from any other type of language. (Coffey 1984, pp. 4-5) Furthermore, this approach is simply descriptive, it does not elucidate why words occur where they do, and the materials created following this method, despite their sound theoretical and research-based foundation were boring and uninspiring to both teachers and students.

As mentioned before, Register Analysis in ESP did not make history; it was discarded in the 60', although we witnessed a resurgence in specialists' interest for this approach, especially with the boom in computer technology and concordancing programs for applied linguistics. Nevertheless, the resurge of Register Analysis is now enhanced with attention to discourse and function, as it now goes beyond sentence level, on to larger pieces of discourse, in order to analyse text coherence and cohesion.

3.4.2 Discourse or Rhetorical Analysis

The next stage in the development of ESP is *Discourse* or *Rhetorical Analysis*, an attempt to go beyond sentence level to longer sections of discourse. According to West, this counteraction in the early 1970s against register analysis focused on the communicative content of discourse and not so much on the lexical or the grammatical characteristics of register (West 1997, p. 36). Discourse Analysis investigated how sentences were connected together in a text in order to establish a broader definition of meaning as compared to what Register Analysis did. This entailed the study of coherence, i.e. "the quality of being meaningful and unified", according to (Cook 1989, p. 4), as well as cohesion, i.e. connections between sentences and links between clauses (Cook 1989, p. 14). Furthermore, it aims at investigating how meaning is intertwined, for example through means of formal grammar rules. Coffrey (1984, p. 5) also introduces Widdowson's theory of language *use* (for a purpose) versus its *usage* (rules of the language in practice) with respect to discourse analysis.

It can safely be asserted that Discourse Analysis strongly impacted ESP research, leading to the Genre Analysis approach, promoted by Swales (1981, 1990), which contributed to the growing notoriety of genre research in ESP. Genres, as we know, are hard to pinpoint, but generally speaking, they encompass a set of communicative events, which all have in common a range of communicative purposes (Swales 1990, p. 58).

According to West (1997, p. 36), the main difference between genre analysis and discourse analysis, following research he performed on business telephone calls, is that discourse analysis aims to establish the functional elements of the calls, whereas genre analysis allows the teaching materials designer to "sequence these functions into a series to capture the overall structure of such texts". The essential characteristic of genre analysis is positioning discourse within the communicative context in which it takes place and pays heed to issues such as culture and situation, which hasn't been done previously by discourse analysis. Therefore, as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 31) stated, genre analysis is regarded as a crucial development is ESP.

It is apparent that a natural consequence of the Discourse Analysis approach was an obvious concern for the purposes of language use, which brought about a further preoccupation learners' needs, besides the by-now traditional endeavour to determine the specialist language peculiar to a certain specialised area. Thus, specialists started to pay attention to learners' needs, asking themselves questions referring to the situations in which students needed the language and to what that specific language consisted of in those particular situations. The next stages will address these questions, i.e. the Target Situational Analysis (or needs analysis) and the functional/notional approach.

3.4.3 Needs Analysis

The expression 'analysis of needs' was coined in the early 1920s by Michael West while teaching Indian civil servants, and the first who put into practice a large-scale analysis of learners' needs was Richterich (1971), through his work for the Council of Europe. We have witnessed different approaches to needs analysis in time, alongside different approaches to communicative competences. The first important movement, the Target Situation Analysis developed together with the functional/notional investigations of Wilkins (1976), whose work was largely considered as pioneering in the during 'communicative' language teaching. He contended that language consists of functions – the goals of language use and notions – concepts expressed by language. This brought about investigations into the situations in which learners need certain language structures, and therefore an endeavour to establish which language is needed in those particular situations.

Stuart and Lee (1972, as cited in West 1994, p. 1) revolutionised research in ESP, through their analysis of the target situation needs of ten groups with different occupational interests, managing to identify the most typical situational needs expressed by Business English learners. Concern for occupational needs was continued with an emphasis on EAP and an analysis of students' needs in academic settings (Jordan & Mackay 1973). These movements were not historically separate, but saw overlappings and same thoughts in parallel directions. The Target Situation analysis reached its peak in Munby's

Communicative Syllabus Design (1978), which featured a taxonomy of possible target situations in which students might theoretically have to function. Unfortunately, the list, despite its undeniable theoretical merits, is too long to actually work in practice.

With the advent of considerations for more pragmatic elements, TSA suffered a decline, partly also because Munby's theory was rather impractical, with little application in the real world. The post-Munby era was dubbed as the 'intrusion of reality' (McDonough 1984, p. 33) Moreover, there were other issues that contributed to Munby's theory not being successful – the constraints that he laid down were given no remedy, so as to accommodate them in his paradigm. Furthermore, students were pictured in a sort of void space, in an objective way which made no amends for subjectivity that actually happens in real life. Additionally, learners did not participate in the process of needs analysis. However, TSA as an approach has continued to be used by syllabus designers. Perhaps the most important issue with it was the fact that its basis relies only on the intuition of those who created it.

In late 1970s and early 1980s, needs analysis started to be viewed differently, with added value, especially with the introduction of Canale and Swain's (1980) *sociolinguistic* definition of communicative competence, so that besides the component of situational language functions, needs acquired a new dimension of *means, deficiencies (or lacks)* and *learning strategies*.

Means analysis refers to an investigation of practical constraints on learning, derived from the reaction against Munby (see above). McDonough (1984) examined constraints on the teaching situation, which he considered as essential for the process of course design, therefore they were more like *options*, opportunities to be tapped into, rather than constraints. This idea has been continued by other specialists, among which mention can be made of Räsänen (1991), Mountford (1988), and Swales (1989).

Deficiency analysis (or lacks analysis) was introduced by Allwright & Allwright (1977), who tried to establish the difference between what students can do and what they want to do. It has to be said, though, that this approach was based on intuition. Learning styles and preferences began to be taken into consideration at about the same time, and an increased attention to learning strategies became widespread, as specialists understood the importance of the awareness as to how students learn, rather what they learn.

In the same period, another development is noteworthy, i.e. the *language audit* (Pilbeam 1979), which stretched the extent of needs analysis, by investigating company staff language training needs, and consequently, into their learning needs. This preoccupation is still strong nowadays, given the fierce competition of multinational companies across the globe.

With the latest developments in computer technology, the concept of needs analysis witnessed an even greater impetus, as this process could now be carried out at large scale, with much more precision. This could be used very successfully with business people, who are probably the most willing to invest in whatever could give them a competitive advantage over their world market "enemies".

3.4.4 Skills and strategies

Another important movement emerged in the 1980s, which focused on certain language skills, which continues the first approaches in ESP, that of register analysis where attention to reading and writing was apparent in the syllabus. However, later approaches concentrated also on speaking and listening skills. Authors such as Morrow (1980) extended and detailed the coverage of reading skills, to include *skimming, scanning* and developing an awareness of text cohesion and coherence. This approach greatly impacted in particular business English materials design and the textbooks published in that period are good examples of skills work.

In this context, it was no longer sufficient to analyse learners' needs from the perspective of individual skills, and a new strategic perspective needed, that of how students could bring their learning tasks to completion. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated, the underlying idea of the skills-centred approach is that essentially, all language use displays "common reasoning and interpreting processes" (p. 13), which, irrespective of the surface forms of various discourses, help us to grasp meaning.

An important issue to tackle is to actually define what needs are, which has been debated in specialist literature, in particular by Brindley (1984), who underlined that teachers' own approaches to 'needs' for the development of language skills are greatly influenced by their life experience and by their personal values (p. 65). Moreover, Chambers (1980) highlighted the fact that those who establish needs are actually those who essentially determine "which needs are determined" (p. 27)

In terms of practical applications of needs analysis for skills and strategies to be developed, some surveys are especially noteworthy, i.e. Van Hest and Oud-de Glas' (1991) research into foreign language surveys of needs of people working in the industry. What they discovered was that in general the surveys to date lacked statistical information derived from sampling, validity or reliability checks, coupled with extremely low response rates (pp. 12-13). Nevertheless, we have also witnessed other research which addressed more successfully the needs of business people in general, for example Barbara et al.'s (1996) investigation into business communication in Brazil. The results were indicative of the fact that the most common business genres in which people needed training were reports, memos and meetings.

Other, more recent research focuses on other relevant aspects related to business professionals' use of English at the workplace, such as novice professionals' use of English for workplace communication (Qian 2009), expatriates' adjustment in international business (Xiaofei 2009), or multi-literacy and the construction of knowledge of minority groups in a school-based environment (Berger, Sefa Dei & Forgette-Giroux 2009).

It is important to mention in this context the professional communication language and intercultural, pragmatic interplay research that has been carried out in Romania lately. I will only mention here a few such studies, e.g. Mihaela Gheorghe and Adina Velea's (2012) analysis of linguistic and discursive patterns of control speech acts in email messages at the workplace in Romania, Gabriela Chefneux's (2012) investigation of mitigation devices used in telephone conferences and meetings in a Romanian multinational company, Stanca Măda's (2012) exploration of the dual role of controlling and moderating professional meetings by chairs, as well as Răvan Săftoiu's (2012) integrated framework of analysis of small talk at the place of work, which applies the three categories of conversational continuum, identity and frame.

3.4.5 The Learning-Centred Approach

The next stage in ESP development, following the development of skills and strategies was the *Learning-Centred Approach*, whose most fervent supporters were Hutchinson and Waters (1987) The work of Nunan (1988) is also noteworthy, with reference to the learner-centred curriculum (for general English). Hutchinson and Waters explain that ESP does not represent simply teaching 'specialised varieties' of the English language. ESP is not necessarily a special form of the language, in a series of different other forms. It may well be 'typical' of a specific context of use, which will trigger the target situation that the learner might find himself in. However, according to the same Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 18), such differences should not impede the understanding of a far larger range of common ground underlying all English use, and by extension, all foreign language use.

They posit that from a teaching perspective, information acquired from a target situation is not essential to the overall development of learners' *competence*. By competence we do not only mean the knowledge needed to perform, but also the ability to establish how somebody acquires the competence in question (Hutchinson & Waters 1987, p. 73). According to them, former approaches to ESP were fundamentally mistaken, being focused only on "descriptions of language *use*" (Hutchinson & Waters 1987, p. 14), while there was an interest in language *learning*. As far as course design is concerned, this is seen as the outcome of a process of negotiation between students and teacher, which makes it a dynamic, consultative process for all syllabus design components, including aims, content, structure, etc. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), it represents "an approach with the declared purpose of "maximising the potential of the learning situation" (p. 77).

Bowers (1980) stated that until the learning-centred approach syllabi were designed in consideration of the learner not as a learner, but as a user of the target language in well-established communicative contexts (p. 66). Along the same line, Kumaravadivelu (2006) posits that a language can be best learnt when the emphasis is not on the language *per se*, but rather the learner is directed towards understanding, saying something or performing something with the language, instead of being exposed to explicit presentation of linguistic structures (p. 92).

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 74), there are certain stages in the learning-centred course design process:

a) identification of the learning situation (focusing on theoretical views of learning) and of the target situation (i.e. theoretical views of language);

b) identification of learners' attitudes, their potential needs and wants, as well as of the constraints of teaching and learning situations, coupled with the identification of the skills and knowledge necessary to function well in the target situations;

c) elaboration of syllabus;

d) design of teaching materials to suit learning situations which will facilitate the acquisition of skills and knowledge needed to perform successfully in the target situation;

e) decision on evaluation procedures to test the acquisition of the syllabus components.

The process is a dynamic, cyclical one, and once one circle is closed, the stages may start all over again. The distinguishing characteristic of the ESP learning-centred approach is this very inclusion of assessment as part and parcel of the course design process.

3.5 ESP nowadays

According to West (1997) and Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), not much had happened in ESP since Hutchinson and Waters (1987), until the end of the 20th century. I will focus in the following on three directions, which indeed, grew at the beginning of the 21st century, i.e. CLIL, EAP (especially with reference to the rise of international academic writing standard and fierce competition imposed by various journal rankings) and corpus studies (which afforded a greater scope to research in methodology and materials).

Another aspect worth mentioning, which will be treated in subsequent pages as well, is that Business English has known a remarkable impetus lately. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 31) pointed out that although the early ESP landscape was dominated by English for Science and Technology (EST), in the

1990s we were witnessing a growing interest in Business English.

3.5.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) has become one of the most significant challenges of the 21st century, in this world in which the aim is knowledge of Mother tongue + 2 other modern languages, along with all the metamorphoses in the educational landscape. CLIL represents a dual-focussed educational approach in which knowing an additional language is an asset used for teaching and learning of both specialist content and foreign language simultaneously. In other words, in the process of teaching and learning, there is a focus not only on content, and not only on language, but on both (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010, p. 1). It encompasses:

a) High quality teaching and learning adequate for 21st century classrooms across the globe;

b) It is context-embedded, content-driven with clear pluricultural learning outcomes,

c) It sees language as out greatest learning tool and it connects learners to the visions and realities of language using for different purposes at different times.

The challenges teachers are facing now are becoming ever more demanding. The need for a teaching force which is equipped with linguistic and pedagogic skills/understanding to guide change during the transition stage is widely acknowledged. We have witnessed lately a shift towards teacher-owned and student-shared understandings [theories of practice], a willingness to engage in class-based research, supported by easy access to flexible resources and networked professional learning. Moreover, there is an urgent need for alternative provision of innovative professional learning/teacher education, or CPD (Continuous Professional Development).

The essence of CLIL teacher education is that the language teacher also performs the role of the specialist subject teacher; whereas the subject teacher is also able to exploit opportunities for improving language skills.

CLIL has received a lot of attention lately, especially from the part of researchers, and to a certain extent, by classroom practitioners but still there are many domains that require targeted research and, especially in terms of classroom practice and methodology. CLIL as such represents an umbrella term coined by David Marsh from the University of Jyväskylä, Finland, where courses in various subjects are taught through a second or a foreign language as well as learning a second or foreign language through the study of content-based disciplines have been quite widespread in vocational secondary educational institutions for many years now.

The European Network of Administrators, Researchers and Practitioners (EUROCLIC[1]) embraced the term CLIL in mid-1990's, and was meant to refer to any activity in which a modern language is used as an instrument in the process of learning a non-language subject, where both foreign language and specialist subject have a jointly shared role. According to Marsh (2002, p. 58), the concept managed to encompass the manner in which a combination of methods could be employed to afford 'language as well as non-language subject matter' a combined role in the curriculum in the field of 'pre-schooling, mainstream education and adult lifelong education'. Applying this term gives us the possibility to explore countless combinations, "without imposing restrictions which might fail to take account of school or region-specific implementation characteristics" (Marsh 2002, p 58). CLIL does not favour any of the two over the other, but sees both language teaching and learning, as well as content teaching and learning as being two integral components of the whole process.

It may therefore be stated that CLIL epitomises a lifelong concept including all sectors of education, starting from primary up to tertiary and even beyond, from just a couple of hours per week up to intensive modules lasting for several months. It may include project work, examination courses, citizenship, drama, chemistry or mathematical research. CLIL is a flexible and dynamic realm, where topics and subjects in modern languages and non-language disciplines are all integrated in order to contribute to value-added educational outcomes intended for the largest possible range of learners.

However, we need to take into account the fact that the fundamental value is closely connected with the quality of learning experiences. The efficiency of CLIL is dependent on a

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[1] For more details, visit www.euroclic.net.

series of contextual and situational variables; therefore, it is essential for CLIL pedagogies to be correctly understood. Among the first steps we need to take is to identify the underlying principles and effective classroom practices, which are conducive to the establishment of a reference framework for quality assurance in various contexts.

CLIL *per se* presents no guarantee for successful teaching and learning. According to Kees de Bot (2002), teaching a subject through the means of a foreign language does not mean the same thing as a blending of language and content. He further emphasises that language teachers and discipline teachers need to cooperate if they want to articulate together "the new didactics needed for a real integration of form and function in language teaching" (pp. 31-32).

The CLIL teaching / learning approach spread quite rapidly, especially in European countries. According to the Eurydice Report on European developments for CLIL[2], this methodological approach aiming to foster integration of language learning with other parts of curricular content remains a fast growing phenomenon in Europe. Therefore, being fully aware of this challenging reality, policy makers at national level "are taking a greater interest in CLIL and offering a wide variety of initiatives consistent with the different circumstances facing them" (Eurydice 2006, p. 55).

3.5.1.1 CLIL components

Coyle (2002) advanced four main elements that need to be paid heed to by all those who want to effectively implement CLIL programmes at all educational levels:

- the subject matter (focus on *content*);
- the language repertoire of and for learning (focus on *communication* processes);
- the thinking as an integral part of high quality learning (focus on *cognition* processes);
- the global citizenship agenda (focus on *culture*).

The above framework underscores that the success of CLIL is dependent on effective combination of several factors, such as:

[2] For more details on EURYDICE, one can visit http://www.eurydice.org.

progression in knowledge and skills coupled by an understanding of the specialist content; engagement in related cognitive processes, interaction in the communicative situations and contexts, development of adequate language knowledge, skills and attitudes, as well as acquisition of an expanding intercultural awareness achieved through the positioning of the 'self' versus 'the other'.

Coyle further on endorses six principles on which CLIL has to focus:

1. Content matter does not only mean acquiring knowledge and skills, but it is also about the learners building their own knowledge and comprehension scope as well as developing competences (*personalised learning*);
2. Content is connected with learning and thinking (*cognition* processes). To empower the learners to build their own understanding of content, this must be questioned for its linguistic constraints;
3. Thinking processes (*cognition*) require an analysis of their linguistic specifications;
4. Language has to be learnt in a way that is necessarily connected with the learning context, learning through the medium of that foreign language, recreating the content and its correlated cognitive processes. This language has to be accessible and transparent;
5. Communication and interaction in the learning context is vital to learning, with overarching implications especially when the learning context functions through a modern language.
6. The interrelationships between cultures and languages represent a complex reality. Intercultural awareness is crucial to CLIL, and therefore its justified place is at its core.

3.5.1.2 Plurilingual and pluricultural competence

I would like now in the following to expound on the relevance that CLIL bears to the development of multi-/plurilingual and multi-/pluricultural competence. The latter concept pertains to the capacity to use foreign languages for communication purposes as well as to participate in intercultural exchanges, where an individual, seen as a social agent, possesses proficiency, of heterogeneous degrees, in several foreign languages and relative experience of various cultures. This aspect is not regarded as the mere superposition or juxtaposition of diverse competences, but rather as an interplay of a complex, composite macro-competence which the user may successfully exploit. (EC 2001, p. 168)

The most significant consequence of this new line of thought is that the purpose of language education is utterly reformed. It is no longer regarded as simply as achieving 'mastery' of one, two, or three languages, each compartmentalised and in isolation, having the 'ideal native speaker' as its ultimate archetype. Alternatively, the desideratum is now to develop a linguistic repertoire, in which all language skills have their own place and role to perform. Therefore it is crucial that some main objectives in terms of language education should be pursued:

- The variety of languages on offer provided by educational institutions should be enlarged and students be given the opportunity to achieve plurilingual competence.
- As soon as one acknowledges that learning a foreign language is a lifelong pursuit, the growth of a young individual's motivation, skills and self-confidence in embracing new language experiences out of the school setting comes to be of critical significance.
- The responsibilities of educational bodies, qualifying examining authorities and teaching professionals will go beyond the achievement of a certain level of proficiency in a given language at a given moment.

Further on, it may be underscored that multi-/plurilingual and pluricultural competences sustain an increase in linguistic and communication awareness; moreover, they contribute to the development of metacognitive strategies which in turn will enable the social agents to become more mindful of and to get hold of their own 'spontaneous' methods of handling tasks and in particular, their linguistic scope. Additionally, these experiences of plurilingualism and pluriculturalism:

- draw on pre-existing *sociolinguistic and pragmalinguistic competences* and will further develop them;
- contribute to a better insight into what is more general and what is more specific when it comes to the linguistic structuring of different languages (a kind of metalinguistic, interlinguistic or a 'hyperlinguistic' awareness);

- through their nature they hone knowledge of how to learn as well as the ability to enter into relationships with other individuals and new situations.

Therefore, up to some degree they may accelerate subsequent learning in terms of linguistic and cultural competence. This will happen even if plurilingual and pluricultural competences are ‘uneven’ and if the proficiency level in a certain language remains ‘partial’.

I could not fully show here all the hard work that the European Commission has put into the implementation of multilingualism and plurilingualism, as a result of its being fully cognizant that citizens’ language abilities will be likewise important in attaining European policy goals, particularly against a background of growing world-wide competition and facing the challenge of better using Europe’s potential for sustainable development and of more and better job opportunities. Furthermore, mindful of its own responsibilities as well as of those of other Institutions, the Commission believes that the *status quo* can and must improve; as a result recommends the Member States to take further action to promote extensive individual multilingualism and to nurture a society that shows consideration and respect to all citizens’ linguistic and cultural identities.

Currently, there exist several languages that are most commonly spoken across Europe, both as mother tongue and foreign language. The hegemony is still detained by English as a foreign language, even though there still exist some languages which were also identified as being widely used; unsurprisingly, German and French (both to the same extent), Spanish and Italian.

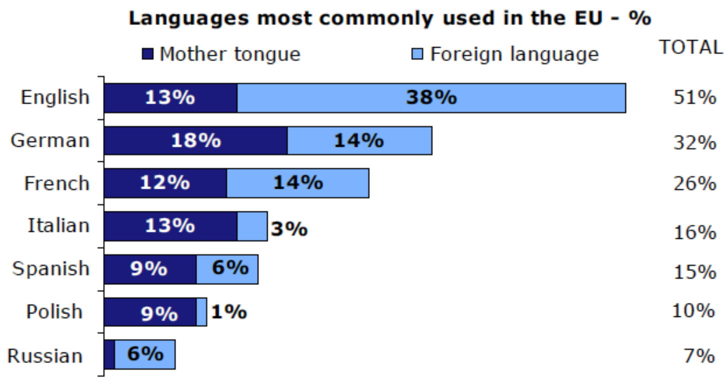

Figure 3. Languages most widely spoken in the European Union (From: Special EUROBAROMETER 243 "Europeans and their languages". Summary)

3.5.1.3 Key competencies of CLIL teachers

In this subchapter I would like to try and present some of the key competencies which in my opinion a successful CLIL teacher should develop.

- Classroom management skills (ability to convey clear instructions, give relevant examples and explanations in the English language, ensure balanced and effective class participation; achieve successful teacher-student communication, implement appropriate organisation, pacing and sequencing of class activities and tasks, etc.);
- Teaching strategies, methods and techniques (openness to a communicative approach, learner-centeredness and self-learning; encouraging learner motivation, fostering self-learning self-reflection and self-assessment);
- Awareness of cognitive aspects entailed by CLIL (through integration of linguistic meaning with specialist content);
- Teamwork skills and networking capabilities (ability to cooperate with fellow professionals from specialist content subjects);
- Appropriate use of classroom language (teacher instructions – correct use of class management metalanguage and specialist [content-based] knowledge presentation);

- Skilful use of teaching materials (with a double concentration: on content and language).

According to Marsh et al. (2001, pp. 78–80), an ideal portrait of the CLIL teachers should include the following:

a) LANGUAGE knowledge / COMMUNICATION skills

- sufficient target language knowledge as well as pragmatic skills to make CLIL work,
- adequate knowledge of the foreign language used in class.

b) THEORY (theoretical background)

- comprehension of the similarities and differences between concepts of language learning/teaching and those of language acquisition.

c) METHODOLOGY (teaching methods)

- ability to recognise linguistic pitfalls,
- ability to resort to communication and interaction methods which will facilitate better understanding of meaning,
- capacity to use strategies (such as repetition, echoing, etc.) for (self-)correction and modelling appropriate language usage,
- capacity to organise dual-focussed activities that simultaneously address language and subject features.

d) THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

- capacity to teach learners from various linguistic or cultural backgrounds.

e) MATERIALS EVALUATION and DEVELOPMENT

- capacity to adapt and exploit existing teaching materials,
- ability to choose complementary materials on a certain topic.

f) ASSESSMENT

- capacity to design and implement evaluation and assessment methods, tools and strategies.

In a CLIL lesson, language represents both a learning and a communication tool; moreover, it is also the subject matter which triggers the language needed to be learnt. As regards the four language skills in the CLIL lesson, the approach is the following:

- **Listening** is a typical input activity, essential for language learning;

- **Reading**, which should use meaningful and authentic material, is the chief source of input;
- **Speaking** underscores fluency, while accuracy is seen as secondary;
- **Writing** consists of a series of lexical tasks through which grammar knowledge is recycled.

Among the characteristics of a CLIL lesson, mention should be made of the following:

- Language skills are integrated, both receptive and productive;
- Lessons are often centred on reading or listening authentic texts;
- The language focus of a lesson is not on structural grading of content;
- Language is functional and imposed by the context / situation of the subject matter;
- Language is tackled lexically rather than grammatically;
- Learners' styles are paid heed to in different task types.

A CLIL lesson equally focuses on content and language, and usually follows a four-stage pattern:

- Processing the text;
- Identifying and organising knowledge;
- Classifying language;
- Setting tasks for students.

Let us turn our attention now to each stage. The first one, processing the text would encompass the following ideas:

- The most appropriate texts are those complemented by illustrations, for the learners to actually visualise and contextualise what they are reading.
- Working in a foreign language involves the use of structural markers in input texts to help learners understand the content.
- Such markers can be linguistic (e.g. headings, sub-headings, bullets) and/or diagrammatic.
- As soon as the 'core knowledge' has been established, the text organisation can be examined.

The second stage would include the following guiding principles:

- Texts are usually represented diagrammatically.

- Such structures are acknowledged as 'ideational frameworks', 'diagrams of thinking', or mindmaps, which are used to support learners to cognitively classify the information and ideas in an input text.
- Diagram types consist of tree diagrams for classification, hierarchies, groups, timelines for sequenced thinking as for example instructions and historical information, flow diagrams and tabular diagrams which describe people and places, and/or a combination of these.
- The text structure is used to assist learning and the design of activities focusing on both language development and on core content knowledge.

Third, language identification would entail the following:

- Learners are eventually expected to reproduce the essence of the text using their own words.
- As learners will have to use both simple as well as more complex language, there will be no grading of language; however the teacher could underscore useful language found in the text and to classify it according to the function performed.
- Learners might need the functional language of comparison and contrast, of giving location and instructions, or describing a process, but the same time they may also need specific discourse markers, adverbial or prepositional phrases to achieve coherence and cohesion.
- Collocations, semi-fixed expressions or set phrases could also be considered of importance, as well as subject-specific, academic lexis.

Fourth, tasks for students should pay attention to the following aspects:

- A selection of tasks needs to be provided, taking into consideration the learning purpose as well as styles and preferences of the learner.
- Receptive skills tasks are of the ‘read or listen and do’ type.
- A selection of listening activities could include the following:
    - Listen to the recording and label a diagram/ graph/ picture/ chart/ map;

    - Listen to the recording and fill in the table;
    - Listen to the recording and take notes on specific information (such as dates, prices, times, etc.)
    - Listen and reorder the information provided;
    - Listen and identify speakers or settings;
    - Listen and label the phases of a process, the instructions or text sequences;
    - Listen to the recording and fill in the gaps in a given text;
- Tasks aimed at production have to be subject-oriented, with the aim of recycling both content and language.
- Since content is at stake, more language support may be required.
- Usual speaking activities may include:
    - Question loops – matching questions with answers, words and their definitions, sentence halves, etc.
    - Information gap activities that may have a question sheet for additional support;
    - Trivia search – e.g. 'things you already know' and 'things you'd like to know';
    - Word guessing games or miming;
    - Class surveys using self-designed questionnaires;
    - Students may take turns to present information included in a visual using a handout for language support.

3.5.2 English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

In the present chapter I will turn my attention to the field of EAP, as an important sub-domain of ESP, by which I mean English for study or research purposes (Flowerdew & Peacock 2001; Jordan 1997). It may encompass areas of academic communicative practice, such as:
- pre-tertiary, undergraduate and post-graduate teaching;
- classroom interactions (from teacher feedback to tutorials and seminar discussions);
- research genres (from journal articles to conference papers and grant proposals);

- student writing (from essays to exam papers and graduate theses);
- administrative practice (from course documents to PhD oral defences).

Beyond these general aspects, as Dudley-Evans pointed out (2001), the domain of English for Academic Purposes often tends to be viewed in practical terms, and addressed according to the local contexts and the needs of different students in different settings. Another aspect that is worth mentioning is the fact that besides needs analysis, syllabus design, materials development and classroom methodology (areas that are common to ESP in general), the development of EAP is being governed by the advancing state of international research. Modern university poses communicative challenges far beyond the mere linguistic error control and remedial or acquisition of appropriate style. The complexity of publishing standards, to give one example only (se for example the standards imposed by the journals indexed in Thomson Scientific Database / Thomson Reuters (ISI) Web of Knowledge) has changed completely the role and status of EAP. Therefore, there is growing awareness, among students as well, as to the importance of successfully dealing with the demands of knowledge, which entails writing and reading unfamiliar genres and participating in academic speech events.

EAP therefore will try to address language use in the academia at all age levels and proficiency standard as well as for each academic rank requirements, It will resort to a range of interdisciplinary approaches for its research methods, working theories and hands-on practices, in order to improve students' abilities to cope with the structures and meanings of spoken, written, visual and electronic academic texts, to perform successfully in diverse communicative academic contexts, and last but not least, to provide teachers with pedagogic practices through which students' linguistic knowledge and behaviours can be developed.

The nature of modern EAP has shifted therefore from its place at the crossroads between applied linguistics and education towards a more research-oriented perspective. Among the factors that EAP has to take into consideration at present, the following should be mentioned:

- as students enter tertiary education, they have to assume new roles and address the challenges of knowledge in a different way;
- different ways of constructing knowledge and engaging in teaching and learning are reflected in different communication practices across academic disciplines;
- these practices may either favour or disfavour different groups dues to agents of power and authority, which may render the processes of learning and teaching more difficult;
- the spread of English as a *lingua franca* in academic communication has led to the loss of scholarly writing in many national cultures (e.g. the Romanian Council for Academic Research - CNCS will give higher ranking to journals published completely in English)

A controversial aspect of EAP, similar to that of business English, which will be discussed later on, refers to the debate among educationalists whether it should be general or specific, i.e. could we coin a term such as English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) or English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)? Some researchers do not agree that tertiary instruction in English should be governed by the specific requirements of academic content courses (Raimes 1991; Spack 1988; Zamel 1995). In other words, they consider, for example, that ESL writing courses should empower students to become better writers regardless of what personal, academic, professional, or communication situation they might come across. These researchers therefore support general rather than specific English language teaching. Moreover, they are against EAP's fous on academic genres taken as models of writing, considering that literary texts together with a variety of non-academic articles or other documents can be used as better models for students-writers. These authors believe that ESL composition can be labelled as a liberal arts course, a part of students' training in the humanistic disciplines, mere preparation for an uncertain future (see, for example Raimes 1991, p. 243). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 41) are also in favour of this approach and they consider the following activities as appropriate for an EGAP course:

- listening to lectures;
- taking part in supervisions, seminars and tutorials;

- reading textbooks, articles and other academic materials;
- writing essays, examination answers, dissertations and reports.

According to this line of thought, questioning, note taking, summary writing, giving prepared presentations, etc. may be considered as activities that represent generic academic practices.

Zamel (1993, 1995) is another scholar who supports general academic writing skills in favour of specific genres. Her research has helped her draw some conclusions with reference to teaching ESL:

- students will come across a range of unexpected, unpredictable assignments in their future language courses;
- how they interpret those assignments will be idiosyncratic and unique; so that
- their academic coursework will be "generally unimaginative and formulaic" (Zamel 1993, p. 34), and the subject matter will be rendered in an "authoritarian" style, stopping students "from engaging with material and work they are assigned" (Zamel 1993, p. 34).

Starting from the above premises, Zamel (1993) considers EAP as being founded on unreliable and worthless models of ESL writing instruction. Due to these assumptions, Zamel (1993) finds EAP to be based on unreliable and unworthy models of ESL writing instruction. She therefore puts forward an alternative, i.e. teach all the features common to all discourses, which will "transcend all boundaries," in particular those "features that characterise all 'good writing'" instead of the "presumable differences" (p. 35). Further on, the author provides some examples of 'good writing', which she took from different student assignments, during which she elicited "students' reactions, their analyses and interpretations, their attempts to use new concepts and language", and at the same time she encouraged them "to make connections between this work and their own experiences and assumptions". In conclusion, she considered that this experiment produced rich, convincing, and memorable pieces which reflected the topics and questions students were struggling with, their genuine engagement with the material provided. Their use of the material helped them think about the world surrounding them, meditate about the ways in which this material and their world collide, and think about their own thinking (Zamel 1993, p. 37).

At the other end we will find the view according to which, although some generalisation may be made, the differences between these skills and conventions across distinct disciplines may be greater than the similarities. English for Specific Academic Purposes refers to the teaching of skills and language which are related to the demands of a particular discipline or department. Therefore, the issue of specificity dares EAP teachers to take a stand on how they understand language and learning and to examine their courses taking into consideration this stance. It makes us reflect whether there are skills and language features that are transferable across different disciplines or whether we should focus on the texts, language skills and communicative structures needed by learners in distinct disciplines.

In favour of this stance several arguments may be brought:

1. English teachers cannot rely on subject specialists to teach disciplinary literacy skills as they generally have neither the expertise nor the desire to do so. It very rarely happens that subject teachers have a clear understanding of the role that language plays in their discipline or the time to develop this understanding in their students. For example, Lea and Street (1998) considered that subject lecturers regarded academic writing conventions as largely self-evident and universal, and did not usually even express clearly their expectations when setting assignments.

2. Research has proved that weaker students can acquire features of the language as they need them, and not according to some externally imposed sequence prescribed by the teacher, in the order s/he presents them. Therefore, although students may need to learn more sentence-level structures of the foreign/second language at lower proficiency, specific language features may be introduced at any language proficiency level.

3. Teachers of EAP will not only teach isolated words, structures, lexical chunks, etc., but will also deal with the uses of language that engender distinct disciplinary values, resulting from their frequency of usage and relevance to the groups that use them. It is only a knowledge of actual communicative practices and behaviours specific to various disciplines that will raise awareness as to transferable, interdisciplinary connections.

4. Teaching specialist discourses will not confer EAP a lower status. From the perspective of the existence of a core set of transferable academic skills, academic literacy can be taught to students as a series of discrete, value-free rules and technical skills usable in any situation and taught by relatively unskilled staff in special units isolated from the teaching of cross-disciplinary competences. Along this line of thought, EAP can rectify this deficit during a few English classes. On the contrary, ESAP pays heed to the real difficulties of acquiring specific, specialist literacies of different academic fields, and will try to help students acquire the specialised professional competences needed to perform successfully in their field of expertise.

5. According to Bhatia (2002, p. 27), in their interaction with various disciplines, students have to develop communication abilities which "may not be an extension of general literacy to handle academic discourse, but a range of literacies to handle disciplinary variation in academic discourse". Therefore, it is rather difficult, if not impossible, to define what is core to different contexts of language usage and appropriacy. Learning should therefore take place in the specific varieties of academic discourse.

6. Reality has proved that most of the times, EAP teachers rarely have time during their classes to focus on accuracy issues ('common core' grammar structures, for example).

The answer is most certainly somewhere in the middle. It is true that there are generalisable skills of language features of academic discourse. Students will be confronted with lectures, seminars and exams, and be expected to make notes, give presentations and write assignments. As far as language is concerned, the fact that we are able to talk about 'academic discourse' at all means that the disciplines share prominent features as a register distinct from those we are familiar with in the home or workplace. The characteristics of academic discourse are obvious, if we are to think only of the academic register and its high degree of formality (achieved through the use of specialist vocabulary, impersonal voice, conciseness, etc.).

3.5.3 ESP and Corpus Linguistics

According to Sinclair (2005, p.16) a corpus represents "a collection of pieces of language text in electronic form, selected according to external criteria to represent, as far as possible, a language or language variety as a source of data for linguistic research".

Nevertheless, sometimes, the concept of corpus can be used much less specifically, e.g. collections of texts or text items can be labelled as corpora, without being in electronic format (Thompson 2006), or a group of studies on spoken professional discourse can be referred to as corpus-based (Handford 2010, p. 262), although they do not exactly belong to corpus studies, because there is no full transcription of data. Among criteria for defining corpora, mention should be made of:

a) length and variety, in order to ensure validity and representativeness;

b) appropriate annotation, e.g. POS (part of speech), or contextual information, to provide large-scale analysis of lexical, morpho-syntactical and, if possible, semantic.

Examples of widely used and reliable corpora are the British National Corpus (BNC), which is fully annotated and documented, a 100 million word collection of written and spoken language samples taken from a large variety of sources, meant to exemplify a large cross-section of British English language belonging to the second part of the 20th century, from both spoken and written registers.

On the other hand, there are smaller corpora, created for research or pedagogical purposes, by dedicated teachers, who, however, have limited time resources (Krishnamurthy & Kosem 2007). However, they can also be representative for a certain language variety, as if we deal with narrow corpus domains, then we do not need many texts to make the corpus representative. In general, ESP corpora are only minimally annotated, however simple concordancing software can help the specialist adequately identify useful information contained in a corpus made up of plain text files.

Corpus analysis techniques give researchers an opportunity to recognise patterns in a large body of representative language use.

Guidelines as to how to design and compile a Language for Specific Purposes (an LSP corpus) were provided by Bowker and Pearson (2002, p. 454), according to whom more information can be obtained from a small but well compiled corpus than from a large corpus which was not built so as to meet the investigation needs. Baker (2006, p. 25) supports this idea of creating one's own corpora in order to carry out effective analysis.

The whole process of identifying and selecting texts, procuring copyright permissions, converting texts to electronic format (usually OCR-ing print text into editable format), checking and annotating files will help the researcher get better insights into the data and its idiosyncrasies. It can also help the researcher establish initial hypotheses which are in fact the starting point of corpus research, while they are actually identifying recurring patterns and structures in the corpus.

Researchers in general lament the scarcity of ESP corpora, and the fact that even when they do exist, they are not publicly available, as they were created in-house and therefore usually not made available. Consequently, ESP researchers need to put a lot of effort into compiling their own corpora.

Luckily, however, those corpora that are public domain are extremely useful to ESP specialists, e.g. the BNC which contains, among many others, samples of spoken discourse from a wide array of events, such as trade union meetings, sales demonstrations, interviews, negotiations, etc. (Aston and Burnard 1998) as well as business letters, legal documents or newspaper articles.

Tatu and Arhire (2012, p. 253) underscore the importance of a thematic corpus for translators. According to her, terminology is easily accessible through electronic tools, such as a concordancer, and what is more, terms can be studied within all the contexts available in that corpus. Arhire (2014, p. 198) also points out that corpora can help to improve the translator trainees' language skills and cultural competences alongside their translation skills. An important role in this context is played also by learner corpora, which can give us valuable information on idiosyncratic and group characteristics of an L1 speaking community.

3.6 ESP course evaluation

Starting from the assumption that any ESP course is based on previous needs analysis of the learners, it is therefore important to ascertain whether this course has achieved its objectives or not (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998), if the methodology implemented was appropriate, if the contents were adequately chosen, alongside an indication of the participants' satisfaction. Legitimation of the processes in between needs analysis and evaluation can only occur if the latter is positive.

3.6.1 Course evaluation vs assessment

There has been a long discussion on the difference between evaluation and assessment with reference to research in and practice of curriculum / syllabus / course design. These two terms have been often used interchangeably, although there are some differences that can be outlined. According to Popham (1975, p. 8), evaluation represents "a formal assessment of the 'worth' of educational phenomena", which makes one think of a preponderance of quantitative measurements, e.g. tests (Lynch, 2003, p. 5), which only gives us partial information on course achievement, in relation to quantitative descriptions of behaviours, products or events (Streiff 1970, p. 365). On the other hand, evaluation is more comprehensive, it may encompass testing, but this is not a compulsory element (Bachman 1990, p. 24).

Often, in language education literature, we come across the understanding of assessment as both learners' language achievement and test results, or pertaining to the processes involved in establishing learners' proficiency (Lynch 2003; Nunan 1990). Nevertheless, what tests can tell us refers to students' achievement, and not so much to the programme itself, to the syllabus or teaching methodology. Evaluation can be taken to encompass assessment, in the sense that it may focus on "collecting evidence on and making judgments about a curriculum as a whole, including planning, designing and implementing it" (White et al. 1991, p. 176).

It is evaluation that can help us make decisions regarding whether we need to change a course / a programme in any way as to achieve objectives more effectively, and to establish the reasons why some of the learners are not attaining the goals and objectives of a particular course (Nunan 1988, p. 118). Therefore, course evaluation is not only concerned with the effectiveness of a course (how much students have improved their language proficiency) or with its 'worth', it also analyses the extent to which content tallied with objectives and how appropriate the learning and teaching methodology was (Fink 1995; Worthen and Sanders, 1973). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 129) also refer to evaluation as a means of identifying weaknesses or inappropriate features of the course that did not consider the learners' particular learning needs and situation. Thus, embedding course evaluation into its very development can successfully contribute to establishing the course limitations or problem areas.

Evaluation can be both quantitative and qualitative, and therefore we would need a broader definition to include all its characteristics. According to Brown (1995, p. 218), course evaluation represents a systematic selection and analysis of all necessary information for improving a curriculum and assessing its effectiveness as part of the educational context of the institution offering that curriculum. Unfortunately, this definition makes no reference to the evaluation specialists and the curriculum stakeholders. A more comprehensive definition of course evaluation should pay heed to the following aspects:

a) categories of information needed;
b) strategic techniques for data collection and analysis;
c) prospective aims of evaluation;
d) evaluation context factors;
e) evaluation specialists and beneficiaries.

This two-sided character of course evaluation, i.e. students' achievement of language proficiency and appropriateness of content and methodology entail both a product-oriented evaluation (based on collecting quantitative and qualitative data) and a process-oriented evaluation (which can focus on either quantitative or qualitative data collection). An ESP course is, after all, about fulfilling professionally engaged adult learners' language needs.

3.6.2 Approaches to ESP course evaluation

There exist several approaches to language course evaluation, all based on the main movements in mainstream educational theories. They are all presented as two opposing sides of the same process, therefore the following dichotomies are to be mentioned:

a) *experimental* vs *naturalistic* paradigms favour on the one hand the product-orientedness and quantitative side of evaluation, whereas the other underscores process-orientedness and qualitative methods. However, specialists have begun to understand that these approaches should be seen as complementary rather than antagonistic as they could both, in conjunction, contribute to the improvement of curricular reforms (Brown 1989, p. 226).

b) *formative* vs *summative* approaches focus on identifying problematic issues and finding ways to improve and develop the on-going ESP implementation, on the one hand (Richards 2001, p. 288), and on establishing the effectiveness of a language programme its efficiency and community acceptance (after the course has been implemented). Both forms of evaluation can be either quantitative based on numerical measurements of questionnaires or language tests) or qualitative based on subjective interpretation of interviews and current observation (Jordan 1997; Dudley-Evans & St John 1998; Richards 2001). Although there are proponents of either one or the other approaches, in reality, they should go hand-in-hand, and even formative assessment would be best conceived as a summative report (Scriven 1997). As in the case of the previous type of evaluation a reconciliation of the two opposites is the best approach, which will generate both qualitative and quantitative data, both during the process and providing an appraisal of the final product.

c) *intrinsic* vs *extrinsic* follow the same dichotomic pattern, focusing on either inward motivation for the course appraisal (carried out by the very course takers) and of a participatory, developmental nature) or dictated by outward motivation, imposed by outsiders (the organising institution, sponsors, quality assurance agencies, etc.), usually for accountability and accreditation purposes (Mackay, 1994; Weir & Roberts, 1994).

d) *holistic* vs *analytic* evaluation dichotomy aims at, on the one hand, an investigation of the language course in its entirety, viewing all the course components in their interactions, trying to capture the whole picture, and on the other hand, evaluation can be done discretely, focusing on individual areas of the course.

3.6.3 A framework for ESP course evaluation

In summary, this chapter has looked at how we can ascertain the effectiveness, efficiency, usefulness and accountability of an ESP programme. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 153), the general aim of an ESP course is to satisfy two essential requirements of the course takers: their perceived needs as language learners and their objective needs as language users. In other words, it is important to understand if the course has met their cognitive needs and their performative, behavioural needs, if they are able to do what they need with what they have learned during the course.

In terms of course evaluation, we operate at several levels, as previously described above. We do assess the language achievement level of the course takers, but at the same time, we need to evaluate all the curricular components, i.e. needs analysis, course objectives, content, methods, materials, as well as tests and other assessment methods.

Evaluation indeed should aim at improving both learning and teaching processes, by constant supervision of ongoing development as well as final products, with a constant preoccupation for learners' actual needs, while at the same time trying to raise their awareness not only to their needs, which they already may have, but to their learning styles and methods, in order to empower them to take hold of their subsequent learning. The ultimate is aim is to achieve life-long learning, to create knowledge-based societies, with individuals capable of taking hold of their professional development, fully equipped with both professional and transversal competences.

The diagram below summarises the overarching action of course evaluation, spanning across all curricular stages and processes:

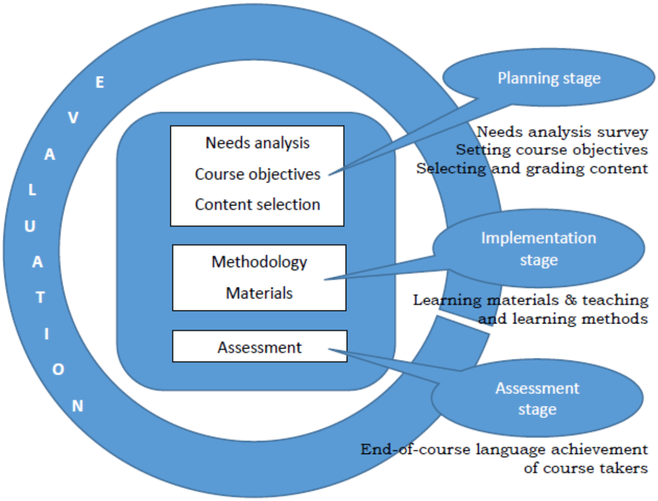

Figure 4. A framework for ESP course evaluation

3.7 General English vs Business English

Despite a plethora of teaching materials for business English, focusing on skills and communicative competence, but also on vocabulary and grammar, we cannot really speak of truly systematic research in the field, until a couple of years ago, when specialists started to understand that it is necessary to cooperate towards "a fusion agenda for Business English teaching and research" (Bargiela-Chappini & Zhang 2013, p. 208), especially for interdisciplinary, multimodal research (applied linguists, discourse analysts, anthropological linguists).

Business English (BE) is, however, the most complex area of ESP, itself comprising a general business English component pertaining to the general audience and a specialised business English one, which is peculiar to specific business sub-fields, such as the insurance, the stock-exchange or the accounting sub-domains. However, there are certain characteristics of the business language that makes it different form General English (GE). In the following I will present the main features of business English (Popescu 2007a, 2011a):

1. a certain **fixedness of lexical associations**, i.e. less free lexical combinations:

e.g. to have a *vested interest* in V-ing (= a strong personal interest in something because you could benefit from it); syn. dominant interest, equitable interest, etc., which might mean almost the same thing, but with less semantic load and frequency of occurrence/usage.

current liabilities (= a balance sheet item which equals the sum of all money owed by a company and due within one year); syn. current debts, although less frequent used.

hedge funds (= funds, usually used by wealthy individuals and institutions, which are allowed to use aggressive strategies that are unavailable to mutual funds, including selling short, leverage, program trading, swaps, arbitrage, and derivatives).

Net Interest Margin (NIM) (= the percentage difference between a bank's yield on earning assets [mostly loans] and interest paid to depositors).

asset-stripping (= the practice of buying an unsuccessful company at a low price and selling off its assets separately for a profit and with no regard for the future welfare of the company or its employees).

2. a certain degree of **courtesy** and **formality** which are to be found in the documents and frameworks of conventionalised, standardised transactions.

e.g. *Dear Sir, / Yours faithfully,*
Dear Mr. Jones / Yours sincerely,

…

I am pleased to inform you that you have been accepted for the above post …

…

Enclosed are two copies of the contract of employment.

…

I am writing to complain about a shipment … we received yesterday against our invoice no. G 2932/3 …

…

As we will be unable to retail this consignment in our stores, we are returning the shipment to you carriage forward and we shall expect a full refund.

3. sociolinguistic and pragmatic orientation, by which I understand that the language used by business people showcases sensitivity to subject matter, circumstances, shared knowledge and social interrelations established between companies and communicators. There exists a certain business-related, in-group context that the participants to a given professional situation, business transaction or negotiation share, based on their previous experience and business world knowledge.

e.g.

CHAIRMAN DOUGLAS: Good morning. Welcome to the California Energy Commission Business Meeting of January 12, 2011.
Please join me in the Pledge.
(Whereupon, the Pledge of Allegiance was received in unison.)
CHAIRMAN DOUGLAS: Commissioners, staff, everybody, welcome back for our first Business Meeting of 2011. I will start with the Consent Calendar, Item 1.
VICE CHAIR BOYD: Move consent.
COMMISSIONER BOYD: Second.
CHAIRMAN DOUGLAS: All in favour?
(Ayes.)
That item is approved. I forgot to say that Item 4 will be moved to the next Business Meeting, so Item 4 is not going to be discussed today.
COMMISSIONER BYRON: I'm crushed.
VICE CHAIR BOYD: Just because you won the Orange Bowl, don't think you get everything.
CHAIRMAN DOUGLAS: Thank you! Item 2 –
COMMISSIONER BYRON: Madam Chair, that comment, for the people here, Item 4, as I was reviewing it, I think, is the only time I can remember that we have approved a PIER research contract in my tenure here with Stanford University, so that is why my comment is that I'm crushed.
CHAIRMAN DOUGLAS: I understand that, you and I as the Stanford grads, me from the Law School, you know, have enthusiastically –
VICE CHAIR BOYD: I'm out-gunned today. Well, no, I've got Jonathan here.
CHAIRMAN DOUGLAS: - we have enthusiastically supported many great proposals from the Cal system and, as Commissioner Byron says, this is the first one that I remember seeing as a PIER grant from Stanford. But, in any case, we will have the opportunity to take that up at a future date.
Item 2. Calgrem Renewable Fuels, LLC. Possible approval of Agreement ARV-10-032 for a zero-cost Participant Agreement with Calgrem Renewable

Fuels, LLC to establish the programme requirements for participation in the California Ethanol Producer 20 Incentive Program (CEPIP). Mr. Rillera.

MR. RILLERA: Good morning, Chairman and Commissioners. My name is Larry Rillera, I am with the Division of Fuels and Transportation. In 2009 the Commission approved the first AB 128 Investment Plan that identified development of Ethanol Producer facilities in the state. […]

CHAIRMAN DOUGLAS: Thank you, Mr. Rillera. We have a member of the public who would like to speak on this item, Allen – and I'm struggling with your last name – maybe Breese, with Calgrem. If you could come forward?

MR. BREESE: Thank you. I just want to thank the Commission for their consideration of the Ethanol production in the Calgrem plant.

(The California Energy Commission 2011, http://www.energy.ca.gov/business_meetings/2011_transcripts)

The excerpt above (Popescu 2011a) is taken from a transcript of a business meeting of the California Energy Commission, held on 12.01.2011. This text is relevant for the roles that the participants have to assume and how the code of politeness is respected. The meeting starts in accordance with formal business meetings conventions. It is interesting to note how some offhand comments are dealt with. In line 14, COMMISSIONER BYRON says "I'm crushed." Ironically, VICE CHAIR BOYD retorts (lines 15-16): "Just because you won the Orange Bowl, don't think you get everything." To this, COMMISSIONER BYRON feels compelled to address Karen Douglas in order to explain his comment (lines 18-21): "Madam Chair, that comment, for the people here, Item 4, as I was reviewing it, I think, is the only time I can remember that we approved a PIER research contract in my tenure here with Stanford University, so that is why my comment is that I'm crushed." The second comment is practically not taken into consideration at all. VICE CHAIR BOYD says in lines 24-25: "I'm out-gunned today. Well, no, I've got Jonathan here." Chairman Douglas continues unperturbed, her idea: "I understand that, we […] *have enthusiastically* –"
VICE CHAIR BOYD: I'm out-gunned today. Well, no, I've got Jonathan here.
CHAIRMAN DOUGLAS: – *we have enthusiastically* supported many great proposals […]"

4. metaphoric load: the language used in business materials may be characterised by what we could call metaphoric load, i.e. the business domain borrows words, phrases, idioms from the general usage and applies them to the specific contexts of the corporate setting: *abort a product, rat race, think outside the box, throw it at the wall and see if it sticks, climb the ladder*, *push the envelope, cash cow, golden parachute*, etc. In the following table there is a selection of business English metaphors in comparison with their General English, connotative use (verbs, nouns and adjectives) (Popescu 2011a).

Table 6. Metaphoric Business English usage
vs General English connotative use

Business English	General English
The union of television and the internet *is spawning* a wide variety of *offspring.* (www.economist.com)	Surveys also provide valuable information about where fish have been seen and what species are *spawning* in the stream. (www.hylebos.org) Natural selection therefore favours parents which can produce a variety of *offspring*. (http://en.wikipedia.org)
… one that threatened to *devastate* the television industry. (www.economist.com)	The fire *devastated* the countryside.
Joost, YouTube, iTunes or Netflix do not need their own networks to supply their video services; they can *piggyback* on fast internet links provided by others.	Give me a *piggyback*, Daddy!
The yen carry trade has amplified global liquidity, further *inflating* asset-price bubbles across the world.	You can *inflate* a balloon, with either air or helium.
…the Japanese government announced a plan to recapitalize its *crippled* banks. (www.economist.com)	He was *crippled* by polio as a child.
On the contrary, a failing economy could spur Putin into	Ailing Pinochet too sick to stand trial, court rules. (www.telegraph.co.uk)

acts of nationalist defiance. (www.economist.com)	
MOVEMENT / Describing trends:	
Verbs (I): The yen *jumped* by 13% within three days. (www.economist.com)	The children were *jumping* up and down with excitement.
…causing the currency to *soar*…	While he was out one of these eagles *soared* high over the village,… (www.mnh.si.edu/)
V (T): The Europeans would like some action to *push up* the currency, which, they say, is not bearing the fair share of the dollar's decline. (www.economist.com)	She *pushed up* her children when the policeman came by.
Nouns: But the lower the yen slides, the greater the threat of an even sharper *rebound*. (www.economist.com)	Giggs headed the *rebound* into the net.
… but an *upsurge* in currency *volatility* … (www.economist.com)	… an *upsurge* of emotion that created a state of calm and self-understanding… (http://hemi.nyu.edu/)

5. in close connection with the above trait, **marked idiomaticity**:

e.g.

Instead, rather than undercutting television networks and producers, Joost might …*give them new juice*. (= give vitality) (www.economist.com)

YouTube has been trying to *thrash out an agreement* with Viacom. (= discuss in order to reach an agreement) (www.economist.com)

The market *is chasing its own tail* in defiance of the economic fundamentals. (= to be very busy doing a lot of things, but achieving very little) (www.economist.com)

Japan's economy is no longer *flat on its back*. (= helpless, without recourse, defeated) (www.economist.com)

EA is now *ramping up its* development *efforts*… (= to increase the amount or size of something) (www.economist.com)

EA *hit a bumpy patch* in 2006. (combination between: ***patch*** = a period of time of the type mentioned, usually a difficult or unhappy one;

bumpy as in have / give sb a bumpy ride = to have a difficult time; to make a situation difficult for sb) (www.economist.com)

In conclusion, the earnest plea made by Bargiella-Chiappini & Zhang (2013) is to be taken into account by all of us having an interest in Business English, teachers and researchers alike:

> Let us make the most of it while it lasts and work together towards the recognition of Business English as a mature, research–led scholarly enterprise as well as a practically useful academic subject and degree programme (Bargiella-Chiappini & Zhang 2013, p. 208).

3.8 Business English materials design

Selection, adaptation and production of materials to be used in a business English programme are essential issues in the process of curricular development. As it has been previously stated, curriculum development include needs analysis, setting objectives, development of syllabus, selection, adaptation, production of materials (resources), methodology and evaluation.

As soon as the needs analysis and course design processes are fulfilled, we can then focus on the next stage, i.e. the implementation part. The options at hand are the following: either to resort to ready-made materials, such as different textbooks by different authors, British or Romanian, or to modify existent materials and to adapt them to the specific learning situations, and why not, to compile one's own teaching materials. Most of the times, nevertheless, the solution is a combination of the above, that is achieving some sort of complementarity between selection and production, adaptation in itself being a mixture of the previous two. As a matter of fact, writing materials may prove a very rewarding experience, if disheartening. Materials writers can understand better the shortcomings of other materials by looking at them critically and at the same time trying to learn something from them. It is important for teachers to be able to evaluate adeptly and correctly the materials they use and thus devise the most appropriate methods to improve them and to put them to their best use.

In the light of communicative teaching/learning, curriculum developers have focused heavily on the learner, striving to promote a learner-centred curriculum, in which there exists a complex relation between planning, teaching and learning. In other words, all the processes involved are aimed at developing, at the same time, language skills and learning skills. We no longer want to give the learners / business professionals a set of well-defined grammatical norms, but to empower them to get hold of their own learning processes outside school, that is, to become autonomous learners, completely aware of their learning styles and capabilities, and able to use their previously acquired knowledge in different real-life situations.

If we take a look at the principles of materials quality criteria, currently in use by BELMA[3] (Best European Learning Materials Awards) we can find eight principles, each of them subdivided into subprinciples. The first one is relevance, which refers to the degree to which materials meet the needs, objectives and purposes of the stakeholders (learners and teachers) in terms of both learner-centredness (pertaining to content, situations and skills targeted) and appropriateness (sensitivity to the learner's social, cultural, educational characteristics). The second principle is that of transparency, by which we mean clarity of aims, clarity about achievement, clarity of presentation, clarity of rationale. Third, the principle of reliability has to be met by successful materials, which refers to internal coherence, methodological integrity in the selection of activities and tasks, factual integrity of information and social norms. Fourth, the principle of attractiveness is likewise important, referring to user-friendliness, interactivity between learner and textbook, variety of activities, interactions and working rhythms, as well as sensitivity to learners' affective needs. Fifth, the principle of flexibility needs to be attained in order to allow for individualisation of learning paths and adaptability to different learning purposes. The sixth principle is that of generativeness, which refers to transferability from controlled, teacher-directed learning through guided to autonomous learning, but also to integration of previously acquired knowledge and skills, as well

[3] www.belma-award.eu.

as cognitive development of learners. Seventh, participation ensures that there is shared responsibility and decision-making, thus catering to learners' personal interests and allowing for partnership. The last principle is that of socialisation, which pertains to the development of social skills and cultural awareness, thus giving materials a social added-value.

Unless we create materials that are at the same time relevant, transparent, reliable, attractive, flexible, efficient, which generate long-term outcomes, which are involving and provide a social bonus, be that promotion, better status, access to further education, etc. we cannot really say that the aims of materials design have successfully been met. The materials have to be user-friendly, accessible and not go beyond the learners' specialist knowledge, to be conducive to interaction, to be varied and sensitive to cultural differences.

Furthermore, as far as materials evaluation is concerned, as stated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 97), the evaluation process may be divided into four essential stages:

a) Defining criteria;
b) Subjective analysis;
c) Objective analysis;
d) Matching.

In other words, the evaluation process has to be methodical and thorough and the outcome will be the matching of analysed needs and available solutions. Criteria are defined by asking oneself the following questions: 'On what bases will I judge materials? Which criteria will be more important?' The subsequent analysis is two-fold – both subjective and objective and focuses on several main criteria: audience, aims, content, and methodology. Subjective analysis takes into consideration what criteria teachers want in their course, whereas the objective analysis will tackle the question 'How does the material being evaluated realise the criteria?' The final matching stage is the one in which we try to assess to what extent materials meets our needs (both students and teachers).

Let us now turn our attention to materials design. We have all, at one stage or another been faced with this challenge: devising our own materials. It is particularly the field of English for Specific Purposes that lends itself to this process. There are a variety of reasons for this, and among the most frequent are the fact that not always we may find textbooks that suit our students' speciality or interests, or the fact that our school does not have the financial means to acquire them, when such textbooks do exist, or sometimes the futility of the existing materials, which may be totally inappropriate for the learners' needs or social and cultural background. There is a well-established tradition among ESP teachers to produce their in-house materials; and we have all at one point designed tasks and activities starting from an authentic text, or have devised grammar and vocabulary tasks or have invented communicative, situational activities.

According to the same authors, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 107), when defining the purpose of materials we have to ask ourselves the question of what the materials are supposed to do. It is only in this way that we can identify some guiding principles in the process of writing materials:

a) 'Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach: they encourage to learn'. Those materials which will meet their objectives need to include challenging and thought-provoking texts, provide enjoyable activities that encourage the learners' thinking capacities, creating opportunities for learners to utilise their previously acquired knowledge and skills, and some content that both learners and teacher can handle, that is neither too technical, nor too simple.

b) 'Materials help to organise the teaching/learning processes'. Effective materials will offer a 'clear and coherent unit structure which will guide teacher and learner through various activities in such a way as to maximise the chances of learning'. A materials model must be both clear and systematic, though flexible enough to stimulate creativity and allow for variety.

c) 'Materials embody a view of the nature of language and learning'. Therefore, the materials produced should accurately mirror what the authors think and feel about their students' learning, but also based on their previous teaching experiences.

d) 'Materials reflect the nature of the learning task'. Materials have to realise a poise between complexity and manageability of the tasks.

e) 'Materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training'. With every new set of teaching materials that we pilot with our students, we understand better the learning processes and we can improve our teaching methodology.

f) 'Materials should provide correct and appropriate models of language use'. We should always bear in mind that the teaching /learning materials we produce ultimately aim at enhancing students' better and more contextually and socially appropriate use of the language learned so far.

Further on, the authors provide us with a very useful model of materials design, consisting of four main elements: input, content focus, language focus, and task.

The input may be, according to practitioner's specific context-based learning and teaching situation, a text, dialogue, video-diagram, radio programme recording, etc. in keeping with the needs stated at the beginning. The input will offer a starting point for activities, new language items, appropriate, real-life models of language use, a subject for communication, an occasion for learners to use their information processing skills, an opportunity for them to use their previously acquired knowledge of both language and subject matter.

The choice of content has to be made so as generate meaningful communication in the classroom. The focus of the language structures chosen should be on their use, although we have to give the students the chance to analyse the language in detail, study the way it works and then to re-assemble it, thus practising it. Materials should be written so as to be conducive to successful communicative tasks in which learners can use the language knowledge and skills they have acquired throughout the learning unit.

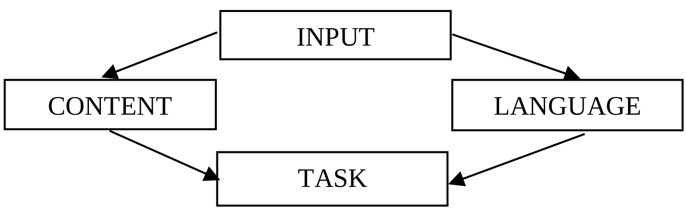

Figure 5. Materials design schema
(Hutchinson and Waters 1987, p. 109)

The central element of the whole study unit is actually represented by the task. The model itself is a vehicle that shows us the path to the point where the learners will able to carry out the task. The language and content can be extracted from the input and are therefore selected in keeping with what the students will need so as to successfully perform the task.

Another important aspect that deserves our attention at this stage is the issue of authenticity, relative to both text source as well as student activities and tasks. It is, as we have previously stated, essential to prepare the students for the target situation, therefore the materials should reflect the outside world. The materials should also increase the capacity for independent learning and the ability to reflect upon the learning processes and cognitive styles. At the same time, materials should be "suggestive, rather than definitive, acting as a model for teachers to develop their own variations". (Nunan 1988, p. 99)

Another element of ESP teaching and learning, besides authenticity is the development of study skills in our learners. As goal-oriented people, business people in particular have limited time resources, which makes them need some special learning strategies which will empower them to continue developing their language competence further, once the language class is over.

Therefore, we have to instil in our students some techniques and procedures of first encouraging them to work individually and then leaving it up to them to build on and extend the knowledge that is particularly relevant to their specialism. The focus of the teacher and educator has then to turn to the learning process and the ways to improve it. Different students have different learning styles and particularities, and it is important for them to discover these aspects, so as to be able to magage their own learning. According to Nunan, (1988), the teaching of specific language skills must go hand in hand with the development of learning skills. These aims will include:

- providing learners with efficient learning strategies;

- helping learners identify and use their own preferred ways of learning;

- developing skills necessary to negotiate the curriculum

- encouraging learners to establish their own educational objectives;

- encouraging learners to adopt realistic goals as well as time frames

- developing learners' skills in self-evaluation."

3.9 Business English and culture

An ability to anticipate and understand cultural differences, and amend your communication strategies accordingly is the key to any successful international business. Unless one is aware of the diverse cultural and linguistic environments one has to function, business deals may go adrift and valuable partners may be lost forever. One man's meat is another man's poison, in other words, what may work perfectly well in Sweden, may wreak havoc in China. As the process of globalisation is spreading at bewildering speed, business people get in contact with counterparts from other countries, and the more national borders their companies cross, the greater the potential and scope for misunderstanding and conflict.

In the business environment, several milestones for the understanding of culture have been established. In the following I will briefly speak about the most relevant ones. There are several cultural models that have been created by social anthropologists, who at the same time were appointed as consultants by various international businesses. Such models are extremely useful in the sense that they can be taught as part of business training programmes, where students can acquire cross-cultural communication skills.

One of the most influential models of cultural categories/dimensions was the one provided by the anthropological researcher Geert Hofstede (1991, 2005, 2010), pertaining to the influence of culture on business.

According to this anthropologist, there are six such dimensions (initially he spoke of only four, the fifth and the sixth being later on developed). These are: Power Distance Index (PDI), Individualism (IDV), Masculinity (MAS), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), Long Term Orientation (LTO) – added in the 2nd, revised edition (2005) and Indulgence (IND) – added in the 3rd edition (2010) of his book *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*.

1. Power Distance Index (PDI) represents the degree to which less powerful members of groups, companies, organisations or institutions (e.g. the family) agree with the fact that and even expect that power is unequally distributed. This translates as inequality (more versus less), however defined from below, and not from above. It implies that a society's degree of inequality is authorised by the followers just as much as it is by the leaders. Unquestionably, power and inequality are fundamental facets of any society and anyone with some degree of international experience will realise that 'all social groups are unequal, though some are more unequal than others'.

Thus, a high *Power Distance* level denotes that imbalances of wealth and power have been accepted to flourish within the society. Such societies are more inclined to adhere to a caste system which does not tolerate noteworthy upward mobility of its group members. Conversely, a low *Power Distance* score reveals that the society understates the discrepancies between its members' power and wealth. Such societies attach great importance to equality and opportunity for everybody.

2. Individualism (IDV), versus its opposite dimension, collectivism, refers to the degree to which individuals get integrated into groups. At the individualist end of the scale, we find societies where the connections between individuals are loose: everybody is expected to take care of him/herself and his/her nuclear family.

At the collectivist end, we see societies where people live into strong, cohesive in-groups, usually extended families (with grandparents, uncles and aunts) from birth onwards, which go on protecting them in return for unconditional loyalty. Mention should be made that term 'collectivism' in this sense bears no political meaning: it simply refers to the group, and not to the state. Like it was the case with the previous category, the issue tackled by this dimension is a truly fundamental one, pertaining to all societies around the world.

A high *Individualism* score reveals that individuality and individual rights represent core values within a society. Thus, individuals in these societies are inclined to form a greater number of looser relationships. Conversely, a low *Individualism* ranking characterises societies displaying a more collectivist nature with close-knit ties between individuals. Such cultures emphasise extended families and in-groups where everybody assumes responsibility for the fellow members.

3. Masculinity (MAS) versus its opposed dimension, femininity, bears upon the distribution of gender roles, which represents yet another essential issue for any given society.

As a result of the IBM research findings, the following was concluded:

(a) women's values are less different among societies than are men's;

(b) men's values differ from one country to the other, displaying a dimension ranging from very competitive and assertive, while at the same time being extremely different from women's values, which are modest and caring,.

Therefore, the assertive pole has been dubbed 'masculine' whereas the modest, caring pole was called 'feminine'. In feminine countries, women have the same modest, low profile, caring values as men; in masculine countries even women are assertive to a certain extent and competitive, however not as much as men, and consequently these countries show a discrepancy between men's values as compared to women's values.

A high *Masculinity* ranking reflects that the country displays a high degree of differentiation between genders. In such cultures, males control a significant percentage of the society and power structure, while females are being subdued by male domination. Conversely, a low *Masculinity* ranking reveals that the country displays a low level of gender differentiation and discrimination. In such cultures, females are treated as equal to males in all matters of concern to the society.

4. Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) indicates how tolerant of ambiguity and uncertainty a society is; it actually refers to man's quest for Truth. It shows to what extent one culture mentally programs its members to feel either comfortable or uncomfortable in unstructured, unexpected situations, which are novel, surprising, unknown, and different from the usual ones.

Uncertainty avoiding cultures aim at minimising the incidence of such situations by enforcing strict laws and rules, harsh security and safety measures, and on the religious and philosophical plane by a belief in the absolute Truth. People living in uncertainty avoiding countries also tend to be more emotional, and driven by inner nervous energy.

At the opposite end, uncertainty tolerant cultures, are more unprejudiced about opinions and beliefs different from what they consider the norm; they prefer to function by as a small number of rules as possible, while on the religious and philosophical level they are rather relativist and can accept many currents to coexist. People within these cultures tend to be more unemotional and contemplative, and are never expected by their close environment to express feelings and emotions.

A high *Uncertainty Avoidance* ranking shows that the country features a low tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty. This leads a rule-oriented society which enforces laws, regulations, rules, and exerts control in order to reduce the degree of uncertainty. Conversely, a low *Uncertainty Avoidance* score reveals that the country does not care too much about ambiguity and uncertainty and is more permissive of a wide range of beliefs and opinions. This is apparent in a society which is less rule-oriented, and which more willingly accepts change, and can face more and greater hazards.

5. Long-Term Orientation (LTO) as opposed to short-term orientation deals with Virtue irrespective of Truth. The values promoted by a Long Term Orientation are thrift and determination; the values endorsed by Short Term Orientation are respect for tradition, complying with social obligations, and saving one's 'face'. The two opposing values of this dimension, both the positively and the negatively ranked ones can be found in the lessons of Confucius, the most prominent Chinese philosopher that lived around 500 B.C.; nevertheless, this category also applies to countries which do not have a Confucian heritage.

A higher *Long-Term Orientation* score indicates the country adheres to the standards of long-term commitments, respect for and preservation of tradition. This is considered to advocate a powerful work ethic according to which long-term rewards are considered as a well-deserved future prize for today's hard work. Nevertheless, business may require more time to develop and thrive in this society, especially for an "outsider". Alternatively, a low *Long-Term Orientation* ranking is symptomatic of the fact that the country does not emphasise the value of long-term, or traditional orientation. Changes can occur more quickly in this culture, since long-term traditions and commitments do not turn into stumbling blocks to changes.

6. Indulgence (IND) versus restraint orientation refers to allowing relatively free gratification of human desires connected with enjoying life and having a good time. Restraint societies display a tendency towards postponing the satisfaction of needs, even supressing gratification of needs, by imposing strict social norms and by promoting a philosophy of a predestined life. Indulgent societies are more likely to concentrate on individual happiness, well-being, expression of freedom, and exertion of personal control. The pursuit of happiness is a core value of the society. Alternatively, restraint cultures do not favour the free expression of positive emotions, whereas happiness, freedom or leisure are not highly praised, nor having friends. Moral discipline and saving are important, too.

The success of IBM, the multinational company which first commissioned the research carried out by Hofstede and his team is also due to its timely understanding of the importance that cultural differences bear on the success or failure in international encounters and dealings. Issues such as timetabling, dress codes, buying behaviours, etc., are all important for people coming from different countries and various cultural, social and historical backgrounds who need to work together for a common business goal. Language matters too, and a knowledge of pragmatic norms in intercultural settings is vital (Popescu 2012).

3.10 Metaphoricity of Business English

As mentioned in chapter 3.7 above, one of the main characteristics of the business language is a certain degree of metaphoricity, as various expressions are transferred from the general language onto situations and actors from the business field, in a different target domain (e.g. inflation, depression, ailing economy, soaring prices, etc.).

This aspect has been tackled by numerous specialists, especially over the past decades, as we are witnessing an impetus of cognitive linguistics, especially coupled with research instruments provided by computational linguistics / corpus linguistics.

I will in particular focus on the work done by Charteris-Black in the field of business language metaphoricity. According to him (2004, p. 135), the choice of metaphor indicates the evaluation performed by the financial reporter and observes social expectations as well as the degree of certainty displayed by the reporter's claims. Charteris-Black carried out a comparison between the Bank of English sub-corpus for the Economist (approx. 16 million words) and the corpus as a whole (418 million words). He identified three main conceptual keys, with their respective metaphors, and illustrative keywords.

The table below summarises Charteris-Black's findings (2004, pp. 140-168) classifying metaphors according to his own framework of analysis, which he called Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA). He introduced the categories of *conceptual keys* and *conceptual metaphors* in the analysis of how semantic tension is resolved by various cognitive metaphors (Charteris-Black 2004, pp. 21-22).

Table 7. Charteris-Black's classification of conceptual metaphors in financial reporting (2004, pp. 140-168)

Conceptual keys	**Conceptual metaphors**	**Keywords**
THE ECONOMY IS HUMAN (anthropomorphic and animate - personification)	- MARKET TRADING IS A STATE OF MENTAL HEALTH; - MARKET TRADING IS PHYSICAL CONFLICT; - MARKET TRADING IS A STATE OF PHYSICAL HEALTH.	-vulnerable, jitters, depress, etc. -health, recovery, paralysis, etc. -protect, battle, defend, rally, retreat, etc.
ECONOMIC PROBLEMS ARE NATURAL DISASTERS (depersonification)	- DOWNWARD MARKET CHANGES ARE DISASTERS; - THE BEHAVIOUR OF THE MARKET IS BEHAVIOUR OF GAS; - A VERY BAD MARKET IS A NUCLEAR DISASTER; - A BAD MARKET IS AN EARTHQUAKE.	-collapse, damage, havoc, punctured, etc. -bubble, burst, volatile, etc.
MARKET CHANGES ARE PHYSICAL MOVEMENTS (reification)	- MARKET CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING ON THE GROUND - MARKET CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING IN THE WATER - MARKET CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING IN THE AIR	-tumble, topple, stumble, lurch, etc. -plunge, float, the storm, etc.

According to *The MIT Encyclopaedia of Cognitive Sciences*, metaphor is defined as “the use of language that designates one thing to designate another in order to characterize the latter in terms of the former” (Glucksberg 1999, p. 535). Metaphor represents thus a means of associating two entities: a word or phrase literally denoting one kind of object or idea is applied to another to suggest a likeness or analogy between them; it associates one’s qualities or characteristics to the ones of the other.

The authors of *Metaphors we live by*, already mentioned above, explain why metaphor is believed to be belonging to the poetic usage of the language, with the general aim of embellishing or exaggerating language in its habitual use: “metaphor is viewed as a characteristic of language alone, rather than thought or action, that is why most people think they can get along without metaphor” (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 4). This underpins the ignorance of those believing this, since, according to the same two authors, the human ordinary conceptual system is fundamentally metaphorical and “the way we think, what we experience and what we do every day is very much a matter of metaphor”. One way of demonstrating this theory is by investigating language and communication, which are based on the very same conceptual system that we use in thinking and behaving.

Lakoff and Johnson give several examples of conceptual metaphors: PEOPLE ARE MACHINES (He’s had a nervous breakdown), ARGUMENT IS WAR (His claims were indefensible), *THEORIES* ARE *BUILDINGS* (This is the foundation of the theory), IDEAS ARE FOOD (His idea left a bad taste in my mouth), *quantity* (or *quality*) is *vertical elevation* (The prices went up; This is a high quality jacket.), TIME IS MONEY (You’re wasting my time), etc.

An interesting idea in *Conceptual Metaphor Theory* concerns hiding or highlighting parts of the target domain. When a target is structured in terms of a particular source, this underscores certain elements of the target while concurrently hiding other aspects. In the metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR, for example, the source highlights the adversarial nature of an argument but conceals the other aspects of its nature, e.g. the organizational aspect of an argument.

This idea tallies with another theory postulated by Lakoff and Johnson (1980): the *partial structure* of a metaphor: “the metaphorical structuring of concepts is necessarily partial" (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 53). The part of one concept used to define the other concept may only be the foundation or the outer shell of this concept, since it necessarily contains parts that are not used in the normal concept (in the example of *argument is war* metaphor, argument does not involve all the components of war – it involves contradictory communication, but it does not involve masses of people, army, guns and other things usually present in a *war* context; or in the case of the *time is money* metaphor, its partial nature is proved by the fact that there are no *time banks*).

Zoltán Kövecses continued the research into conceptual metaphors and in *Metaphor. A practical introduction* he takes Lakoff and Johnson's Conceptual Metaphor Theory even further, making a distinction between *conceptual* and *linguistic* metaphors. He sustains that since conceptual metaphors can be characterised by the formula A is B, this would mean that an entire target domain could be understood in terms of an entire source domain. However, he considers this hypothesis to be wrong and impossible, as this would mean that one conceptual domain would be exactly the same as another. However, mappings, or correspondences are proven to be exclusively partial. This means that the formula describing conceptual metaphors would be "only a part of A is mapped onto a part of B" (Kövecses 2010, p. 12). The author calls this process "partial metaphorical utilization". Therefore, in the same way as metaphorical highlighting of the target is partial, metaphorical utilisation of the source is partial as well. Given a source domain, only certain aspects of it are conceptually utilised and activated in the process of comprehending a target domain. As highlighting and hiding are not processes that are regarded as being bad, yet they are inevitable and natural, since one source domain would not be sufficient to comprehend a target domain. Zoltán Kövecses claims that we need several source domains to fully understand a target, because each source can only structure certain aspects of a target. Metaphorical mappings from a source to a target are, according to him, only partial.

Conceptual metaphors are described by Kövecses in the terms of a mental process, comparable to synapses: "when two groups of neurons get connected by a mapping circuit, we have to do with conceptual metaphors" (Kövecses 2010, p. 88). He further speaks of conceptual metaphors in a very similar manner to the one of Lakoff and Johnson, defining them as "understanding one conceptual domain into the terms of another conceptual domain". Kövecses (2010, pp. 7-10) explains the term "understanding" in terms of conceptual correspondences or mappings. Therefore, understanding concepts, one in the terms of the other one, is creating a mental connection between the two, establishing a way of correspondence. The author explains the creation of correspondence between two concepts by the process of structuring that takes place between the target and the source domain. He denies any pre-existence of similarities between the two component domains of the metaphor. For example, within the metaphor *LOVE IS A JOURNEY* (in which the *lovers* are seen as *travellers*, the *relationship* as the *journey*, the *goals* in the relationship as *destination* of the journey etc., the *problems* in the relationship as *obstacles* in the travellers' way), Kövecses asserts that the domain of *love* did not have the connecting elements before being previously structured by the domain of *journey*. It was the transfer of the *journey* domain to the *love* domain that lent the concept of *love* this particular structure. Furthermore, it was the concept of *journey* that engendered the concept of *love*.

The linguistic metaphor Kövecses refers to can be found in the words or other linguistic expressions that are derived from the language or terminology of some more concrete conceptual domains. For example, all the preceding expressions which are used in connection with the metaphor LOVE IS A JOURNEY are *linguistic metaphors*, whereas LOVE IS A JOURNEY is the corresponding *conceptual metaphor*. Conceptual metaphors do not occur in language as such, but they underlie conceptually the metaphorical expressions emerging from it.

Cognitive metaphors are instantiations of cultural categories manifested in the language spoken by the community which shares a common set of characteristics within a given cultural matrix. Therefore, we espouse the theory according to which metaphors clustered in cognitive categories account for cultural categories, both in terms of conceptual universals and variants, leading to a complex mapping of interrelated cross-connections (Popescu 2012). This theory can be best applied to contemporary journalistic discourse in English and Romanian business press and we will try to identify universal metaphors and metaphor variations assignable to cultural characteristics of contemporary Romanian and British business reality echoed in the written media. Economic discourse is replete with figurative language even from the beginnings of trade and commerce. More specifically, the communicative function of metaphors is self-evident in journal article titles, the financial press, business headlines, advertising and marketing, etc. A second tenet is that of the interrelatedness of semantic and social change of the language, which reflects different historical moments, marked by social and economic mutations. However, besides the social, political and cognitive dimensions of the language used in the business field, it also features cultural underpinnings, pertaining to specific cultural categories of a given nation. In conclusion, conceptualisations of culture, apart from cognitive categories can afford deeper insights into intercultural communication processes. An understanding of people's metaphorical language can undoubtedly unveil unfathomable meanings pertaining to various cultures.

3.11 Business English and public speaking skills

In what concerns business presentations, special attention should be given to this particular soft skill that professionals need to master. In nowadays' ever globalising world, an ability to communicate proficiently is a precondition of success in all aspects of everyday life: education, professional career, (inter-)personal sphere, personal finances, politics, etc. Educators themselves have understood the importance of training students in these essential skills starting from a very early age. Moreover, business schools have placed communication across the curriculum in the centre of their educational policies. Public speaking, as the modern art of persuasion, has to be placed at the heart of pedagogical endeavours with regard to students' forthcoming employability. This is why educators should show a continuing preoccupation for implementing such skills across the curriculum, and not limit themselves to only teaching such skills in communication courses. Learners need to know how to structure their oral discourse, while employing persuasion, being able to convince others to share their vision. A mere presentation of facts, statistics or other items of information is never enough to be persuasive, therefore we need to teach students, besides selecting and organising information, also how to employ para-verbal as well as nonverbal communication strategies. Moreover, we need to teach students how to empathise with the public, by developing inter- and intrapersonal abilities so as to relate to the audience in front of them. Learners also need to acquire the knowledge to perfectly balance time and content as well as how to change from a sober tone to an anecdotal vein, so as to keep the audience absorbed and alert.

The upgrading of oral communication competence, as well as of public speaking skills is demonstrated to largely contribute to an increase in interpersonal communication skills with friends, peers and family, and in intrapersonal skills, which will consequently contribute to self-fulfilment. According to Halliday (1987, p. 169), communication indicates "more than merely an exchange of words", meaning in fact a "sociological encounter" (Halliday 1987, p. 139), in other words it represents an exchange of understandings and meanings, the result of a human activity resting not only on words, but also on signs, symbols, gestures, or inflexions which help the contextualisation of the spoken words. Halliday further on states that communication represents "a dynamic, interactive process that involves the effective transmission of facts, ideas, thoughts, feelings and values" (1987, pp. 34-78), indicating more than just a passive encounter; we "actively and consciously engage in communication in order to develop information and understanding required for effective group functioning" (Halliday 1987, pp. 34-78). Communication is a dynamic process as it energises a whole array of interrelated forces and activities spanning across time. To these also contribute the ever-increasing and multiplying relationships settled between individuals engaged in communication. Adept communicators possess more than plain speaking abilities. A good public speaker needs to confidently use body language, as well as to establish and maintain eye contact with his audience (Popescu 2013a), "mind his/her posture, facial expression and gestures, his/her position in the space and even walk, if possible" (Halliday 1987, p. 44). Para-verbal as well as non-verbal language are similarly, if not more significant than the verbal language.

Rhetorical devices also play a compelling part in the success or failure of a presentation, representing a powerful tool which can contribute to the general effectiveness of oral communication. Together with body language mentioned above, considerable verbal language, consisting of memorable figurative elements, such as analogies, comparisons, similes, metaphors, metonymies, etc. can make or break a business deal. Apart from rhetorical devices there are other valuable strategies in the economy of an oral presentation, for example storytelling. Such stories may represent persuasive tools as they "acquaint the listener to a different atmosphere, an open space where anything is possible" (Morgan 2005, p. 55). In the same author's opinion, a story can be created based on problem solving strategies, foregrounding the problem, from which the solution to resolve it will emerge, given by the very speaker (Morgan 2005, p. 73).

The main discourse management features in speaking are coherence and cohesion, cohesive devices, discourse markers, extent (extended stretches of language / extended discourse), and relevance. Cohesion is a purely technical issue which refers to the linguistic means that create grammatical and lexical relationships between elements that hold a speech together, which may be referred to as 'chains of reference' (Biber et al. 1999, p. 42). In oral discourse we can use linguistic devices such as pronouns, lexical repetition, or synonyms to refer to ideas that have already been expressed. Different linking devices can be used for different relationships, e.g. addition (also, moreover, furthermore), contrast (still, however, although, even though), cause and effect (so, thus, therefore), and time (then, afterwards, after a while, finally). Biber et al. (1999, pp. 55-67) believe that "one of the reasons why people can operate within sociocultural rules is because they are familiar with different styles, and recognise different written and spoken genres". The aim of communication definitely plays an important role; however, the way in which we try to achieve our goals is largely influenced by other factors, such as the setting, the channel of communication, and the communication genre.

Our speaking ability can only be acquired and enhanced by way of long practice and determination to succeed. The phases of speaking production start from conceptual planning and continue to the proper act of speaking (Garrett 1982, pp. 39-42). Ideas are first construed in our mind; we then decide on syntactic and lexical structures and subsequently utter them in oral speech, for the interactional partner to hopefully decode our initial meaning.

3.12 A possible business English programme paradigm

We nurture the conviction that a proactive educational framework, self-directed learning, self-appreciation and self-evaluation, promotion of critical thinking, enhancement of students' motivation, efficient interaction between all participants to educational processes, understanding that learning a foreign language is an educational act with profound implications, are all essential ingredients for the learning of that foreign language.

In our double role as syllabus designers (there is no national curriculum for teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at academic level) and as practising teachers (who implement the Business English syllabi in the classroom), we need to take heed of all aspects concerning both short- and long-term educational strategies. However, following the principles of CLIL education we have established a productive relationship with the specialist content teachers, and our syllabus in general follow the same topics as the mainstream business curriculum (microeconomics, management, marketing, accounting, tourism, information technology, etc.).

Our short-term strategy aims mainly at preparing students for passing end-of-term exams, and especially for getting a certificate of language proficiency, necessary for the successful completion of their academic education. On the one hand, there is the possibility of obtaining an internal certificate, run by the specialised department of modern languages, and on the other hand, there is the possibility of obtaining an internationally recognised certificate. Starting from this premise, one cannot rule out from curricular design the setting of general objectives for Business English courses. This undertaking was carried out following the guidelines offered by the linguistic policies of the

Council of Europe. We also benchmarked objectives for each academic year and semester.

Concerning the organisation of educational content specific to learning Business English, we resorted to a so-called topic syllabus (we chose topics from the economic field, and we tried to link them to the academic subjects in the Faculty curriculum). We did not exclude grammar, functional-notional and lexical elements from the syllabus either.

We considered these elements as necessary in order to prepare students for the need of formal certification through standardised tests (Cambridge exams, IELTS tests, TOEFL tests, etc.), but also for furthering their education in a European or international MA programme. At the same time, this educational mobility of students (short- or long-term), much facilitated by the Erasmus+ programme has engendered important mutations in syllabi content and teaching methodology. The internationalisation of higher education involves a re-assessement of pedagogical instruments, and learning situations.

The long-term educational strategy aims at making students aware of the importance of life-long learning. We tried therefore, along the curricular implementation and evaluation stages, to resort to self-learning, self-evaluation and critical thinking strategies. We considered that this was possible through the exploitation of multi-media technologies by the students themselves. Special attention was given to working with a computer and in this context we drew on the instructional and educational value of the Internet (press, TV, radio, virtual libraries, all available online), and of course, of different educational software.

As concerns the didactic methodology adopted, starting from an emphasis on form, we took heed of the value of tasks as essential motivational factors for real communication, as well as opportunities for triggering acquisition processes.

We therefore resorted to a holistic, comprehensive curricular approach, centred on the student and his needs, from the perspective of learning a language as education. This involves a radical re-evaluation of students' and teachers' roles, favouring a beneficial and constructive educational environment, based on mutual trust and respect, where the teacher acts as a linguistic database and counsellor, and where language learning takes place following a cooperative dialogue, by stimulating students to elaborate materials and tasks, appropriate to their own needs, thus facilitating the acquisition of both strategic processes needed in autonomous learning and linguistic knowledge and communicative skills.

This ***new paradigm*** we tried to implement as part of the pedagogical research we carried out encompasses the following coordinates:

Principles:

- raising participants' awareness of the essence of the educational curricular process;
- learning autonomy;
- ensuring the authenticity of the educational framework;
- participants' in-depth understanding of the significance of educational acts and processes;
- stimulating learning motivation;
- encouraging multidimensional interactions.

Strategies:

- self-evaluation and self-appreciation;
- critical thinking;
- autonomous learning;
- pertinent conceptual framework, appropriate for the learning situation.

Actions:

- elaboration (by both teacher and students) of tasks that resort to multi-media technologies;
- elaboration of portfolios / projects;
- promotion of oral communication (conversation, negotiation, presentation, debate, etc.);
- encouragement of team-work;
- diversity of genre.

A graphic and synthetic model of the new didactic paradigm from a curricular perspective, adapted to our concrete educational situation we are confronted with will be presented in the following figure:

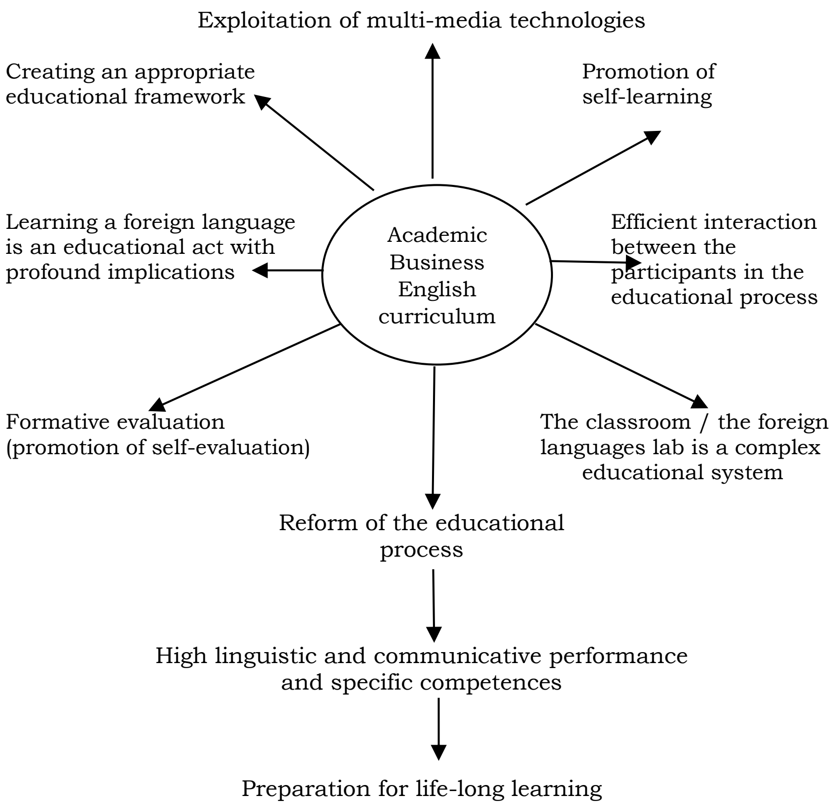

Figure 6. The new didactic paradigm
from a curricular perspective (Popescu 2006, p. 316)

CHAPTER FOUR
PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

4.1 Business English materials design

When designing teaching materials, the business language teacher can choose to follow a topic-based syllabus, which respects the logical succession of subject matters on the undergraduate or postgraduate study programme (for example, in Romania the typical programmes are Business Administration, Marketing, Accounting, Finance-Banking, etc.) Therefore, a competence-based approach, combined with the philosophy of Content and Language Integrated Learning, would lead us to the design of textbook as presented in the following lines. The textbook was actually published in 2011 (*We're in Business!*, Aeternitas Publishing House, Alba Iulia). Part 1 consists of six units, namely:

Unit One		
Business Communication	Focus on Reading I	**Mind Your Manners: It's Good Business**
	Focus on Vocabulary I	
	Focus on Grammar	**Present Simple vs Present Continuous**
	Focus on Listening	**Introducing new people to the workplace**
	Focus on Writing	**Letter giving information**
	Focus on Reading II	**Defusing the Bomb**
	Focus on Vocabulary II	
	Focus on Speaking	
Unit Two		
Information Technology	Focus on Reading I	**Coming of Age: What's in Store for the IT Worker?**
	Focus on Vocabulary I	

	Focus on Vocabulary I	
	Focus on Grammar	**The Passive Voice**
	Focus on Listening I	
	Focus on Writing	**Letter giving information**
	Focus on Reading II	**Great Teamwork**
	Focus on Vocabulary II	
	Focus on Listening II	
	Focus on Reading III	**Leadership Styles**
	Focus on Vocabulary III	
	Focus on Speaking	
Unit Six		
Business Travel	Focus on Reading I	**Get Me the Manager - How to Complain Effectively at Your Hotel**
	Focus on Vocabulary I	
	Focus on Grammar	**Phrasal Verbs**
	Focus on Listening	
	Focus on Writing	**Letter of Complaint**
	Focus on Reading II	**Car Rental Basics for Business Travellers**
	Focus on Vocabulary II	
	Focus on Reading III	**Travel Picks: Top 5 trend forecasts for 2012**
	Focus on Vocabulary III	
	Focus on Speaking	

As can be seen, the six topic-based units cover the relevant subject matter of the undergraduate curriculum for business students in a typical Faculty of Economics, while at the same time, the topics are also relevant for business practitioners, who already are employed in the field, but want to develop their business English proficiency. Each unit follows a rather strict structure: focus on the four skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) and focus on specific language knowledge (grammar and vocabulary).

4.1.1 Developing reading skills

As far as reading is concerned, the texts are taken from different business on-line publications, the source of which is always provided. Texts are given in full or slightly modified, depending on the degree of difficulty of the lexis used. Sometimes, it is a good idea to preserve the text and analyse with the students the idiomatic expressions, the phrasal verbs or various metaphors that appear. The source is nevertheless, in all cases, authentic, and credit is given in each instance. The tasks range from the following different types of exercises:

- a text followed by four-option multiple choice items. The stem of a multiple choice item can be in the form of a question or of an incomplete sentence.
- a gapped text with six sentence-length gaps. The correct sentence has to be identified so as to fill each gap out of a set of eight sentences, marked A-H. One sentence is given as an example and one other sentence is a distractor that does not fit in any of the gaps.
- a text followed by true-false multiple choice items. The stem is usually a statement.
- a gapped text followed by sub-headings. The correct sub-heading has to be identified, taking into account the contextual meaning.

Below can be found a sample reading text extracted from the above-mentioned textbook, adapted from an article published in *The Economist*, 2011.

1. Read the following text about Samsung:

Asia's new model company
Samsung's recent success has been extraordinary.

The founders of South Korea's *chaebol* (conglomerates) were an ambitious bunch[4]. Have a look at the names they chose for their

[4] **bunch n** a group of people.

enterprises: Daewoo ("Great Universe"), Hyundai ("The Modern Era") and Samsung ("Three Stars", meaning a business that would be huge and eternal). Samsung started up as a small noodle business in 1938. Ever since it has swelled[5] into a network of 83 companies that account for a staggering[6] 13% of South Korea's exports. The hottest chilli in the Samsung *kimchi* bowl is Samsung Electronics, which started out making clunky[7] transistor radios but is now the world's biggest technology company, measured by sales. It makes more televisions than any other company, and may soon displace Nokia as the biggest producer of mobile-telephone handsets.

No wonder others are keen to know the secret of Samsung's success. China sends emissaries to study what makes the firm tick[8] in the same way that it sends its bureaucrats to learn efficient government from Singapore. To some people, Samsung is the harbinger[9] of a new Asian model of capitalism. It ignores the Western conventional wisdom. It sprawls[10] into dozens of unrelated industries, from microchips to insurance services. It is family-controlled and hierarchical, prizes market share over profits and has an opaque and confusing ownership structure. Yet it is still prodigiously[11] creative, at least in terms of making incremental[12] improvements to other people's ideas: only IBM earns more patents in America. Having outstripped[13] the Japanese firms it once mimicked[14], such as Sony, it's now rapidly becoming emerging Asia's version of General Electric, the American conglomerate so beloved of management gurus.

There is much to appreciate about Samsung. It is patient: its managers care more about long-term growth than short-term profits. It is good at motivating its employees. The company thinks strategically: it identifies markets that are about to take off and places huge bets on them.

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[5] **swell** *v* to cause to increase in volume, size, number, degree, or intensity.

[6] **staggering** *adj* causing great astonishment, amazement, or dismay; overwhelming.

[7] **clunky** *adj* clumsy in form or manner; awkward.

[8] **tick** *v* to function characteristically or well.

[9] **harbinger** *n* one that indicates or foreshadows what is to come; a forerunner.

[10] **sprawl** *v* to spread out in a straggling or disordered fashion.

[11] **prodigiously** *adv* to a degree that is impressively great in size, force, or extent; enormous.

[12] **incremental** *adj* increasing gradually by regular degrees or additions.

[13] **outstrip** *v* to be or become greater in amount, degree, or success than sth or sb

[14] **mimic** *v* –icked to copy closely, to imitate.

The bets that Samsung Electronics once placed on DRAM chips, liquid-crystal display screens and mobile telephones paid off handsomely[15]. In the next decade the group plans to gamble again, investing a whopping[16] $20 billion in five fields in which it is a relative newcomer: biotech drugs and batteries for electric cars, solar panels, energy-saving LED lighting, medical devices. Although these industries seem quite different from each other, Samsung is betting that they have two crucial things in common. They are about to grow fast, thanks to new environmental rules (solar power, LED lights and electric cars) or rocketing demand in emerging markets (medical devices and drugs). And they would benefit from a splurge[17] of capital that would allow large-scale manufacturing and therefore lower costs. By 2020 the Samsung group boldly forecasts that it will have sales of $50 billion in these hot new areas, and that Samsung Electronics will reach total global sales of $400 billion.

It is easy to understand why China might like the *chaebol* model. South Korea's industrial titans first prospered in part thanks to their close liaisons with an authoritarian government (though Samsung was not loved by all the generals). Banks were pressured to pump cheap credit into the *chaebol*, which were stimulated to enter dozens of new businesses—typically macho ones such as shipbuilding or heavy industry. Ordinary Koreans were chivvied[18] to save, not consume. South Korea grew into an exporting powerhouse. Does it sound somewhat familiar?

In China, too, the state draws up long-term plans, funnels[19] cash to industries it considers strategic and works hand-in-glove with national champions, like Huawei and Haier. Some of Beijing's planners would love to think that state intervention is the road to world-beating innovation. No doubt inadvertently, Samsung feeds this delusion.

(The Economist, 1 October 2011)

2. Choose the correct answer to the following questions:

1. We infer from the text that *chaebol* represents

   a) companies set up by ambitious business people who specialised in the production of electronics.

   b) a corporate group of many companies clustered around one parent company, based on authoritarian management and

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[15] **handsomely** *adv* richly, abundantly.

[16] **whopping** *adj* exceptionally large.

[17] **splurge** *n* an expensive indulgence; a spree.

[18] **chivvy** *v* to annoy by repeating sth constantly, to pressure.

[19] **funnel** *v* to send sth directly and intentionally.

centralised decision making, and which usually hold shares in each other and are often run by one family.
c) a maker of mobile-telephone handsets.
d) a huge and eternal company.

2. The secret of Samsung is that it knows how to
a) buy out successful companies already established on the market.
b) invest on the American market.
c) combine centralised management with fostering technological innovation.
d) exploit the lessons of efficient government from Singapore.

3. Samsung's philosophy of personnel management is to
a) create motivation among staff.
a) let employees gamble on the future of the company.
c) focus on long-term profits.
d) empower staff to participate in the company's decision-making.

4. According to Samsung, solar panels, energy-saving LED lighting, medical devices, biotech drugs and batteries for electric cars have in common the following two aspects:
a) low prices and environmental friendliness.
b) innovative ideas and high demand on emerging markets.
c) the need for alternative sources of energy and state infusion of capital.
d) expansion perspectives and economies of scale.

5. We infer from the text that China's indomitable belief in Samsung's model is
a) not entirely well-founded.
b) due to the success of the country's *chaebol*.
c) based on the Korean state's interventionism.
d) doubled by its determination to invest in strategic industries.

4.1.2 Developing listening skills

For the listening part, different interviews from online sources (podcasts, YouTube, etc.) may be exploited in order for the students to be exposed to real-life listening tasks. For example, recordings from the BBC site can be used. Below can be found such an exercise which was created starting from a radio programme and which can be successfully used as part of the business communication unit.

1. You will hear a BBC radio programme on introducing new people to the workplace. For each question 1-8, mark one letter (A, B, or C) for the correct answer. You will hear the recording twice.

1. New people shouldn't be given too much information about the company because
   A. secrets of the company shouldn't be revealed.
   B. people cannot take in too much information at one time.
   C. much of the information received is irrelevant.

2. A typical ice-breaker is to ask about
   A. the person's first impressions of the company.
   B. the person's state of health.
   C. the person's journey to the company.

3. Dionne probably uses the expression "I'll give you a quick whiz round" because:
   A. she knows Helena understands colloquial English.
   B. she wants to make Helena feel comfortable.
   C. she is not too well-educated.

4. According to David, you can use "just" with zero conditionals if you want your interlocutor to
   A. feel at ease with asking a favour.
   B. feel embarrassed about asking a favour.
   C. stop asking favours.

5. When Dionne explains how the photocopier works, she does so by
   A. using very technical language.
   B. making a thorough demonstration.
   C. using simple language.

6. David explains that various ways of introducing people depend on
   A. the physical distance between people.
   B. the difference in status between people.
   C. the difference in age between people.

7. Dionne uses signalling language in order to
   A. show off her knowledge.
   B. make Helena understand better what is going on.
   C. give the others information about Helena.

8. Clare does not have any questions because
   A. she wants to leave the company.
   B. she wants to assimilate the information.

C. she wants Regina to believe she understood everything.

It may prove useful to provide the tapescript for those students who are not very familiar with listening and need extra input for such an exercise. Below I am reproducing the tapescript, slightly adapted from the original version, which is available online on the BBC website.

Carmela: Today we'll hear how to introduce new people to the workplace. As usual, I am joined by the Business English expert, David Evans. David, err, I've worked at places where I wasn't really shown around and it does make a difference to first impressions of a company, right?
David: Yes, it creates a very bad first impression and it's a real waste of time too, for the new comers to spend so long exploring the new company for themselves.
Carmela: Also as we just heard, it's not such a good idea to overload the newcomer with too much information or introductions.
David: No, because people find a lot of information hard to remember. Tell them two or three important things and just leave it there.
Carmela: Let's hear an example of someone being shown round on their first day at work. We are now going to ***Deep End*** - a web design company based in London. ***Dionne*** is showing new staff member ***Helena*** around.

(Dionne and Helena)
Dionne: **- Hi, Helena! Nice to see you**. **Did you get here alright**?
Helena: - Yes. It's been great!
Dionne: - Nice. OK, then. **I'll give you a quick whizz round** and then we'll settle you in. Upstairs is the meetings space which you can book by calling Lorna, she's got a diary, so you know who's in there.
Helena: ... err, how many people can we book in the room...?
Dionne: ... I think we can probably sit about twenty people - and that's quite many... **So if you need to use that,** give Lorna a buzz. **Here is reception** - Kate and Sanji who both answer the phone ... and behind them is where we keep all the stationery.
Helena: ... OK...
Dionne: ...**So if you need anything - just** grab it from there. **This is where you'll be sitting, it's** just opposite me, this is your desk. The laptop is all set up for you to use; I'll show you through our email package and everything a bit later. ......
(**********)

Carmela: Now, before actually showing where things are, Dionne made the new staff member feel at home, err, feel comfortable. The phrase that was used for that …

David: … yeah, she just said "**Did you get here alright?".** In other words, she asked about Helena's journey to the office that day. It's a very standard way of breaking the ice. She then says… **I'll give you a quick whizz round**. That's a colloquial expression which really only means **"I'll show you round "…**Now, she uses this kind of informal phrase, I think, err, because she simply wants to put Helena at her ease, to make her relax and feel welcome.

Carmela: Then there was the offer of help. The phrase **"if you need something" -** could you tell us how it's used and if you can use it in any situation?

David: Yes, you can use this kind of expression in any situation. It's what we'd call a "zero conditional" - in other words it's an "if sentence" with the present simple verb in the first half and the present simple verb in the second half.

Carmela: … can you give us an example, David?

David: I think the example we heard there was… **"If you need to use it, just give me a call" -** or **"if you need anything, take it from there".** You could often hear this phrase used with **"just"** as well**…"if you need any help, just call me"** and this makes it a little bit more welcoming for the other person, "feel free to call me", or "don't worry about calling me"

Carmela: The final part was actually pointing out where things are physically, where they are located, could you tell us about the language which was used there?

David: Dionne just used very simple language there. Really, "this is"….. Here is reception… This is where you'll be sitting.

Carmela: … So, being simple and clear is really important when welcoming new staff members, and of course, showing office equipment to them is very important too. Here's another example of sombody being shown around on their first day.

> **(Claire** and **Regina)**
>
> Actually, while we're in here, I'll just take you to the photocopying and the fax machine. OK, the fax machine - you need 9 for an outside line. All right. And **it's really straightforward** - you put the sheet of paper face down and it goes through just like that. **So that's the** fax machine. The printer is over here on your right and the photocopier is just next to that. **Let me show you how the photocopier works**. Right, so what you do, you lift the lid, and then place the piece of paper face down. I'll give you the code to make it work a bit later on.
>
> (**********)

Carmela: An essential piece of office equipment being shown there, the photocopier. David, can you now talk us through some of the language used?
David: I think there, Clare was trying to make it as easy as possible for Regina to understand what was going on. She emphasised this with the phrase - **It's really straightforward**, in other words "it's really easy". The she also used the phrase **"let me show you"** which is the standard phrase to use in such a situation, I think she said **"let me show how the photocopier works".** But you can use it for a lot of other things: **let me show you *where the canteen is*** or **let me show you** how the phone system works" and so on.
Carmela: You're listening to "Business Language to Go" from the BBC World Service. As well as being shown around of the office, or how the equipment works, the first days also involve a lot of introductions to new people. Now let's go back to the web design company to see how Dionne introduces her colleagues to Helena.

Dionne and **Helena**

Dionne: - Well **now you've seen everything** so **what I'll do next is** to introduce you to a couple of people whom you haven't met yet, who you'll be working a little more closely with

Helena: -… OK

Dionne: - Good, **let me introduce you to** Gary who's just joined our department too - this is Helena who'll be working with me…

Gary: - Hi Helena, how're you doing?

Helena: - Fine!

Dionne: - This is her first day so I'm giving her a little tour around and showing her where things are **etc. etc.** … **so, if you need anything just ask** him, as well. Gary, you can sort her out with some keys hopefully.

Gary: - Keys or anything you need for the studio, we have fire drills every now and then and I'll just show you through the basics

Helena: - Oh, sure, great yeah

Dionne: - …There's Nick, one of the directors who spends most of his time sitting in there though he tends coming in and out of meetings quite a lot. Then you'll be dealing a lot with him as well. The other essential person you have to meet is Rosie, who manages the café. So, Rosie, let me introduce you to Helena who's just joined to work with me.

Rosie: - Hi, nice to meet you!

Helena: … nice to meet you….

(**********)

Carmela: Now then, it's really useful to have a couple of ways of introducing people, as it makes you sound more fluent. Also, it reduces the monotony, - it makes the tour a much more interesting experience

- for all of you. **David, what are** the different ways of introducing people: **let me introduce you to ...**

David: Well, we heard quite a few of them there. We heard Dionne use the phrase "let me introduce you to". She said "let me introduce you to Gary", which is a pretty standard way of doing it. We also heard her say - "**there's Nick"** - and I think she was using that expression because he was some metres away from them. If Nick had been standing much closer, she'd probably have said "**this is Nick" - or indeed she** could've just said - **Meet Nick.**

Carmela: All right, these are the ways of introducing people - what about the other bits of language she used?

David: Err, I think - one thing that Dionne is very good at is signalling what's coming next, which makes it much easier for Helena to see what's going on. The phrase that I remember her using there is: "**what I'll do next is** ..." - "what I'll do next is, introduce you to Gary" for example. That's a common expression used when giving someone a tour of the company. Of course we also heard the expression that we heard earlier: - **if you need anything, just ask**.

Carmela: And if you want to bring a tour to an end here is a typical way of doing it.

> **(Claire and Regina)**
>
> Claire: I think that's about it really. I think I've wrapped everything up for you. **Have you got any questions** you want to ask me? Any worries or anything?
>
> Regina: Erm, no, I don't think so at the moment. I'll take in and see how I get on
>
> Claire: Oh right. If you've got any worries or queries or questions **don't hesitate to ask, OK?** I'm only sitting right by you.
>
> Regina: OK, thanks a lot.
>
> (**********)

Carmela: David, can you please summarise the language that was used there?

David: Sure. First of all, Claire signalled that it was the end of the tour, by using the phrase **"I think that's about it, really".** She then just checked to make sure that Regina had understood everything she'd said using the phrase: **Have you got any questions for me?** And then finally reassured her that she wasn't really expected to remember everything she'd been told by saying: **Don't hesitate to ask.**

Carmela: Yes. And don't you hesitate to join David and me again soon for more **"Business Language to Go".**

(adapted from http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/general/talkaboutenglish/2009/02/090211_tae_bltg.shtml)

4.1.3 Developing writing skills

The writing skills have to be developed for a long sought-after round-off linguistic competence. It is important to teach writing strategies explicitly, especially in the case of business professionals, for whom a good working knowledge of how to write is extremely important, since companies still prefer to archive paper documents, in order to keep a proof of business transactions, including proceedings of business meetings or negotiations. A wide array of document types are used in business, from formal letters, to reports and memos, not to mention different contracts or company structure documents (Articles of Association, lease contracts, balance sheets, profit and loss account, payrolls, statements of account, etc.). Therefore, it is necessary to include in the syllabus dedicated sections aiming at developing business writing skills, with clear instructions and models to follow. The example below focuses on report writing, and it follows this structure: general formulae and structural tips, sample report and individual practice. It is taken from Popescu 2011b, pp. 135-138.

Report Writing

Beginning:
The aim/purpose/intention of this report is to assess/examine/evaluate the suitability of ... for/the advisability of (vb+ing)/the performance of...
This report is intended to...
This report describes/looks at/ contains/ outlines/ examines/ assesses...

It is based on/draws on/uses...

Reporting an observation:
It appears /seems that...
...tend(s) to ...
A/The majority/minority of ...
It was considered/found/felt that...
...were in the majority/minority
Of the 150 people/students/employees, etc. who were questioned/ interviewed/asked... said that...

Ten/twenty-four, etc. per cent A significant percentage The majority/minority A large/small proportion Over one fourth/half	of people/clients, etc. of viewers/etc. of those who responded of people interviewed of those surveyed	were of the opinion… felt/believed that… expressed (dis)approval of… reported/ replied that… chose/preferred…

Expressing generalisations:
Mainly, /On the whole, / In general (terms), /In the main, /Generally speaking, …

It is generally believed / felt that… Few people (would) approve of… Most consumers prefer…,	which is illustrated/ shown as demonstrated /proved as emphasised/ confirmed	by the fact that…

Quoting:
As X said,…
In the words of …
According to …

Speculating:
It could/may/ might (well) be that …
… may/could/might + (do/have done)

Making comments:
Strangely/Interestingly/Curiously/ Surprisingly/Oddly/ Predictably…
It is interesting that… (etc.)
As might be (have been) expected…

Making recommendations:
It is recommended that…
It would (not) be advisable / practical / advantageous / wise to…
It is (therefore) believed / felt / clear / apparent/obvious that… X would be ideal for…
I recommend that the best course of action would be…
I strongly recommend/would advise /suggest that…
My/Our recommendation is that…should be…
(Perhaps) the management should / might consider vb + ing
(Perhaps) It is/should be advisable for Mr A to (do sth)

Ending:
To sum up/To summarise/To conclude/In conclusion/In short/On balance
On the whole, it would seem that / On the basis of the points raised / mentioned above …
The only/obvious conclusion to be drawn from these facts is that…

Here follows the practice part for students:

1. The organisation you work for has a suggestion scheme which staff are asked to contribute to. You have an idea for improving the way in which new staff are recruited and have decided to send a proposal to Ms Hancock, who administers the suggestion scheme.

Write your **proposal**
- outlining the present way in which new staff are recruited;
- describing your idea for improving the method;
- explaining how your idea can be introduced;
- outlining any disadvantages your idea might have.

Write 200-250 words on your answer sheet[20].

Sample Report[21]:

Report on proposed flexitime system

Introduction
The aim of this report is to present the flexitime system the management wants to introduce in our company. It is based on findings from staff questionnaires and financial assessment from the Accounts Department.

Advantages to the company
Our company would benefit greatly from this new scheme. First, increased working hours would mean that customers could contact us at weekends too and overseas clients in different time zones would reach us more easily. Second, pressure on office equipment such as photocopiers would be relieved and therefore efficiency will increase.

Advantages to staff
Two of the most substantial advantages to staff are that they would be able to avoid the rush hour travel and they could be able to spend more

[20] task reproduced from Whitehead, R. & Black, M. (2004), p. 21.
[21] adapted from Ashley, A. (1992), p.104.

time with their families. This is likely to lead to a remarkable improvement in morale and performance.

Financial costs and benefits
The financial costs of such a scheme are considerable, the initial cost of installing a clocking-in system being approximately Euro 7,000 + VAT. However, this is a fixed cost and can be offset against tax and benefits such as lower insurance premiums and photocopying costs. The substantial increase in productivity also outweighs the above mentioned costs.

Conclusions and recommendations
The idea is very popular among the staff: an overwhelming majority are in favour of it, although it is noteworthy that a significant number (48%) are opposed to the introduction of a clocking-in system, therefore, this would need to be introduced cautiously.
Upon careful analysis of the information provided, I conclude that the implementation of a flexitime system would be viable financially and I consequently recommend its introduction within the next six months.

2. You work for a supermarket chain and have been asked by the board of directors to write a report on a site where the company is considering building a new supermarket. Write your **report** for the board, including the following information:

- a description of the site, including its location;
- the advantages and disadvantages of the site;
- your opinion as to whether the site is.

Write 200-250 words on your answer sheet[22].

4.1.4 Developing speaking skills

Last but not least, as far as language skills are concerned, speaking abilities are extremely important in a business milieu, especially nowadays in the ever increasing international, globalised world. Speaking skills are at the core of communicative and intercultural competence of business professionals, be it oral production or interaction. For both types of speaking skills, explicit training is needed. As in the case of writing skills, a survival kit may prove very useful. In the following lines, the examples are taken from Popescu 2011b, pp. 152-153 and pp. 268-272.

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[22] task adapted from UCLES 2006, p. 65.

The speaking part is designed for two candidates, who are required to interact with the interviewer and between themselves, as well as make a presentation on their own. There are two parts to the speaking part. The first one requires the student to speak individually for maximum five minutes, making a presentation (as if it were in a business environment) on a given topic. The second part is a two-way collaborative task based on visual prompts which are given to both students, who will also have to express opinions and negotiate meaning.

The toolkit below provides functional language necessary in usual conversations as well as in negotiations. The exercise that follows focuses on the interaction between students.

Expressing Opinions	**Asking for Opinions**
I'm of the opinion that... As far as I am concerned... In my opinion... From my point of view... I think/believe/feel that... As I see it... It appears / seems to me that... If you ask me... To be (quite) honest /(Quite) honestly...	I'd be interested to know your thoughts on/what you think about... What's your point of view on...? What do you think about...? What's your opinion on/of/about...? How do you feel about...?

Agreement	**Partial Agreement/ Mild Disagreement**	**Disagreement**
There are many reasons for… I simply must agree with that. There is no doubt about it that ... I am of the same opinion (as…) I couldn't agree more that… I completely/ absolutely agree with ... I take your point. That sounds like a good idea.	It is only partly true that... That is not necessarily so. I can agree with that only with reservations. That seems obvious, but ... It is not as simple as it seems. Under certain circumstances ... I more or less agree but…	The problem is that ... This is in complete contradiction to ... There is more to it than that. What is even worse, ... I (very much) doubt whether ... I am of a different opinion because ... I cannot agree with this idea. I cannot share this / that / the view. Unlike… I think… What I object to is…

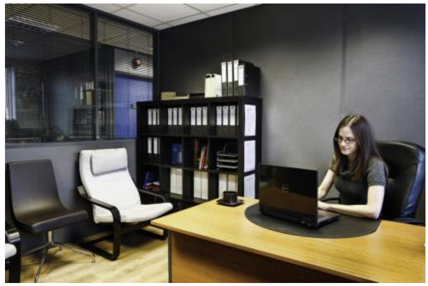
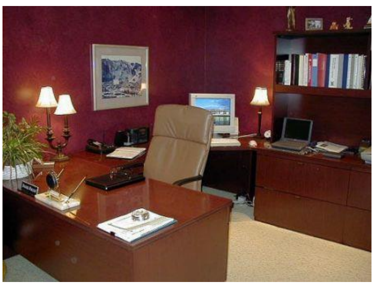
	I agree up to a certain extent/up a point but … I see what you mean, but… Well, actually I am not so sure that I agree with that … That's one way of looking at it, but …I suppose you're right, but…	I am afraid that you are mistaken there. You've missed the point completely.

Giving reasons and offering explanations
To begin with, I…/To start with/ First of all, I would like to say/state that…/In the first line, I…, The reason why…, That's why…, That's the reason why…, For this reason…, Many people think…./It stands to logic that …/It is common knowledge that…, Considering…, When you consider that…, Allowing for the fact that…

Discussing problems
The downside of being / One of the problems/difficulties of being a leader/in authority is that … It isn't easy being a leader/in authority because … Being a leader/in authority requires/involves/means … People in this position are often required/expected to/called upon to… Another problem encountered by people in this position is that they find it difficult to … / it is hard/impossible for them to …

1. Spoken interaction. In pairs, analyse the pictures below and describe the type of business office each picture presents. What are the advantages and disadvantages of working in such environments? You may use the following words and expressions: *remote work*, *cubicles*, *coworking spaces*, *open office plan*, *private offices*.




In 2013 I published the results of an experiment I carried out on 27 first-year MA students in Business Administration in Tourism and Services (Popescu 2013a). As part of the regular Business English classes (2 hours per week) I explicitly introduced elements of public speaking, focusing on both linguistic and psychological aspects involved in preparing, delivering and assessing business presentations.

The experimental design was an intra-subject one, and the experiment was the main research method employed. The students were assigned, at the beginning of the semester, an oral presentation on a business topic of their own choice from among

20 pre-selected topics (from their academic curriculum), as well as a questionnaire that was aimed at identifying their attitudes to oral presentations. After the intervention, which consisted of explicit training (both linguistic and communication-based), the students were assigned a new test (presentation) and questionnaire, testing the same presentation skills.

The pre-test questionnaire included 10 questions referring to students' attitudes centred around 8 issues: fear of syllabus courses that have presentations as assessment form; prior preparation stress: structuring ideas, synthesising information; nervousness at the beginning of presentation; inability to keep within the time frame; fear of losing track when distracted by interruptions; fear of not being able to answer questions on the topic presented; fear of not being able to control one's tension and stress during delivery; (5-item Likert scale).

The post-test questionnaire focused on students' opinions and attitudes following the experiment and the questions addressed the following issues: specific training in giving presentations during English classes was useful; learnt how to prepare well for presentations; feedback from teacher helped towards self-awareness; interaction with peers helped towards self-awareness; developed self-confidence during delivery of presentations; overcame fear of public speaking and oral forms of assessment (also along a 5-item Likert scale).

After the initial presentations test, during the English classes, which followed the set syllabus – the topics and the language focus were all abided by – I inserted explicit training in oral presentations – during each class we analysed the structure of presentations, the language exponents used, the para-verbal and nonverbal elements of presentations.

The methods used mainly were case-studies and role-plays, analysis and interpretations of video recordings of good/bad presentations. Students worked in groups, and did a lot of home assignments in preparation for presentations. Students received specific training in assessment and self/peer-assessment. For each presentation that was made, students had to fill in assessment forms to evaluate their peers' and their own performance. Teacher's feedback was also received in class after the discussions and analyses of the students.

Data obtained revealed the fact that students initially displayed a marked fear of public speaking, and in general, of academic subjects on the curriculum that included oral forms of assessment. Although they were MA students and were quite used to speaking in public (in front of their peers and the teacher), many of them (8 students out of 27) expressed their fear of speaking in public.

It was also notable the fact that some did not know how to prepare properly for a presentation, even if in the case of some specific undergraduate courses they had to make presentations on a regularly basis as part of their seminar work. Much of this presentation work was somehow taken for granted, as a matter-of-course, without too much emphasis paid to. 10 respondents admitted fear of not being able to control one's tension and stress during delivery. The use of electronic equipment did not pose major problems to students, as they were quite familiar with modern technology (see Figure 6).

After the pedagogic intervention, the students expressed opinions that were different from the initial ones, in the sense that they overtly expressed more confidence in their presentation skills (15 respondents). They especially valued the teacher's feedback on their class activities (14 respondents). Constant encouragement and support are needed in order for the students to become more self-reliant.

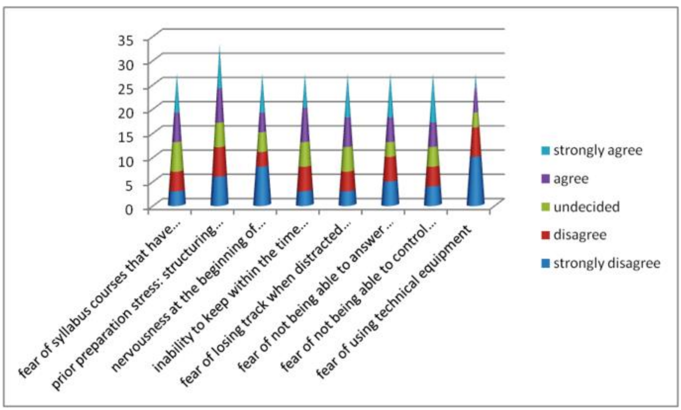


Fig. 6 Pre-test Attitudes

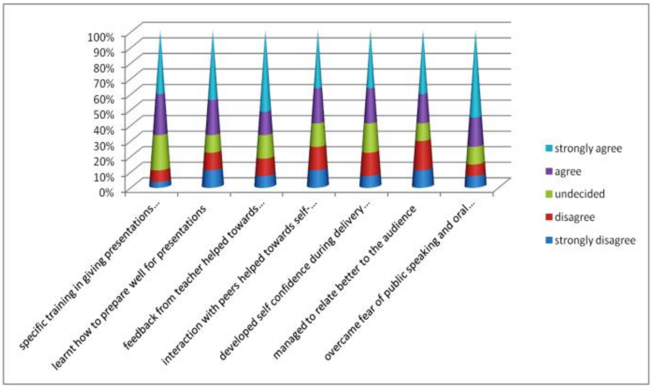


Figure 7. Post-test Opinions

According to the results of the presentations tests administered at the beginning and at the end of the pedagogic intervention, remarkable progress was identified, especially in the case of students' ability to deliver presentations (emotions management, rapport with the audience, non-verbal language, para-verbal language, use of visual support, appropriate reaction to the audience's reaction, coherence and cohesion). Good improvement was also remarked in the case of presentation planning (clearly worded and operationalised objectives, appropriate content to the audience's needs and expectations, appropriate time frame, appropriate use of methods – styles, humour, visuals, content relevance, appropriate structure – introduction, body, conclusions, Q's & A's section, relevant and concise notes). This is significant for the good acquisition of planning skills and competences, especially in view of acquiring managerial skills later in life. As most of them already possessed good language competence (in their MA studies, some of them already with a 15-year long language learning experience and proficient study skills), the increase recorded in this direction was not that dramatic, however, I felt satisfied with the more qualitative aspects of this small-scale classroom research.

Table 8. Results to the pre-test and post-test presentations

No of correct answers	Average grade (10 out of 10)	Planning (4 out of 10)	Audio-video support (1 out of 10)	Delivery (3 out of 10)	Language (2 out of 10)
Pre-test	71.48%	77.78%	85.19%	60.49%	68.52%
Post-test	81.48%	82.41%	88.89%	80.25%	77.78%

As can be seen in Table 8 above, the average grade of the group increased from 71.48% to 81.40%, which demonstrates that students really benefitted from explicit training in giving presentations. Probably the most important achievement was the fact that most students succeeded in overcoming their emotions, and became more-confident in their own speaking ability.

The Presentations Kit I usually use with my business students was published in Popescu (2011b, p. 134), and is reproduced below, as a useful tool for explicit training of presentation skills.

Section of presentation	**Signpost language**
Introducing the topic	The subject/topic of my talk today is ... I'm going to talk about ... My talk is concerned with ... My topic today is... This morning I'm going to be talking about ... The problem we've got to consider today is that of ... In my talk today I will be looking at... I'd like to start by giving you ...
Overview (outline of presentation)	I have divided my presentation into X sections ... I'm going to divide this talk into four parts. There are a number of points I'd like to make. Basically/ Briefly, I have three things to say. First of all, I'll...

	I'd like to begin/start by ... Let's begin/start by ... In the first section I will/am going to describe ... and then I will/am going to go on to ... Then/Next ... Finally/ Lastly ... I will/am going to
Finishing a section	That's all I can /have to say about... So much for... We've looked at...
Starting a new section	Turning to... Moving on now to ... Let's turn now to ... I'd like to expand/elaborate on ... The next issue/topic/area I'd like to focus on ... I'd like now to discuss... Now we'll move on to... I would now like to go on to the next point which is ... Let's look now at... If I can now move on to the next section ... To continue ... Having said that, let us turn our attention to...
Analysing a point and giving recommendations	The significance of this is... Let's consider this in more detail... What does this mean for...? Where does that lead us? Why is this important? Translated into real terms...
Highlighting	This is particularly important because ... I can't stress enough that... It should be pointed out that... I would like to draw your attention to ...
Giving examples	For example/instance,... ...such as: ..., ...like... i.e. (pronounced 'eye' and 'ee' as in 'see') A good/relevant example of this is... A case in point is

	As an illustration,.../ To illustrate this point... To give you an example,...
Referring to information on an overhead:	If you have a look now at this figure here ... As you can see from the table ... This particular slide shows ...
Summarising	To summarise... To sum up ... Let's summarise briefly what we've looked at... Right, let's sum up, shall we? Finally, let me remind you of some of the issues we've covered... If I can just sum up the main points... So, to remind you of what I've covered in this talk, ... In short ... The main thing/s to remember is /are ... The point that I am making here is that... I'd like now to recap... To recap ...
Paraphrasing and clarifying	In other words....... Simply put... To put it another way.... To put it more simply.... So what I'm saying is....
Invitation to discuss / comment / ask questions	I'm happy to answer any questions / queries you might have. Does anyone have any questions or comments? Feel free to ask if you have any questions. Please feel free to ask questions. Would you like to ask any questions? If you would like me to elaborate on any point, please ask. Any questions? Are there any questions so far? I welcome questions if at any point you don't understand something.

	If you have any questions about this, please/do ask. Can / May I have your attention, please? What are your views on this? Any further comments? Does anyone else wish to say anything?
Asking rhetorical questions (questions that the audience are not expected to answer):	Some of you may be wondering how can this be done? Am I right in thinking that…? So, just how can this be achieved? You may be wondering how long this will take?
Drawing conclusions:	To conclude... In conclusion … This means that... Consequently... As a result... Therefore...
Ending the presentation:	I would just like to finish by saying… I would just like to finish by saying… I would like to conclude by saying that To finish I would just like to remind you ... In conclusion, thank you … Do you have any questions? Unfortunately, I seem to have run out of time, so I'll wrap up /conclude very briefly by saying that …..

4.1.5 Building language structures

The practice section below is also take from Popescu (2011b), which demonstrates again the principle of authenticity of materials, even in the case of language structures. The majority of example sentences were taken from *The Economist*, or other specialist business publications, so as to demonstrate the authentic use of various grammatical structures. In the example below, I chose to demonstrate one very prevalent linguistic structure that is used in the economic discourse, i.e. the conditionals, which can be encounteres in business presentations, in business proposals or reports and in business newspaper articles.

Conditional Clauses[23]

<table>
<tr><th>TYPE OF IF-CLAUSE</th><th>IF-CLAUSE</th><th>MAIN CLAUSE</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">TYPE 0
Conditions which are always true</td><td>ANY PRESENT TENSE</td><td>ANY PRESENT TENSE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">If others have hopped across to Bratislava in Slovakia, for instance, it is mostly because the cost of living is lower.
If people work to rule, they carefully obey all of the rules and instructions given to them about their jobs with the intention of reducing the amount of work they do.</td></tr>
<tr><td>PAST TENSE</td><td>PAST TENSE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">If sales increased, we all got a bonus.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">TYPE 1
Conditions which are very probable in the present or in the future</td><td>PRESENT TENSE (SIMPLE OR CONTINUOUS) / PRESENT PERFECT / SHOULD + INFINITIVE</td><td>FUTURE / IMPERATIVE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">If big companies are to flourish, they will need to be reorganised in a series of interlinked creative compartments.
If you are hosting foreign visitors, ditch the slang!
Provided you have not cheated on your CV, we will hire you on a probationary period.
If you should be interested in our business proposal, please let me know.</td></tr>
<tr><td>PRESENT TENSE</td><td>SHOULD / CAN + INFINITIVE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">If you get late for an appointment, you should try and make a phone call and apologise.
If you arrive early, we can discuss the problem together.</td></tr>
<tr><td>TYPE 2
Conditions which are improbable or impossible in the</td><td>PAST SUBJUNCTIVE</td><td>PRESENT CONDITIONAL / SHOULD/COULD/MIGHT + INFINITVE</td></tr>
</table>

[23] Most examples in this table are adapted from *The Economist*.

present or in the future (unreal or hypothetical)	The ECB **would step up** its purchases of bonds of troubled euro-zone countries if a credible fiscal compact **were agreed** at the EU summit on December 9th. If we **tried** a bit harder, we **might** actually **reach** our sales targets. But if the virus ever **evolved** to hop nimbly from man to man, it **could wreak** a pandemic.
TYPE 3 Unreal conditions in the past	HAD + -ed PARTICIPLE — PERFECT CONDITIONAL / SHOULD/COULD/MIGHT + PERFECT INFINITVE If the judge's decision on the other patent **had been upheld**, this **would have done** more damage. If a format that involved short extracts from his prose **hadn't been used**, perhaps a longer section **could have been read**, or fewer readers **could have taken part**.
MIXED CONDITIONALS	HAD + -ed PARTICIPLE — PRESENT CONDITIONAL / SHOULD/COULD/MIGHT + INFINITVE
Unreal conditions in the past with an unreal present or future result	If you **had driven** faster, we **could** be there by now. If she **hadn't decided** to change jobs, she **would** be travelling to China next month.
Unreal conditions in the present	PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE — PERFECT CONDITIONAL / SHOULD/COULD/MIGHT + PERFECT INFINITVE If I **didn't trust** him, **I wouldn't have appointed** him as project manager. If I spoke Japanese, I might have got that job.

Variations

<u>If only</u>

This expression adds emphasis to hypothetical situations. When used with past events it adds a sense of regret. Usually, the second part of the sentence is left out.

If only we found more investors!

If only I hadn't spent so much during the year, we would have been able to go on a more expensive holiday!

Unless* and other alternative expressions to *if

Unless means *only if no*t.

For an airline that built its success on having zero frills – unless you were prepared to pay for them – Ryanair's new headquarters in a posh business park [...], is very full of frills. (The Economist)

(This means the company did not offer any frills if you were not prepared to pay for them)

In case one situation depends on another, *if* can be replaced by *as/so long as, provided* or *only if.*

I'll send this letter **provided** the CEO approves first.

Even if defines how something will happen regardless of the condition.

Even if the Euro falls, we'll still go ahead with the planned production.

Should

The use of *should* without *if* makes the event seem rather unlikely.

Should a new bail-out deal fail to be agreed before the end of the month, pressure will grow on the country's strained finances. (The Telegraph)

After *if,* the use of *should* also makes the possibility of an event seem unlikely.

If you **should finish** that report by 4 o'clock, could you please fax it to the Lynx?

(This implies that I do not expect you to finish the report.)

Were to

This also makes an event seem more hypothetical.

If you **were to** compare two executive directors, identical in every way except that one had 200 ex-colleagues now sitting on boards and the other 400, the latter, on average, **would be paid** 6% more. (The Economist)

Happen to

This structure emphasises chance possibilities. It is often used with *should.*

If you **happen to see** the boss, could you ask her to explain the new changes?

If you **should happen to be passing,** come and visit our factory.

If it were not for/if it hadn't been for

This expression describes how one event is dependent on another.

If it **weren't for** Martha Johnson, the Assistant Manager, our company would be in a terrible mess.

If it **hadn't been for** the Managing Director, the company would have long gone bankrupt.

***Will* and *would* for politeness and emphasis**

These auxiliaries can be used as polite forms.

If you **will/would wait** here, I'll see if Mr Smith can see you.

Will can also be used for emphasis, meaning 'insist on doing'.

If you **will** eat so many sweets, no wonder you put on weight! (insist on eating sweets)

Other ways of making a conditional sentence

Supposing, otherwise

Supposing or *suppose* can replace *if,* mostly in everyday speech.

Supposing your employer didn't have money to pay salaries this month, what would you do?

Otherwise means 'or if not'. It can be placed at the beginning or the end of the sentence.

If banks didn't pay high pay levels, staff might go and work for their US and Asian rivals.

Banks have argued that they need to maintain high pay levels to retain staff that might **otherwise** go and work for US and Asian rivals not limited by any caps. (The Economist)

But for

This structure can replace *if not.* It is used in formal language, and must be followed by a noun form.

If you hadn't helped us, we wouldn't have overcome the crisis.

But for your help, we wouldn't have overcome the crisis.

If so/if not

These structures can refer to a sentence understood but not stated.

A study, commissioned from an independent consultant by TenneT, reckons that less than 6GW of the planned 14GW of turbines are likely to be built by 2023. **If so**, laments VZBV, a consumer body, Germans will end up paying heavily for a lot of useless transmission gear out at sea. (The Economist)

Colloquial omission of *if*

An imperative can be used instead of an *if* clause in everyday speech.

Take a seat, and I'll make the presentation of the last month's sales.

(If you take a seat ...)

***If* and adjectives**

In expressions such as *if it is necessary/possible* it is possible to omit the verb *be.*

If interested, apply within.

Barack Obama, he claimed, was drawing a red line around the city and, **if necessary**, would "drop FATCA on them".

(The Economist)

Formally *if* can mean *although*, usually *as if*+ adjective.

The building was impressive, if a little poorly decorated.

1. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verbs in brackets:

1. But the UN's Environment Programme reckons that even if all countries ________________ (honour) their existing commitments, global emissions in 2020 ________________ (exceed) the likeliest total consistent with that pledge by the equivalent of up to 11 gigatonnes of carbon dioxide.

2. If you _______________ (think) of anything nice to say, _______________ (say) anything at all.
3. That _______________ (give) oil from the tar sands much easier access to refineries in Texas, even if the rest of the project _______________ (remain) in limbo.
4. The technology ___________ yet ___________ (have) a future—if the government _______________ (prepare) to put a little more of its money where its carbon is.
5. Similarly if I _______________ (make) pasta then dry it and stick it in boxes, I _______________ (manufacture). If I _______________ (make) fresh pasta and serve it to you on a plate with my pea pesto that's services.
6. If America _______________ (create) new jobs in the tradable sector, it _______________ (be) presumably because creation of such jobs is economically problematic:
7. And it _______________ (be) surprising if India _______________ (be) hurt by the agonies of the rich world—after all from China to Brazil investors are jittery about the outlook, too.
8. The ECB _______________ (step up) its purchases of bonds of troubled euro-zone countries if a credible fiscal compact _______________ (agree) at the EU summit on December 9th.
9. If private investors _______________ (take losses), then other governments _______________ (step in) to make good on obligations.
10. If the referendum _______________ (go ahead), it is not even certain that 40% of the electorate, the required minimum to validate the result, _______________ (turn out) to vote.
11. If Greece _______________ (end up) with an early election, New Democracy ___________ surely ___________ (finish) ahead of Pasok, but it may not win an outright majority.
12. If Mr Ryan's plan _______________ (adopt) it _______________ (guarantee) benefits to retirees-meaning that Medicare would still exist as an entitlement programme-it would have introduced an element of means-testing, in that some beneficiaries _______________ (receive) more financial help from the government than others.
13. Big consumer-tech firms _______________ (need) to intensify their efforts to police subcontractors and think even harder about how to make their products greener if they _______________ (be to) avoid continual criticism in the post-PC world.
14. If its borrowing costs _______________ (be to) climb for a sustained period its debt _______________ (begin) to look unaffordable, prompting further selling and further increases in bond yields.
15. We can only guess at what W.G. Sebald, or "Max" to his friends, _______________ (go on) to write if he _______________ (die) unexpectedly in 2001, aged 57.

(adapted from The Economist)

4.1.6 Building vocabulary knowledge

WORK

A. The **noun *work*** has several meanings:

a) activity that is part of a job or occupation
b) place of employment
c) time that a person spends at the place of employment
d) something made or done
e) artistic or intellectual creation

Match each meaning with the following examples:

1. The museum has many works by Picasso as well as other modern painters.
2. Your work is satisfactory.
3. Much of my work involves talking on the phone.
4. She'll be at work until late this afternoon.
5. I'll meet you after work.

a) _________ d) _________
b) _________ e) _________
c) _________

B. Likewise, the **verb**:

a) to have a paid job.
b) to exert or make somebody exert physical or mental effort in order to do, make, or accomplish something.
c) to function or operate or cause something to function or operate.
d) to be successful.
e) to know how to use a machine or piece of equipment.

Match each meaning with the following examples:

1. Our relationship just isn't working.
2. Mike works for a computer company.
3. The television doesn't work properly.
4. Do you know how to work the video recorder?
5. The instructors worked us very hard on the survival course.

a) __________ d) __________
b) __________ e) __________
c) __________

C. Phrasal verbs:

work out	1. to be the result of a mathematical calculation. 2. to happen or develop in a particular way. 3. to use reasoning or calculation either to discover or understand (an answer or an idea) or to make (a decision or a plan). 4. to exercise in order to improve the strength or appearance of your body.
work through	to work without stopping for a period of time.
work up	to improve (a piece of work such as a study or a piece of writing), esp. gradually.
work sb up	to make someone feel upset, worried, or excited.
work around/round sth	to organise an activity so that things that could cause problems do not prevent you from doing what you want to do.
work on/upon sth	1. to spend time working in order to produce or repair something. 2. to try hard to improve something. 3. to depend on something being true when you are making plans or calculating something.
work off	to get rid of sth unpleasant (feeling, emotion, state).

Fill in the gaps below with suitable phrasal verbs from above:

1. We hope to ________ the data we've collected _____ into a series of reports.
2. How are things ________ _____ at home with the new baby?
3. She's based in the lab, _______ full-time _____ a cure for AIDS.
4. I often start at 7.30 and _______ _____ until midnight.

5. They knew how to ________ ______ the import restrictions.
6. The safe load for a truck of this size ________ _____ at nearly twenty tonnes.
7. Do something to ______ _____ your frustration with the job or you'll become ill.
8. His dancing technique is good, but he needs to _______ ____ his fitness.
9. He'd ________ himself _____ about the interview until he was in quite a state.
10. Jean ________ _____ in the gym two or three times a week.
11. We're ________ _____ the assumption that a third of the people we've invited won't come.
12. There will be a full investigation to _______ _____ what caused the accident.

D. Idioms:

work like a charm/ magic	if a plan or method works like a charm, it has exactly the effect that you want it to.
do sb's dirty work	to do something unpleasant or difficult for someone else because they do not want to do it themselves.
grunt work (A.E., infml.)	hard work that is not very interesting.
make short work of sth	to deal with or finish something quickly.
have your work cut out (for you)	if you have your work cut out, you have something very difficult to do.
work against the clock	to work very fast because you know you only have a limited amount of time to do something.
be all in a day's work	if something difficult or strange is all in a day's work for someone, it is a usual part of their job.
work one's fingers to the bones	if someone works their fingers to the bone they work extremely hard, esp. for a long time.
work like a dog/a Trojan	to work very hard.
Nice work if you can get it!	something that you say when you are talking about a way of earning money easily that you would do if you had the opportunity.
work to rule	if people work to rule, they carefully obey all of the rules and instructions given

to them about their jobs with the intention of reducing the amount of work they do.

Fill in the gaps below with suitable idioms from the list above:

1. We _______________ of the food that was put in front of us.
2. She _______________________________ to provide a home and food for seven children.
3. Her job was nothing glamorous - a lot of ____________ drafting agreements for others to sign.
4. We're training a completely new team, so we've got our work cut out for us.
5. Top soap opera stars are paid around £2,000 an episode. __________________ __________!
6. Scientists were _______________________ to collect specimens before the volcano erupted again.
7. People at Barnaba started ________________ as a protest against low pay and bad working conditions.
8. Tell her yourself – I'm not going to ______________________!
9. He ___________________ all day to finish the wallpapering.
10. We worked in blizzard conditions to restore all the power lines, but ___________ __________.
11. I tried that stain remover you gave me on my tablecloth and it ______________ __________.

E. **Collocations**:

Different nouns can combine with work, either pre-, or post-positioned. Find suitable collocations with the following nouns: *detective, permit, camera, surface, donkey, ethic, routine, experience.*

__________ work	work __________
__________ work	work __________
__________ work	work __________
__________ work	work __________

Now fill in the gaps below with the collocations you found above:

1. The _________ _________ in some of these animal documentaries is fantastic.
2. After a lot of _________ _________, I managed to find out where my old school friend was living.
3. The ________ ________ was never very strong in Simon.

4. Many firms understand that giving ________ ________ to students from colleges and schools will benefit everyone in the long term.
5. I'm sick and tired of this _________ _________, I have to find something else to suit my education and abilities.
6. Plastic coated _________ _________ are easy to keep clean.
7. Kevin applied again for a permanent _________ _________ in France.
8. Why should I do all the __________ __________ while you sit around doing nothing?

F. Synonyms:

CORE MEANING: sustained effort required to do or produce something

work the physical and mental effort employed to do or achieve something. It can be used to talk about animals and machines as well as people;

labour strenuous work, usually physical;

toil tiring, often tedious, physical work;

drudgery work that is strenuous and not at all rewarding. Used especially of work that is sustained over a long period.

1. People doing jobs that involve manual __________ use up a lot of energy.
2. Johnny got the house quite cheap but he had to do a lot of _________ on it.
3. Electronic information retrieval will remove much of the _________ of research and leave time for the more interesting bits.
4. An illegal worker will earn more here in a week than he would in a month of _________ back home.

Other possible synonyms: - employment, job, vocation, occupation
- effort, exertion
- composition, design, creation, masterpiece, piece, product, production

3. Read the text below about the history of a company:

Coillte was ………. a) under the Forestry Act 1988, which defines the principal objectives and duties of the company. These objectives and duties are elaborated in the companies' Memorandum and b)…………… The company is a private limited company registered under and c)……….. to the Companies Acts 1963-86. All of the d)………….. in the company are held by the Minister for Finance and the Minister for the Marine and Natural Resources on behalf of the Irish State. The Board of Directors is e)………… by the Minister for the Marine and Natural Resources.

Coillte is organised in two principal business f)………..: Coillte Forest which manages our core forestry business and Coillte Enterprises which g)……………… a range of businesses developed from the company's core skills and forest h)……….. In addition the company has one wholly-owned i)………….. company Coillte Consult Ltd. which provides consultancy services in Ireland and overseas. Coillte is also a 35% j)…………. in its associated company Louisiana-Pacific Coillte Ireland Ltd. which manufactures Oriented Strand Board. These business k)……….. are supported by a number of corporate functions including l)……………, Human Resources, Corporate Affairs and Public Relations.

(adapted from http://www.coillte.ie/about_coillte/company_structure.htm)

Fill in the gaps in the text above with the missing words:

1. divisions	7. Articles of Association
2. subject	8. entities
3. assets	9. comprise
4. shares	10. shareholder
5. established	11. Finance
6. subsidiary	12. appointed

4. Read the beginning of an article about internet advertising and use the words on the right, listed 1-12, to form a word that fits in the same numbered space in the text. E.g. **0 – efficiency**.

The ultimate marketing machine

IN TERMS of **0.** ______, if not size, the advertising industry is only now starting to grow out of its century-long **1.** _____,	**0. EFFICIENT**
which might be called "the Wanamaker era". It was John	**1. INFANT**
Wanamaker, a **2.** _____ Christian merchant from Philadelphia, who in the 1870s not only invented department stores and price tags (to eliminate haggling[24], since everybody should be equal before God and price), but	**2. DEVOTION**
also became the first modern **3.** _____ when he bought space	**3. ADVERT**
in **4.** _______ to promote his stores. He went about it in a	**4. NEW**

[24] to haggle.

Christian way, neither advertising on Sundays nor fibbing[♣] (thus **5.** ______ the concept of "truth in advertising"). And, with his precise business mind, he expounded[♣] a **6.** ______ that has ever since seemed like an economic law: "Half the money I spend on **7.** ______ is wasted," he said. "The trouble is, I don't know which half."	**5. MINT** **6. WIT** **7 ADVERT**
Wanamaker's wasted half is not entirely **8.** ______. The worldwide advertising industry is likely to be worth $428 billion in revenues this year, according to ZenithOptimedia, a market-research firm. Greg Stuart, the author of a **9.** ______ book on the industry and the boss of the Interactive Advertising Bureau, a trade **10.** ______, estimates that advertisers waste—that is, they send messages that reach the wrong audience or none at all—$112 billion a year in America and $220 billion **11.** _______, or just over half of their total spending. Wanamaker was **12.** ______ accurate.	**8 PROVERB** **9. COME** **10. ASSOCIATE** **11 WORLD** **12. REMARK**

(From The Economist Print Edition, http://www.economist.com)

1.	________	7.	________
2.	________	8.	________
3.	________	9.	________
4.	________	10.	________
5.	________	11.	________
6.	________	12.	________

5. Read the text below about stress in hierarchies. For each gap 1-10 write one word against the corresponding number. There is an example at the beginning: **0** – **reasons**.

STRESS IN HIERARCHIES

by Michael Marmot

There may be economic **0.** ____________ for paying huge salaries and bonuses to senior executives, but there is no scientific **1.** ____________ for saying that they need to be compensated **2.** ____________ their long working hours and stressful jobs. On the contrary, our **3.** ____________ have shown consistently that, in naturally hierarchical mammals such as *homo sapiens*, individuals at the top of the tree are much healthier and suffer less stress than those lower down.

4. ____________ to work fast or under pressure shows little sign of being bad for your health on its own. The most stressful jobs are those where the person has the least control, least variety and little or no **5.**

♣fib v. (-bb-) to tell a lie, usually about sth that is not important

♣ expound v. ~ sth (to sb) | ~ on sth (formal) to explain sth by talking about it in detail

___________ to develop or use new skills. In our study of the British Civil Service, for example, the lowest grades are three times more likely to die over a ten year period than senior administrators and they have six times more sick leave, although they are not **6.** ___________ by any absolute standards.
The three classic **7.** ___________ factors for heart disease--cholesterol levels, blood pressure and smoking—**8.** ___________ for only a third of the different rates of heart disease that we found. There is some strongly **9.** ___________ evidence that people at the bottom of a hierarchy produce higher levels of a stress hormone called cortisol and this can cause widespread biological **10.** ___________ in the long term, including heart disease and diabetes. Stress over long periods also **11.** ___________ the immune system. This contributes to the higher levels of cancer and infectious **12.** ___________ in the lower social classifications.

(http://www.on-the-net.com/interskills/minis/business.htm)

1.	________	7.	________
2.	________	8.	________
3.	________	9.	________
4.	________	10.	________
5.	________	11.	________
6.	________	12.	________

4.2 Translation in the business English class

Culture is indissolubly linked with language, as I already mentioned above. In a similar vein, Toury (1995) also indicated that a translator is confronted with at least two languages and two cultures or cultural traditions and patterns. The intrinsic cultural aspects that are identified in a source text must be handled with extreme care in order to establish the most suitable rendering into the target language, through the right techniques.

Despite a limited number of studies on translation competence development, there is one that should be mentioned in our context, i.e. Campbell's (1998) research relying on applied linguistics methodologies and principles. He investigated the translation competence of non-native speakers' when translating from their mother tongue into English. His respondents were speakers of Arabic as a mother tongue, enrolled on a translation and interpretation programme at an Australian university. As a result of data analysis and interpretation, he designed a three-layered framework of translation competence:

1) textual competence (understood as the ability to produce TL texts with "structural features of formal, written English" Campbell 1998, p. 73). Assessment benchmarks can be nominalisations, passives, prepositional phrases, type or token ratios, word length, etc.;

2) disposition (which is represented by the translators' behaviours in choosing different words when dealing with TL texts). The coordinates he suggests are: persistent vs capitulating; and prudent vs risk-taking. Combinations of the above typologies will result in four types of behaviours:

a) persistent and risk-taking;
b) risk-taking and capitulating;
c) capitulating and prudent;
d) prudent and persistent.

3) monitoring competence, made up of two sub-components: self-awareness, and editing.

Nevertheless, this model overlooks the essential issue of translation equivalence (grammatical, semantic, pragmatic, cultural, etc.). In particular the cultural and pragmatic characteristics of different languages are extremely important, even for the very speakers of a certain language. A second model was designed by Sofer (1996), who brought forward ten commandments for professional translators:

1. A thorough knowledge of both SL and TL;
2. A thorough "at-homeness" in both cultures;
3. Keeping up with changes in the language and being up-to-date in all of its nuances and neologisms;
4. Always translating from another language into one's native language;
5. Being able to translate in more than one area of knowledge;
6. Possessing ease of writing or speaking and the ability to articulate quickly and accurately, either orally or in writing;
7. Developing a good speed of translation;

8. Developing research skills, being able to retrieve reference sources needed in producing high quality translation;
9. Being familiar with the latest technological advances;
10. Being able to understand the type of potential one's language specialty has in a certain geographic area (pp. 33-37).

By comparing the two models, we can identify a certain down-to-earthiness, a propensity towards practical aspects of the translation profession, by highlighting in particular the personal skills that a translator should develop. Nevertheless, teachers also need to pay heed to the explicit ability to achieve equivalence at lexical, semantic, textual (discursive), pragmatic (c.f. Baker 1992), cultural level (c.f. Katan 2004) that a translator-to-be needs to develop.

4.2.1 Translation of figurative business language

Culture consists of explicit and implicit patterns of behaviour, which have been acquired and transmitted through symbols, thus accounting for the distinctive accomplishments of human groups, including embodiments in artefacts. The quintessential core of culture is made up of traditional (i.e., historically derived and determined) concepts and ideas, and especially their ensuing values. On the one hand, culture systems may be understood as results or products of action, while on the other hand, they may represent conditioning factors of future action. I share the view that metaphoric and idiomatic expressions of a given culture empower us to understand how the members of that specific culture map out their experience of the world and record it into their mother tongue (Popescu 2015). It has been proved by researchers that culture influences metaphors and idioms in a significant way.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 12), considered culture as a means of "providing, among other things, a pool of available metaphors for making sense of reality". Moreover, living "by a metaphor is to have your reality structured by that metaphor and to base your perceptions and actions upon that structuring of reality." The premise of these two forefathers of the “conceptual metaphor” theory rests on the fact that metaphor is not merely a stylistic device of language, but that “*thought* itself is metaphorical in nature”. The conceptual structure is therefore based on correspondences or *mappings* between conceptual domains. These mappings work in a natural manner, as some of them are already imprinted in the human mind evolving from background cultural knowledge, in the shape of different similarities between concepts.

It has also been stated that metaphors and idioms are intrinsically related to culture as they mirror culture-bound aspects. Different researchers (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, Lakoff & Turner 1989, Brown 2003, Reeves 2005) hold that metaphors are essential for our perception of reality, helping us apprehend new concepts by using familiar domains. These are used to explain an unknown situation when other linguistic devices prove powerless or at least insufficient. Maasen and Weingart (1995, p. 9) define metaphors as “messengers of meaning”, a phrase which can be likewise assigned to idioms as they both describe complex entities in condensed form.

According to Avădanei (1994, p. 16) metaphor is present in unequivocally all perceivable dimensions of human existence, being not a matter of words but rather conceptual in nature. This is the primary mechanism through which we grasp abstract concepts and achieve abstract reasoning. Metaphors, as already stated by Lakoff (1993, p. 245) allow us to comprehend “a relatively abstract or inherently unstructured subject matter in terms of a more concrete or at least more highly structured subject matter.”

Furthermore, in Chițoran’s view (1973, pp. 69-70), there are cultural differences between speakers of different communities, which need to be taken into consideration, especially when these speakers / language users come in contact. Such dissimilarities in environment, climate, cultural evolution, etc., among different communities can be particularly meaningful. Nevertheless, human societies are connected through a common biological history. Although the objective, tangible reality in which we live is not completely identical, it is, to a great extent, similar (Chițoran 1973, pp. 69-70).

Nevertheless, our world consists of objects and beings, and we deal with them on a daily basis, we need to communicate messages about them and to them, and to position ourselves in relation to these things, people or objects. This represents a characteristic that is typical of all human societies, and therefore different language systems are not exactly untranslatable, as the perception of human reality is characteristic of all humans regardless of the culture they belong to.

Culture, as an important aspect in translation, has been addressed by various scholars (Lefevere & Bassnett 1990; Baker 1992; Steiner 1998: Conway 2012). In Romania, Dimitriu (2006) also spoke about a cultural turn in Translation Studies (TS) in the 1980s, when the researchers' attention shifts towards cultural studies in the analysis of translations, "involving ideological pressures […] that may be associated with the translator's work" (p. 19).

With reference to translation of figurative language in general, and metaphor in particular, an interesting theory is provided by Nili Madelblit (1996), i.e. the 'Cognitive Translation Hypothesis', according to which we can identify two types of conditions in the translation process: Similar Mapping Condition (SMC) and Different Mapping Condition (DMC). Madelblit (1996, p. 493) states that there is a difference in reaction time which is assignable to "a conceptual shift that the translator is required to make between the conceptual mapping systems of the source and target languages", and this is the reason why metaphorical expressions are more complicated and time-consuming to translate if they resort to a different cognitive domain as compared to that of the equivalent expression in the target language. That is to say, a translator's task becomes more difficult and lengthy when they have to look for a different conceptual mapping (a different cognitive domain) for a metaphorical expression. A different cognitive equivalent for metaphors in SL that has to be identified in the TL makes the translator's job so much more intricate, and the result, in the second situation of different mapping condition, may very rarely be a metaphor. Most often, it is a paraphrase, a simile, a footnote (the translator's explanation of the concept, or altogether omitted).

Starting from the assumption that translation of metaphors and idioms still may be possible, I hold that only by delving into the cultural peculiarities and conceptual mind-sets of the source and target language, and by understanding similarities and differences in the two cultures, this may be achieved.

For the purposes of this chapter, I will only present one article from the translation experiment I carried out with the MA students in English Language and Literature, 1st year, as part of their course in Translation Theory and Practice. The 15 informants were all at an upper-intermediate to advanced English language proficiency, some of them already teachers of English (5), and 9 of them already held a translator's licence (obtained from the Ministry of Justice), although none was a professional translator. In Romania, one can become a certified translator (with a licence from the Ministry of Justice) upon completion of BA studies in English Philology, or upon successful passing of an examination with the Ministry of Culture. The experiment consisted in selecting 7 relevant articles in Romanian and 7 in English, assigning the students to do the translation individually, then collecting the translations, analysing them from a cultural transfer perspective, and re-doing the translation as a collective work during class. The results were then interpreted individually by the students, who tried to explain the problematic issues that they encountered. The teacher made initially a hand-coded identification of metaphors and "unusual" phrases or expressions, and then compared them with the students' own list of these idiomatic expressions.

The experiment that I undertook was the result of the problem statement that students of English language and literature still have difficulties in translating cultural concepts from one language into another. The issues at stake in this case are whether:

a) there exist universals and particulars in metaphorical and idiomatic language in business English and Romanian, in particular in journalese (the genre that was handiest for us to analyse);

b) the correspondence, equivalence and non-equivalence in translating the business press from English into Romanian and vice versa are accessible to MA students and whether they are familiar with the appropriate translation strategies;

c) there are differences in the informants' translations of the same texts and the reasons for similarities or variances;

d) the translation strategies employed by the students were correct and yielded appropriate results;

e) the teacher may come up with recommendations and good practice as to the translation strategies used in the case of figurative business language.

The text that I will present below was published in the print edition of The Economist, 5 February 2009. It is a text that made reference to the economic crisis that hit the whole world at that time, and it presents the economic and social reality of the United States of America. The challenge posed by this article to Romanian students is this very reference to a reality that they were not familiar with and that was linguistically rendered, in particular by the American society.

From the very outset, the title "paying the piper"[25] is an idiom that conjures up a story that Romanian kids are not very familiar with. In order for the students to understand the underlying meaning of "paying the piper" we watched the beginning of the children's movie and explained that story, and more importantly, the moral behind it.

Seven of the students managed to use a Romanian idiom, "după faptă și răsplată", while two used the expression to bear the consequences (which is correct, but not idiomatic), four employed phrases containing the verb *to pay* or the noun *payment*. Sadly, two students preferred to leave it out altogether and gave no translation to the title.

Table 9. Semantic rendering of the title "Paying the piper"

după faptă și răsplată[26] (Romanian idiom)	bear the consequences[27]	phrase containing to pay/payment	no translation
7	2	4	2

The next challenging expression was "capping the non-equity based remuneration of executives", which made reference to the corporate practice in the United States at that time to compensate the executives for the bad performance of the company, as a result of the generalised crisis. As non-business

[25] pay the piper – idiom, to face the results of one's actions; to receive punishment for something.

[26] any deed will have consequences.

[27] accept responsibility for the negative results or effects of one's choice or action.

students, they lacked the specialist knowledge in economic phenomena to understand that non-equity referred to something else than justice, which was the denotative meaning of their dictionary.

Nevertheless, eight students managed to understand the meaning (later on I learned that they had reliable mono- and bilingual dictionaries), although the rendering into Romanian sounded rather awkward. Even the verb "to cap[28]" was mistakenly translated by the majority of the students (to forge, to break, to stop, etc.). The noun "executives" was translated in most cases as "executivi", although this word is not completely adopted by the contemporary Romanian language, and is used preponderantly in business journalese. The management theory in Romanian uses the syntagm "manageri de vârf", or "directori executivi". One translation was "executive", which would be the Romanian plural, feminine form, which is completely erroneous in the context, probably assignable to a mere typo.

1 „parasutisti". Oprirea cresterii excesive a **remuner**arii neechitabile pentru conducatorii companiilor c
2 arile, altele decat cele de capital bazate pe **remuner**atia directorilor din companiile care primesc "asis
3 il-out-uri noi. Limitand inegalitatea bazata pe **remuner**atia executivelor in companii primind o "asistenta
4 mai noi in situatia de a falimenta. Falsificand **remuner**atia non-echitabila a directorilor de companii care
5 oilor cautionari. A cresta / fisura salarizarea/**remuner**atiei nebazata pe capital a directorilor executivi d
6 ment. Limitarea la 500.000 $ pe an a salariului/**remuner**atiei ce nu se bazeaza pe capital al directorilor
7 mai pentru cautiunile noi. Plafonarea salariilor/**remuner**atiei directorilor companiilor alta decat in instru
8 Stoparea **remuner**atiei executivilor bazate pe inechitate in companii
9 ntru sprijinurile financiare recente. Limitarea **remuner**atiei inegale a managerilor de varf din cadrul comp
10 spat eliberati / scosi din impas. Plafonarea **remuner**atiei nebazata pe capital a directorilor in compani
11 prima data probleme financiare. Plafonarea **remuner**atiei nereferitoare la capital, pentru directorii d
12 ati salvate de greutatile financiare. Plafonarea **remuner**atiei non-capitaluri de executivi in companii care
13 neficiat recent de ajutor financiar. Plafonarea **remuner**atiei non-equity-based a directorilor in companii c
14 de aceste ajutoare financiare. Aplicarea altei **remuner**atii decat cea de capital pentru directori in compa

[28] *to cap* v. to prevent from growing or spreading: set an upper limit on sth.

15	ar pentru noii garanti. Limitand neechitatea **remuner**atiilor directorilor din companii care primesc „asi

Figure 7 Translations of "capping the non-equity-based remuneration[29] of executives"

As can be seen from the figure above, out of the 15 informants, one left the term in English, not knowing what *non-equity-based remuneration* means, and six perceived *non-equity* as *inequity*, eight understood that equity refers to the "value of the shares issued by a company", although the rendering in Romanian was rather unclear in most of the cases (e.g. which is not based/unbased on capital; applying a different remuneration from that of capital, etc.).

Table 10. Semantic rendering of the expression "non-equity-based remuneration"

inequity	stock or pseudo stock programs	no translation
6 1 incorrect lexical rendering	8 7 unclear renderings	1 English version

As can be seen in Figure 8 below, *executives* in the expression "failed executives" was translated as "directors" – 11 cases, "managers" – 2 instances, no translation in one case. *Failed* was translated as "shipwrecked" (3), "bankrupt" (3), "broken down" (1), "fallen down" (1), "in danger" (1), "unsuccessful" (1), "laid off" (1), "incompetent" (1), "about to drown" (1), "crumbled" (1), no translation (1). At times I had the impression that students were using Google Translate ™ for their translations (which I obviously could not prove), as words/phrases which were used metaphorically were left untranslated, but the pre-position of the adjective "failed" is not typical for the Romanian speaker (in Romanian, adjectives are usually post-positioned). Moreover, the phrase "golden

[29] *equity-based compensation* – stock or pseudo stock programs an employer uses to provide actual or perceived ownership in the company which ties an employee's compensation to the long-term success of the company. The most common examples are stock options.

parachutes[30]” was mostly translated word-for-word (rather inaccurately, as the figurative load of the business idiom was lost).

1 interzicerea „parasutelor de aur” pentru managerii care au esuat probabil va fi
2 interzicerea beneficiilor compensatorii in cazul directorilor falimentari este posibil
3 si a bonusurilor pentru directorii care au esuat ar putea părea celor mai mulți dintre
4 interzicerea platilor compensatorii pentru managerii companiilor falimentare este
5 interzicerea „parasutelor de aur” pentru directorii prabusiti, sunt de natură să
6 interzicerea pachetelor de plăți compensatorii pentru directorii falimentari este
7 iterzicand “parasutele aurite/de aur” pentru directorii care clacheaza este de natura
8 interzicerea “colacilor de salvare” pentru directorii in pericol este perceputa
9 a interzice / bloca “parasute de aur” pentru directorii executivi care au decazut ar
10 interzicerea „parasutelor de aur” pentru failed directorii probabil vor fi simtite
11 interzicerea “colacului de salvare” pentru directorii concediati in urma preluarii firmei vor fi percepute
12 interzicerea acordării beneficiilor pentru directori incompetenți este probabil consi
13 oferind “parasutele de aur” pentru executivele fara success este ca si cand ai lovi
14 interzicerea „parasute de aur” pentru directori esuati e posibil sa lovească majoritatea americanilor ca
15 interzicerea “colacilor de salvare” pentru cei care sunt pe cale sa se inece este p

Figure 8. Translations of “failed executives” and “golden parachutes”

Table 11. Translation of “failed”

bankrupt	shipwrecked	other	no translation
3	3	8 laid off incompetent unsuccessful about to drown fallen down / debased in danger who had a breakdown	1

The phrasal verb “bail out”[31] is even trickier for a translator, as it is used with a double meaning – the denotative meaning of *jumping out of a plane*, and being financially *saved from disaster*.

[30] a generous severance agreement for a corporate executive in the event of a sudden dismissal (as because of a merger).

[31] *bail out* v. phr. 1. to jump out of a plane that is going to crash; 2. to escape from a situation that you no longer want to be involved in; *bail sb out of sth* to rescue somebody from a difficult situation.

In the text under scrutiny, the noun form was used – *bail-outs* in order to refer to the executives who have been rescued from a difficult situation. As can be seen in the figure below, students did not fully understood the meaning of the phrase in the broader socio-economic context. The most frequent translation strategy was that of explicitation, in six cases with "the ones who…", in one instance with the English term being left as such (untranslated). Only four subjects grasped the idea of executives rescued from a difficult situation. Four instances referred only to financial help/support, while three translations referred to the more specialised meaning of "bail out", i.e. to set (a person) free by giving such money to a court of law, e.g. the new guarantors. There was one semantic error – "the new reimbursements" and one hypernym of *bail-outs*, i.e. the companies for which these people used to work ("entities saved from financial hurdles"), and one attempt at metaphor, which is actually senseless in Romanian, i.e. "parachuters".

1	ape 400,000 de dolari, iar regulile vor fi aplicate si viitorilor „parasutisti".
2	de dolari si ca regulile se vor aplica numai noilor salvati de la faliment.
3	400.000$ iar regulile se vor aplica doar pentru sprijinurile financiare recente.
4	se vor aplica doar celor care au beneficiat recent de aceste ajutoare financiare.
5	doar 400,000 dolari si normele se vor aplica doar pentru noii garanti.
6	dolari si regulile se vor aplica doar celor mai noi in situatia de a falimenta.
7	Obama insusi castiga 400.000$ si regulile se vor aplica doar noilor cautionari.
8	ile vor fi puse in aplicare doar pentru cei proaspat eliberati / scosi din impas.
9	astiga doar 400.000 dolari, si normele se vor aplica numai pentru cautiunile noi.
10	entarile se vor aplica doar celor care au beneficiat recent de ajutor financiar.
11	gulile urmeaza fi aplicate doar noilor entitati salvate de greutatile financiare.
12	400.000 dolari si regulile se vor aplica numai la bail-out-uri noi.
13	regulile se vor aplica doar celor care au pentru prima data probleme financiare.
14	se vor aplica doar celor care au beneficiat recent de aceste ajutoare financiare.
15	400.000 de dolari si faptul ca normele se vor aplica numai la noile rambursari.

Figure 9. Translation of "new bail-outs"

In the following I will present the results of the translation made by students of the expression "to curb fat-cat salaries". In two instances, "to curb[32]" was translated with an idiom (Rom. locuțiune verbală) "a ține în frâu" (literally "hold the reins of huge salaries"). This represents an interesting strategy, when a mere verb in the SL is translated through a metaphorical expression in the TL. Otherwise, the verb was translated as can be seen below (Figure 10 and Table 12). While "to cut" may be

[32] to control or limit sth that is not wanted.

understandable, as salaries is usually associated in the collective mind with this verb, it is unexplainable why one student translated it as "to polish".

Table 12. Translation of "to curb"

idiom	to reduce / to lower	to limit	to control	other
2	5	4	2	2 to cut to polish

"Fat cat salaries[33]" was also translated as follows: three times *swollen,* four times as *big*, two as *huge*, one as *whopping*, one *fat*, and in one instance the phrase was left intact, post-positioned, and in three cases there was no translation (in general, salaries was followed by another noun in the genitive case (e.g. of the rich men, of the privileged).

1	când un preşedinte a încercat să țină în frâu salariile uriaşe a fost în anul
2	dată când un preşedinte a încercat să reducă salariile umflate a fost în 1993,
3	oară când un preşedinte a încercat să limiteze salariile babane a fost în 1993
4	dată când un preşedinte a încercat să micşoreze salariile uriaşe a fost în 199
5	dată când un preşedinte a încercat să controleze salariile foarte „grase" a fos
6	preşedinte a încercat să țină în frâu salariile umflate a fost în 1993, când Bi
7	un preşedinte a încercat să limiteze salariile mari a fost în 1993, când Bill
8	preşedinte a încercat să taie salariile bogătaşilor a fost în 1993, când Bill
9	când un preşedinte a încercat să reducă salariile umflate a fost în 1993, când
10	preşedinte a încercat să controleze salariile persoanelor privilegiate a fost î
11	cand un preşedinte a încercat să şlefuiască salariile a fost în 1993, când Bill
12	când un preşedinte a încercat să reducă salariile fat-cat a fost în 1993, când
13	un preşedinte a încercat să reducă salariile mari a fost în 1993, când Bill
14	când un preşedinte a încercat să limiteze salariile mari a fost în 1993, când
15	un preşedinte a încercat să limiteze salariile mari a fost în 1993, când Bill

Figure 10 Translations of "curb fat cat salaries"

For reasons of space, I will only concentrate on yet another difficult sentence: "Perks were devised that got around[34] the cap[35]". In the following I will give the translations provided by the students, of whom, unfortunately, only a few managed to understand the real meaning.

1	Beneficiile acordate au fost astfel stabilite că s-au depăşit aşteptările
2	Câştigurile suplimentare au fost asttfel gândite încât să ocolească limita de buget

[33] unreasonably high salaries and bonuses.
[34] to find a way of dealing with a problem or of avoiding it.
[35] a limit on the amount of money that someone can spend or charge.

3	Câştigurile suplimentare erau astfel ticluite încât să treacă de limitare
4	Beneficiile au fost înțelept planificate astfel încât să se încadreze în limitele plafoanelor
5	Beneficiile au fost împărțite,
6	Avantajele au fost concepute încât au influențat...
7	Cresterile exacerbate au fost divizate astfel incat s-au redus la “inflorire/crestere”
8	Castigurile suplimentare au fost concepute ...
9	Indemnizatii speciale au fost concepute care that got around the cap
10	S-au gasit beneficii care au ocolit plafoanele
11	Câştigurile suplimentare au fost concepute să ocolească limita/plafonul
12	Beneficiile au fost impartite in asa fel incat sa limiteze suma de bani ce va fi cheltuita
13	Ridicările au fost divizate în jurul valorii de capac
14	Beneficiile au fost intelept planificate astfel incat sa ocoleasca plafoanele
15	Indemnizatiile speciale au fost concepute sa fie acordate celor “mari”

Figure 11. Translations of “Perks were devised that got around the cap”

The past participle in “were devised” was translated as “established”, “thought out”, “planned” (2), “conceived” (5), “concocted”, “found”, and unfortunately, as “divided” (4), which proved that those students did not understand the difference between *devise* and *divide*.
The phrasal verb “get around the cap” was correctly translated in only four cases out of 15, and in one instance, the word “budget” was not exactly appropriate to the context (see Table 5 below).

Table 13. Translations of “got around the cap”

the limit was avoided	distorted meaning	other translation	no translation	untranslated English version
4	2 - to remain within limit - to limit the sum of money that will be spent	6 - that went beyond expectations - to be given to the “big ones” - were reduced to an increase - were divided - divided the lid value - that they influenced	2	1

With reference to the five questions that underlie the current research, the following may be stated:

1. There exist universals and particulars in metaphorical and idiomatic language in business English and Romanian, in particular in journalese. In the case of universals, the translation of metaphors is much easier than in the case when the domains are different in the two languages.

2. Translation-theory related correspondence, equivalence and non-equivalence in translating the business press from English into Romanian and vice versa are in general terms accessible to MA students, although they still need extensive practice in order to become more familiar with the appropriate translation strategies.

3. There were clear differences in the informants' translations of the same texts. The reasons for similarities and variances were assignable to the mental processes that they carried out in order realise transfer from one conceptual mapping to a different one.

4. The translation strategies employed by the students were most of the time not correct and the results were not the ones expected by the teacher. Cultural substitution was achieved in less than 50% of the cases, while 40% of the translations were realised through paraphrase. Word-for-word translation was also employed, as well as omission. However, in many cases, I was confronted with the lack of specific linguistic knowledge of the students.

5. The teacher's task of making translation strategies more familiar and accessible to students and equipping them with adequate knowledge and skills needed in the process of intercultural transfer is by no means an easy one. Teachers may come up with recommendations and good practice as to the translation strategies used in the case of figurative business language, but only following explicit training and a lot of practice.

Classroom work is not enough, and this needs to be supplemented with specific practice, especially in communicational settings.

As for recommendations for further research and applications, given the fact that all languages are culture-bound, students need to be made aware of the fact that precedence should be given to the target culture before translating one term from the SL into the TL. Students also have to understand that using different translation strategies might be needed, so that sometimes paraphrasing might be a good solution for rendering a culture-specific concept.

4.2.2 Translation error analysis in Business English

In 2013, I published a study on translation error analysis, which itself has its origins in an older work (Popescu 2007b).

Students in Business and Public Administration at an intermediate level of English language proficiency produce faulty renditions of Romanian lexical and grammatical phrases into English. The interlanguage collocational and colligational patterns occurring in translations may be assignable to both mother tongue interference and students' developmental stage of language learning.

My choice of using translations of the written press in order to teach English is motivated by the fact that journalese is the best expression of the real language used by a nation. In general terms, language represents a means of passing on knowledge and thoughts, in close connection with society, civilisation, thinking, community, politics, etc. Therefore, a linguistic community would influence and mould the future development of a language through accepting, rejecting or adjusting novelty and innovation occurring in language (Coșeriu 1999). Moreover, my research also draws on Rodica Zafiu's research on Romanian journalese (2001), in which she identified metaphors grouped into cognitive categories, such as the metaphor of the road or zoomorphic metaphors. According to Coșeriu (1999, 2000-2001) a special relation is often established among words, attesting to their metaphoric and expressive-figurative load as well as to their associative character and collocability. Such relationships can occur either constantly or sporadically.

In journalese, this association of words often does not take into account the notional compatibility of terms, neither certain combinatory restrictions; the result often lies in the humorous or comical effect upon the reader (Zafiu 2001). The articles I selected from the Romanian press for my students to translate into English were addressed to the general public, however, with a business focus and reflected the then state of affairs. The errors the students made were divided into several categories, and were attributed to various reasons why they were committed.

From a didactic, pedagogic point of view, it has been proved that translation as a classroom technique is indeed beneficial, and can represent an extremely useful method in the learning and acquisition of a foreign/second language (Cook 1998; Vermeer 1998). The basic assumption I started from was that by interspersing the foreign language class with translation tasks, students will enhance both their linguistic and translation competences. Therefore, in order for a translator from L1 into L2 to be successful, they need to master a relatively independent-user stage in their language learning.

According to Gass and Selinker (2008), Second Language Acquisition (SLA) represents a complex field which undertakes to penetrate the processes behind the learning of a second language, although SLA study is different from research into language pedagogy, despite their interrelatedness.

Error Analysis started to be considered a scientific method on its own in the late 70's, thanks to the work done by Corder (1967), Richards (1971) and Selinker (1972), researchers who underscored various features of the second or foreign language learners' personal language system, which appears to be neither the mother tongue (L1), nor the foreign or second language (L2). The crucial shift that their findings brought about in linguistic research is a reconsideration of the relevance of errors committed by ESL (English as a Second Language) /EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners. Consequently, in Corder's opinion (1967), learners' errors are not made at random, but are systematic (he states that unsystematic errors are those that occur in an individual's native language); moreover, they are not considered as negative or otherwise interfering with learning / acquiring the Target Language, on the contrary, they denote an essential positive, facilitative factor, necessary to the learning process, rather symptomatic of individual learner strategies. Furthermore, Richards (1971) identified three categories of errors committed by learners:

a) interference errors caused by L1 transfer;

b) intralingual errors resulting from incorrectly (i.e. incomplete or overgeneralised) applying language rules (grammar, vocabulary, phonology);

c) developmental errors produced by the creation of faulty hypotheses in L2.

Along the same lines, Selinker (1972, 1992) developed the theory of interlanguage (IL), by which we refer to a third language, a new one, with its own phonological traits, lexis, grammar and discourse structure, etc. The concept of interlanguage confirms that the learners' speech is not a deficit system, that is to say, it is not a language packed with random errors, but an independent system with its own structures. This system consists of many elements, both from the NL and the TL.

Other elements to be found in the IL originate neither in the NL nor the TL, but they are new forms and represent the empirical core of interlanguage. The main processes which lead to the engendering of interlanguage are: language transfer (i.e. negative transfer, positive transfer, overuse, and avoidance), overgeneralisation (at phonetic, lexical, morpho-syntactic, discourse level) and simplification (perceived as both syntactic and semantic).

It should also not be overlooked the fact that mother tongue itself has an extremely important role in the process of SLA. According to Lado (1957), people have a tendency to transfer language forms and meanings, so that the distribution of the forms and meanings of their mother tongue and native culture will be found in the foreign language and culture.

Typically (Gass & Selinker, 2008), an error analysis framework consists of the following steps: collecting data (usually by compiling a learner corpus), identify and classify the types of errors; quantify errors, analyse source (interference or developmental error, etc.) and remedy (error analysis ultimately aims at preventing language learners from making errors through a pedagogical intervention, even one that is time-limited).

Starting from the premise that at any stage along the interlanguage continuum, the learners' language competence can be enhanced through encouraging the development of independent learning skills, I attempted to raise learners' awareness of L2 (EFL) naturally-occurring patterns or structures. One of the main principles of the learner-centred second/foreign language learning philosophy is that students should be able to identify, understand and remedy their own errors and consequently avoid them. Therefore, the tenet of the present research is that EFL students' translation competence can be boosted by empowering them to correct their errors through applying an appropriate teaching and learning methodology.

The experiment carried out among a group of 30 students of economics and public administration, aged 20-24, at an intermediate level of English proficiency was meant to answer the question of whether students can be trained to become independent learners, starting from controlled through semi-controlled correction to self-correction. Each student was assigned a translation task (one business-oriented text) from L1 (Romanian language) into L2 (English language). The L1 texts were selected from current issues of countrywide general audience broadsheets, each text of circa 500 words in length. Learners initially completed their tasks only using their paper dictionaries.

The English Learner Translation Corpus (ELTC) that resulted (15,555 words) was manually screened by the teacher in order to identify errors. Afterwards, errors were underlined for the students to analyse them and carry out their own remedial work.

As my main focus was learners' linguistic competence, as well as translation competence (from SL - Romanian into TL - English), I investigated learner errors from a triple standpoint: linguistic errors (i.e. morphological, collocational and syntactic), comprehension errors (i.e. misunderstanding of lexis or syntax) as well as translation errors (i.e. distorted meaning, omissions, additions, or inaccurate renditions of lexical items). Once the errors were identified and analysed, the next step was to design some tasks for the students to become aware of their own linguistic and translation competence and adopt appropriate strategies to improve their knowledge and skills, in particular their learning skills, besides ther linguistic and communicative ones. Self-assessment, self-learning and self-improvement are essential competences of a translator, who is in permanent need for professional development.

As previously mentioned, data was collected by manually identifying and computing the errors for each student per category mentioned above. In the following table are presented the taxonomy and occurrences of errors identified in the ELTC.

Table 14. A classification of students' translation errors
(from Popescu 2007b, 2013b)

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Type of error</th><th>Example</th><th>Occur rences</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Linguistic errors</td><td>Morphological</td><td>*… the news were positively received…
… the news was positively received…</td><td>251</td></tr>
<tr><td>Syntactic</td><td>* This is good, or this is bad?
Is this good or bad?</td><td>16</td></tr>
<tr><td>Collocational</td><td>* In vacation …
On vacation …
* … the building gets into fire.
… the building catches fire.</td><td>377</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Comprehension errors</td><td>Misunderstand ing of lexis</td><td>* The music of all days is increases (also morphological error)
Our daily music is getting more expensive</td><td>15</td></tr>
<tr><td>Misunderstand ing of syntax</td><td>* The party cost that mines that parks, towns and vocations camps will be taxed. (also morphological errors and misunderstanding of lexis)
Entertainment is expensive, therefore holiday camps, towns and villages will be taxed.</td><td>13</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">Translation errors</td><td>Distorted meaning</td><td>* The owners achieve this thing and they started to endow the pension…(also morphological error)
The owners have understood/ realised this, and …</td><td>27</td></tr>
<tr><td>Additions</td><td>* This conclusion could be taken taking a part of decision of Romanian office …
One could reach this conclusion after reading a decision of …</td><td>19</td></tr>
<tr><td>Omissions</td><td>* …even talk by rig tows and autovehicles in regime rent a car.
… not to mention harnesses, road or low-bed trailers, motor vehicles, rented on a rent-a-car basis.</td><td>28</td></tr>
<tr><td>Inaccurate renditions of lexical items</td><td>* … want to benefice of …
… want to benefit from/ take advantage of …
* … from the big occidentaly company …
… from the big western company …
* From the discussion haded with the liders …(also morph. error)
From the discussion we had with the leaders/ officials …
* Now the money stay here to be shared at the complicity table
Now the money stays here to be shared at the conspiracy round table</td><td>108</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Total Errors</td><td>854</td></tr>
</table>

The highest number of errors was detected in the areas of morphological (251) and collocational (377) errors, as well as inaccurate renditions of lexical items (108). This is clearly symptomatic for the fact that students' collocational competence is in need of improvement.

In the next stage, I made my students aware of their own errors and asked them to try and correct themselves, which they did, mostly by using the electronic tools available online. It is worth mentioning that it was again in the area of collocational errors that students most readily managed to make the appropriate corrections. The majority of self-corrected errors falling under the collocational type followed this pattern: V + Prep (change into, participate in, import from, etc.), Prepositional Phrases (at present, on the wane, at a seminar, etc.), Adjective + Noun (political game, domestic production), a.s.o.

Here are some examples of the errors made and how they were completely or partially corrected by students:

1. *...can *induce pressure on* market...
...can ***put*** *pressure on* market...
Corrected error: ***put*** pressure on - collocational error
Residual errors: on ***the*** market - morphological error
... ***may*** put pressure - morphological error
2. *...the *production's division* could balance the *intern market*...
production division could balance the *domestic market*,
Corrected error: ***domestic*** *market* - collocational error
Residual errors: ***would*** *balance*... - morphological error
... production ***segmentation*** - collocational error
(Popescu 2009)

There were too cases in which the students could not correct their errors, due to the fact that they lacked the necessary linguistic knowledge, and did not know where to look for correct structures. In this case, a collection of typical mistakes in English would have been of help.

1. *He *still* showed that,..., *the* European *settlements*, which *at* first of January will be *applied on us too*, *are foreseen* that...
(teacher's recommended translation)
He *also* showed that...European *regulations*, which *starting with* January 1st will *become enforceable* in Romania as well, **stipulate** that...

The majority of the errors presented above are made as a result of misunderstanding of lexis, distorted meaning and to a certain degree, to limited linguistic (morphological) competence.

> *…the price …is *on a value of* two times bigger *that* the price offered by local producers.
> (teacher's recommended translation)
> …the price is *approximately* two times bigger /higher than the price offered/asked for by the local producers.

This example reveals an occurrence of unnecessary addition, coupled with insufficient morphological knowledge.

The handiest solution would for the students to learn to use dictionaries of collocations (e.g. Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English, available at: http://5yiso.appspot.com/), online concordancers (e.g. the *British National Corpus*, available at: http://natcorp.ox.ac.uk/lookup.html, the *Web Concordancer*, available at: http://www.edict.com.hk/concordance/WWWConcappE.htm, with as many as 27 corpora to choose from; or the *Online BLC KWIC Concordancer* – Business Letter Corpus, available at: http://ysomeya.hp.infoseek.co.jp/, with a selection of 18 corpora), or lexical databases (such as the *Word.Net 3.1*, provided by the Cognitive Science Laboratory, Princeton University, available at: http://wordnet.princeton.edu, which offers information about nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, clustered into sets of cognitive synonyms, each conveying a different concept).

In the following figures there is an example of how students can compare their own translations with naturally occurring structures available in online dictionaries, corpora and lexical databases. With the help of ConcApp software application, students can identify the collocational and colligational patterning in their translations and analyse them against concordances rendered, for example, by the BNC, or lexical structures available from online databases. The self-correction exercise is best organised in groups, as in this way students may learn from each other's errors, and thus improve their linguistic and translation competence. With culturally-competent students it is possible to take the analysis of translation errors even further in order to identify the cultural differences that account for faulty renditions in the TL texts.

OXFORD Collocations | dictionary for students of English

money *noun*

ADJ. **big** *There is big money in golf for the top players.* | **easy** *He started stealing as a way of making easy money.* | **government,** public, taxpayers' *Is this a good way to spend taxpayers' money?* | **private** | **pocket, spending** *Did your parents give you pocket money when you were little? I don't know how much spending money to take on holiday.* | **prize** | **sponsorship** | **paper** *The collection box was full of coins and paper money.* | **counterfeit**
QUANT. **amount, sum** *the large sums of money we handle in this store*
VERB + MONEY **have** *I haven't got any money left.* | **borrow, bring in, collect, earn, get, make, raise, receive** *He hoped the scheme would bring in quite a bit of money. Some people were in the street collecting money for charity. How much money did he earn last year? I'll have to get some more money from somewhere.* | **bank, deposit, pay in** *small shopkeepers banking their money at the end of the day I need to pay this money in today.* | **draw out, get out, take out,** withdraw | fritter away, lose, **run out of, spend, squander, throw away, waste** *She lost a lot of money at the casino. We ran out of money and had to come home early. He squandered his money on gambling and drink.*

Figure 12. ***Money*** collocates in Oxford Collocations Dictionary

1 the president S.C.R. group. Also the **Money** channel took the subject in the show " Profit & Lo
2 tients. But in Romania, the allocated **money** for the consultations that accord a family doctor
3 hat 1/3 of Top 300 millionaires made **money** from real business , according a whole page of th
4 t to be easyer. the gest of giving today **money** from the big occidentaly company from the authohto
5 other words, the petrol owners, to give **money** from their pokets, money made from the national ex
6 hly. The auction time has pasted so the **money** goes to the powerful one. The Music of All Day
7 us. But, which is the problem, were the **money** goes? "The problem is that thousands of groups whi
8 50% by utilization. In way or other the **money** has a unique source the tariff paid by people for
9 can't expend his business. And without **money**, he can't equip his surgery in this way that the p
10 gs , The General Council wants to take **money** in an abusive way from the inhabitants of Buchares
11 foreign investors the certainty that the **money** invested in the Romanian commerce will offer them
12 ners, to give money from their pokets, **money** made from the national exploitation so is this way
13 ted parking places, devaluing the public **money** on Krebs and on another things , The General Counc
14 d the nobles in their functions. Now the **money** stay here to be shared at the complicity table bet
15 p , on Gigi Becali , who has twice more **money** than last year. TVR , B1 TV and Antena 1 had been
16 years we are getting at a month the same **money**, the value of the point is the same, with regulari

Figure 13. ***Money*** collocates in the ELTC

4.3 Bilingual Dictionaries of Business English

The aim of this chapter is to actually present my own lexicographic work in the field of business English-Romanian dictionary and glossary writing and the way in which I used these tools for pedagogic purposes.

Indeed, nowadays people do rarely use paper-based dictionaries, but this does not mean they have lost their importance for the process of language learning. With the advent of technological breakthroughs in the field of electronic lexicography, paper dictionaries may seem truly futile to the younger generations; however to some, they remain a useful and necessary tool.

At the end of the bibliographic list of this book, I have included a list of business dictionaries (Romanian-English or English-Romanian), published in Romania after 1989. Unfortunately, the list is not too long, and most of these dictionaries are now out of print.

4.3.1 A Dictionary of business collocations

The English-Romanian dictionary of business collocations (Popescu & Toma 2009) was written for students of economics, experienced business people but also learners of English in general, with an intermediate to advanced level of language proficiency, and who need English for business purposes. It can be an extremely useful tool for professional translators and interpreters in various professional settings.

The 2009 edition, the 3rd in 7 years, and the result of over 10 years of lexicographic endeavour, consists of 1228 headwords, occurring within approximately 68,000 collocations (with 254 more headwords and 14,000 more lexical combinations than in the 2nd edition).

The structure of the dictionary was chosen considering the need not only for definitions and translations of most commonly used words and expressions in the business world, but also for their correct usage in different communication contexts.

The selection of collocations was made based on the principle of frequency of occurrence. The authors however tried to offer as wide as possible a range of collocations, from strong to weak ones. The sources used for the compilation of this dictionary included reliable corpora (The British National Corpus, The Brown Corpus, as well as a self-made corpus consisting of business articles from The Economist, published during 2005-2008). Various existing dictionaries of collocations (both print and online) were also used, along with well-established company sites.

Each dictionary entry consists of a definition in English (several meanings were given in the case of polysemous words, starting with the more general meaning, followed by a more specific, business-related use), the morphological categories most commonly used with it, and its Romanian translation in the right hand column.

DAMAGE n. 1. harm or injury impairing the value or usefulness of sth, or the health or normal function of sb **2.pl.** money paid as compensation for a loss or injury, breach of contract or infringement of a right	1. daună, prejudiciu; avarie 2. despăgubiri, daune, compensație, reparații

1. (injury)

V: assess, avoid, calculate, cause, commit, create, (un)do, inflict, insure against, make good, mend, prevent, prove, reduce, repair, report, restore, result in, save sth from, suffer, sustain ~

V: ~ is due to, occurred, took place, was confined/restricted to

A: appreciable, enormous, environmental, excessive, extensive, grave, great, heavy, huge, incredible, irreparable, lasting, little, massive, minor, negligible, permanent, physical, potential, serious, severe, slight, substantial, tolerable, tremendous, visible, wartime, widespread ~

P: ~ limitation measures; ~ to health, property, reputation; assessment, cost, extent, severity trail of ~

2. (compensation)

V: assess, award, be awarded, be entitled to, be liable for, claim, demand, determine, get, obtain, pay, receive, recover, sue sb for, suffer, sustain, win ~s

A: actual, additional, aggravated, compensatory, consequential, constructive, contemptuous, (un)disclosed, double, excessive, exemplary, fair, general, heavy, imaginary, indirect, irreparable, lawful, (un)liquidated, mitigated, nominal, ordinary, provisional, punitive, real, recoverable, remote, special, statutory, stigma, substantial, vindictive ~s

P: action, claim, compensation, indemnity, judgment, liability for ~s; amount, assessment, measure, payment, quantum of ~s; entitlement to ~s

Figure 14. Print screen of a dictionary definitions page
(from Popescu & Toma, 2009)

The novelty of this third edition is the fact that it now includes a practice section, with exercises that test the dictionary users' collocational competence. The types of tasks are quite varied, and they are meant to capture the essence of some of the typical collocations found in the business discourse. They range from multiple matching to cloze types of exercises. A noteworthy element is the exemplification of how translation competence can be improved through business collocation practice. A sample of suggested translation is provided in order to show students how the dictionary can be successfully used.

Below are reproduced some of the exercises to be found in the dictionary.

1. Match the words in the two columns to form suitable collocations:

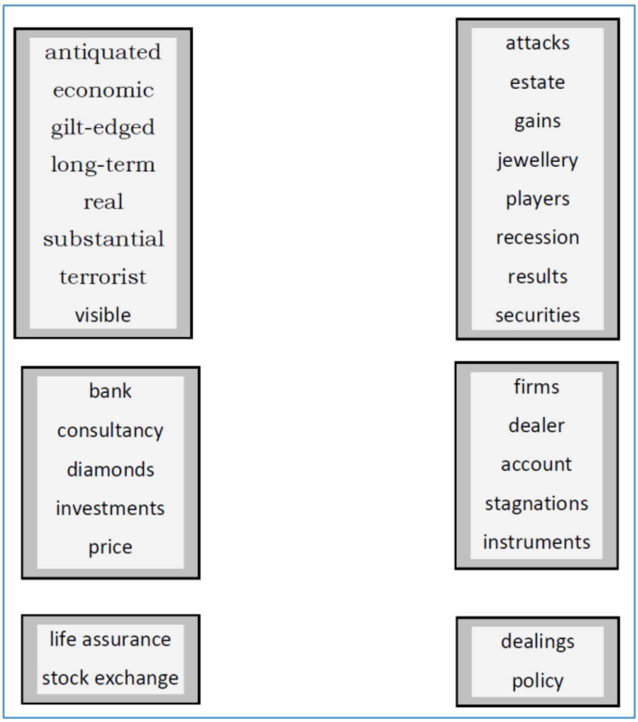


Figure 15. Print screen of business collocations practice (Popescu & Toma 2009, p. 378)

2. Now translate the following article into English, using some or all of the collocations you found above. You may change their form and / or use other combinations as well:

Plasamente sigure pentru investitori

După aur şi obiecte de artă, imobiliarele şi diamantele atrag noi investitori

Investitorii preocupaţi de un câştig substanţial au început în ultimii doi ani să facă afaceri cu terenuri şi apartamente. Cei de cursă lungă aleg în continuare plasamentele în aur, artă şi, mai nou, diamante.

GABRIELA ȚINTEANU MOLDOVEANU

Contul în bancă oferă o protecție. Asigurarea de viață îți asigură viitorul. Tranzacțiile la bursă oferă câştiguri superioare la nivelul unui an. Febra investițiilor în case şi terenuri a început în urmă cu doi ani şi deja rezultatele se văd. Numai în 2004 prețul caselor a crescut cu 20%. Cei care au achiziționat imobile în 2002 au câştigat dublul sumei investite în nici doi ani. Şi totuşi, există şi alte piețe de investiții care dau semne că vor să se dezvolte.

Piața bijuteriilor din aur este în creştere de la an la an. Atentatele din septembrie 2001 din SUA au adus o creştere importantă a prețului aurului pe bursele internaționale. Războiul din Irak a condiționat o nouă maximă a cotațiilor aurului pe piețele internaționale. Tablourile de artă din România nu se mai vând acum la licitații sub prețul de zece mii de euro, chiar dacă în cei aproape 13 ani de existență, piața obiectelor de artă a cunoscut uneori chiar regresii ale valorii acestor tipuri de investiții. ,,Car cu boi" al lui Nicolae Grigorescu s-a vândut şi în 2004 cu 35.585 de dolari, în condițiile în care în 2003 era trecut la cele mai scumpe tablouri vândute cu numai o jumătate de miliard. La ora actuală, piața obiectelor de artă s-a stabilizat, chiar dacă românii preferă, în continuare, să cumpere doar bijuterii vechi şi tablouri. Tot anul trecut pe piața românească a intrat primul comerciant de diamante, ca instrument de investiție, nu ca piatră prețioasă, Diamond Investment, care susține că piața diamantelor în România a crescut cu 30%. Toate aceste investiții au în comun refugiul investitorilor într-un plasament stabil, ferit de recesiunile economice sau intemperiile istoriei.

Investițiile imobiliare (terenuri, case sau alte construcții), precum şi o serie de alte plasamente în obiecte de artă, antichități, obiecte din metale prețioase sunt realizate, de regulă, pe termen lung şi presupun sume însemnate de bani. Întrucât nu există încă piețe organizate şi reglementate pentru aceste investiții, tranzacțiile realizându-se în mod direct între persoanele interesate, valoarea acestor investiții poate fluctua în timp, iar cea mai bună protecție este informația. Firmele de consultanță şi analiştii financiari pot oferi informații legate de evoluția prețurilor pe perioade mai lungi, pot explica o serie din caracteristicile specifice fiecărei investiții în parte şi pot contribui substanțial în luarea unor decizii corecte.

Pe termen lung, prețurile proprietăților şi ale obiectelor de artă înregistrează creşteri, chiar dacă momentan situația economică a României din prezent mai poate determina stagnări ale prețurilor unora dintre aceste investiții. (Capital, No. 40/30 September 2004, p. 41)

Suggested answer

Gilt-edged securities[36] for investors
Next to gold and objects of art, real estate[37] and diamonds attract/lure new investors

Investors with an interest in[38] substantial gains started two years ago to trade[39] in land and apartments/have traded in land and apartments over the last two years. Long-term players continue to make investments[40] in gold, art, and more recently, in diamonds.

A bank account brings/ ensures/ guarantees/ provides security[41]. A life assurance policy protects/secures your future. Stock exchange dealings ensure/ warrant significant/ substantial gains throughout the year. The real estate investing fever started two years ago and the results are already visible. In 2004 only, the price of houses has risen[42] by 20%. Those who bought houses in 2002 have doubled the sum they invested in less than two years. And still, there are other investment markets that indicate/ signal their desire for expansion.

The gold jewellery market is on the increase year after year. The terrorist attacks in September 2001 in the US brought about/generated a considerable/marked/significant increase in the price of gold on the international stock markets. The war in Iraq conditioned/determined a

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[36] *Gilt-edged securities*, securities of the highest class, considered by investors to be without any financial risk; also called *gilts*.

[37] Property consisting of land and buildings.

[38] *Preoccupied with* may also be possible, although it has a less pragmatic connotation.

[39] *Deal in*, although synonym with *trade in*, is not appropriate in this context.

[40] We translated *plasamente* both by *securities* (we considered the word in its broadest sense, that of investments generally, although it refers mainly to stocks, shares and bonds) and *investments*. In this article, the author makes direct reference to stock exchange transactions. Nevertheless, when in doubt, you always go safer with *investments*.

[41] Here s*ecurity* (meaning protection of a person, building, organisation or country against threats) is uncountable.

[42] The article was written in 2004, hence the use of present perfect.

renewed highest quotation[43] for gold on the international markets. In Romania, art paintings are never sold at auctions for less than € 10,000, even if along its over 13 years of existence, the objects of art market has undergone a decline in the value of this type of investments. Nicolae Grigorescu's "Oxen Cart" sold again in 2004 for $ 35,585, considering that in 2003 it had been listed amongst the most expensive paintings sold for only half a billion. At present, the objects of art market has stabilized, although Romanians still prefer to buy antiquated jewellery and paintings. It was last year too, that the first diamonds dealer, Diamond Investment, entered the Romanian market, as an investment instrument and not as precious stones. The investor declares/maintains/states that the diamonds market in Romania has increased by 30%. All these investments share/have in common the investors' seeking refuge in a gilt-edged security, protected/sheltered from economic recessions or history's adversities.

Real estate investments (land, houses or other buildings), as well as a series of other investments in objects of art, antiquities, precious metal objects are made as a rule on a long-term basis and involve/require large amounts of money. Since for the time being there are no markets organised and regulated for such investments and the transactions are carried out/concluded/conducted directly between the parties involved, the value of these investments may fluctuate in time and the best protection is to stay informed[44]. Consultancy firms and financial analysts may offer/provide information concerning the evolution of prices over longer periods of time, may account for/explain a series of characteristics specific to each and every investment and may substantially contribute to making the[45] right[46] decisions.

In the long run, real estate and objects of art prices record increases, even if at the moment/momentarily Romania's current[47] economic situation may still cause/determine/lead to price stagnations for some of these investments.

The dictionary can be used for writing purposes as well, offering the business English learner / user a variety of possible

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[43] …*conditioned a maximum* (the greatest possible quantity, value or degree) *of gold quotations* … sounds rather awkward.

[44] *The best protection is information* would sound too unnatural.

[45] In English, … *making* ***some*** *(unor) right decisions* … may mean that the rest of the decisions are wrong, which is not the case.

[46] *Correct* may also be used, though we prefer *right*

[47] The use of *at the moment/momentarily* and *current* in the same sentence may sound redundant, but we considered that such was the author's intent.

lexical combinations which can be employed in reports, proposals, business letters, etc., such as:

I am writing to *claim* ***damages*** in connection with … or

I feel I am *entitled to* ***damages*** … (see page 194)

4.3.2 Business glossaries

In 2017 I will also be completing an English-Romanian dictionary of business terminology, born out of my experience as of teaching and researching English for Specific Purposes, translating and interpreting in the field of business, banking and finance. Business terminology, as a discipline that deals with terms, their use and development as well as interrelationships within the business domain, is different from lexicography (see the dictionary of collocations above), as it focuses on the analysis of concepts and the conceptual system words derive from their specific contexts of use.

F

face/nominal/par value n. valoare nominală; *Press reports suggest that the debt rescheduling, details of which are now being finalised, involves writing off 90% of the US$35bn nominal value of Cuba's debt.* (country.eiu.com)

factoring n. factoring; *Factoring, a technique in which a financial institution buys a company's accounts receivable at a discount, emerged as a separate financing activity in Argentina.* (store.eiu.com)

finance v. a finanţa; *A business can finance itself in three ways: through internal funds (its revenues); through borrowing; and through equity (the issuance of new shares).* (economist.com)

finances n.pl. resurse financiare; studiul finanţelor; *Although the government has indeed stepped in to honour the debt, its own finances are horribly stretched, not least because it has borrowed far more than it had previously admitted.* (economist.com)

finance bill n. efect financiar

finance charge n. 1. costul creditului **2.** dobânda percepută la soldul rămas

finance company n. instituţie de finanţare (a întreprinderilor mici şi mijlocii); *Digital communications have given birth to a new generation of finance companies* (economist.com)

finance house n. societate de finanţare; companie care se ocupă de vânzări în rate, leasing şi credite de consum; *Islamic finance houses were first set up in 1983 under Turgut Ozal, the country's pioneering former president and prime minister.* (economist.com)

Figure 16. Print screen of a business glossary page (from Popescu 2017)

For example, the word **finance**, used in the plural, has the following meaning, as given in the Merriam-Webster Dictionary online:

> **finances pl.** money or other liquid resources of a government, business, group, or individual: *The library closed due to a lack of finances.* (Merriam-Webster Dictionary)

The Dictionary of Business Collocations (Popescu & Toma, 2009, p. 139) presents the following entry for **finance**, and for its plural's collocates:

FINANCE n 1. money as a resource for business and other activities **2.** the management of money for business and other activities **3. pl.** money available to a person, an organisation or a country	1. finanțe 2. gestiune, control financiar 3. resurse financiare

1. (money)
V: apply for, arrange, generate, look for, provide, search for, seek, supply ~
A: business, company, external, government, housing, high, private, public ~
P: ~ bill, capability, committee, portfolio, scheme; provision of ~
2. (control of money)
A: effective, high ~
P: ~ clerk, committee, controller, department, director, minister, secretary; expert at ~; director of ~
3. (financial means)
V: balance, examine, get control of one's own, go over, inspect, look after, organise, place a strain on, raise, repair, restore ~s to good shape, sort out, transfer, vet, worry about ~s
V: ~s are in a bad state, in a mess, in a muddle, in order, shaky, sound
A: customer's, firm's, private, public, state, wrecked ~s
P: investment, (mis)management, reorganisation, state of ~s

As can be seen, the verbs collocating with **finances** are mostly related to the meaning stated in the definition (we rarely come across a metaphorical meaning). However, in the dictionary of business terminology, the word **finances**, given in an authentic context, acquires a different concept – finances are stretched-, that of MONEY IS ELASTIC, a conceptual metaphor that is an extension of the MONEY IS A MOVING ENTITY.

> Although the government has indeed stepped in to honour the debt, its own **finances** are horribly stretched, not least because it has borrowed far more than it had previously admitted. (economist.com) (Popescu 2017, p. 52)

4.4. CLIL Applications

In the following I would like to present two possible courses that might fall under the umbrella of Content and Language Integrated Learning, with a focus on Economics. However, the first course (human resources management) could actually be taught to non-economics students as well, while the second (entrepreneurship) is adapted to the needs of engineering students.

4.4.1 A possible course in Human Resources Management

TITLE: ***Introduction to Human Resources Management***

DESCRIPTION
Course objectives:

1 Content-based objectives

- to review and analyse practices, trends and problems of human resource management (HRM). Research shows that how managers implement and maintain HRM practices can influence organizational productivity, quality of work life, and profits. The goal of this course is to prepare students to use HRM practices effectively. Topics include (but are not limited to): HRM strategies, labour market and legal contexts of HR, employment planning, staff assessment, etc.

2 Cognitive objectives

- Define the area of "human resource management" and recognise its relevance to both managers and employees in corporations.
- Describe the main employment legislation in Romania.
- Conduct a simple job analysis and apply the understanding of job prerequisites to other HRM systems such as staff selection, performance appraisal, or compensation.
- Recognise basic HRM tools, such as performance appraisal documents, and grasp some of the technical details of HRM practices.

- Apply pertinent theories to the practice of management of people in organisations.
- Analyse business challenges pertaining to human resource systems.
- Critically evaluate and assess HR policies and practices in corporations.

3 Linguistic objectives

- Make appropriate use of general spoken interaction abilities;
- Understand a non-native or a native interlocutor;
- Conduct conversations and informal discussions;
- Take part in (in)formal discussions, meetings or interviews;
- Promote goal-oriented collaboration strategies;
- Describe previous work experiences;
- Take part in an effective information exchange;
- Successfully conduct interviews and be interviewed.

4 Cultural objectives

- Manage to bring the Romanian culture in relation with other foreign cultures;
- Demonstrate cultural sensitivity and an ability to identify and employ a range of interactional strategies with people from various cultures;
- Succeed in fulfilling the role of cultural mediator between our Romanian culture and the foreign culture and to effectively cope with intercultural misunderstandings and conflict situations;
- Succeed in overcoming stereotypical relationships.

Content:

Week one:
HR Basics
Week two:
HR and human behaviour
Week three:
HR system alternatives
Week four:
HR links to strategy
Week five:
Labour market context of HR
Week six:

Legal context of HR
Week seven:
Staffing: Selection and placement
Week eight:
Employee development
Week nine:
Employee performance
Week ten:
Rewards and compensation
Week eleven:
HR and firm performance
Weeks twelve through week fourteen:
Case studies

Reading List:

1. Armstrong, M. (2006). *A Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice* (10th ed.). London: Kogan Page.
2. Legge, K. (2004). *Human Resource Management: Rhetorics and Realities.* Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
3. Nkomo, S., Fottler, M., & McAfee, R. B. (2005). *Applications in Human Resource Management: Cases, Exercises, and Skill Builders* (5th Edition). Mason, OH: Thomson South-Western.

STUDY-UNIT TYPE

Lectures, class activities, experiential exercises, and case studies

4.4.2 A possible course in Entrepreneurship

TITLE: ***Introduction to Entrepreneurship for engineering students***

DESCRIPTION

Course objectives:

- understand the process of new venture formation, and explore the tactics that can be used to substantially improve the probabilities of new-venture success and long-term performance
- become familiar with the key tasks involved in creating successful business plans and different ways in which each task may be accomplished. Students will be actively

involved in the preparation of a business plan for a "prospective" new venture.
- to develop a SWOT analysis strategy for the assessment of business plans for a group prospective venture.

Content:

Week one:

Introduction. Course objectives, structure and syllabus.

Week two:

The Role of Technology and Innovative SMEs. Infrastructure for Technological Entrepreneurship. Case studies.

Week three:

The Process of New Venture Creation. Key Success Factors. Opportunity Recognition. Self-assessment Exercise.

Week four:

The planning stage. Establishing a target market. Designing questionnaires, interviews, carrying out a market research. Marketing strategies. Your “Unique Selling Proposition”. Finding a location.

Week five:

The product or service you’re about to launch on the market. Pricing strategies. Sales forecasting. Business promotion idea list.

Week six:

Financing your business. Equity financing. Debt financing. Alternative sources of financing.

Week seven:

Romanian accounting fundamentals. Preparing a balance sheet. Preparing a profit and loss account. Preparing a cash flow forecast.

Week eight:

Basic regulation for becoming an employer. Types of business company structure in Romania.

Week nine:

Employing people. Finding the right persons for your objectives. Employee profile. Designing questionnaires, what to expect from a job interview. Staff appraisal and promotion

Week ten:

Taxation, insurance, banking. Case studies of Romanian banks’ help for SME’s.

Week eleven:

Team work: Preparing a brief outline of a possible business plan. First encounter: meeting between financial advisors and entrepreneurs. Presentations of business ideas and first impressions about real chances.

Week twelve:

Drafting the business plan, adjusted to individual needs and business ideas. Plenary presentations.

Week thirteen:

The concept of SWOT analysis. Board analysis and final evaluation of business plans.

Week fourteen:

Write a report on your achievements and try to plan the future of your business, starting from the previous SWOT analysis. Feedback on course development and outcome. Filling in project report forms.

Reading list:

1. Bangs, D.H. Jr. (1992). *The Business Planning Guide: Creating a Plan for Success in Your Own Business,* 6th edition, Upstart.
2. Drucker, P.F. (2007). *Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, Amsterdam: Elsevier.
3. Philip, D. (1995). *Getting Started: How to set up your own business*. Robson Rhodes Chartered Accountants, Kogan Page Limited.
4. Shane, S. (2003). *A General Theory of Entrepreneurship: The Individual-Opportunity Nexus*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

STUDY-UNIT TYPE

Lectures, class activities, experiential exercises, and case studies.

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