



## A LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION OF SHIPBUILDING AND MARITIME ENGLISH

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### 1. A ‘flood’ of terms

The fields of human activity highlighted by this paper are closely interrelated since they start from the same real thing: boats. While the shipbuilding world mainly involves the designing and building of boats, no matter their size, thus covering limited terrestrial spots, the maritime world has reached global dimensions and concerns several comprehensive purposes based on trade practices, voyages for business relationships, for scientific research, or for entertainment, and, last but not least, for military purposes.

The diversity of crafts, occupations, professions and trades depending upon water(s) is mirrored by a set of words related to water: *nautical*, *naval*, *navy*, *seafaring*, *sailing*, *shipbuilding*, *oceanic*, *marine* and *maritime*.

Against the English language background, some of them have preserved their freshness along the centuries; some others have become obsolete or have nearly practically come out of use, while others will probably be coined in the future. Out of this terminological flood, several terms will be of interest here and *nautical* was chosen as a first example. Used as an adjective, it has a generic meaning conveying the idea “of, relating to, or associated with seamen, navigation and ships” (WUED 1996:1282); it also refers to navigation, ships, sea and seamen. *Naval* is an obsolete term which was used as an adjective: “1. of or relating to ships or shipping. 2 a: of or relating to a navy; b: consisting of or involving warships” (WUED 1996:1282) refers to ships, in general, and to warships, in particular. In this respect, according to dictionaries, naval architecture has the same meaning as shipbuilding, even if the former concentrates on designing and the latter on the transformation into reality what naval architecture produces. According to some dictionaries *nautical* and *naval* are synonyms, which is true if their grammatical regimen is considered; yet, they do not interchange, not at the level of set syntagms or patterns as *naval power* or *naval architecture*.

*Seafaring* is an adjective which refers to “1. travelling by sea. 2. following the sea as a trade, business or calling. 3. of pertaining to or occurring during a voyage on the sea. 4. the business or calling of a sailor. 5. travelling by sea.” (WUED 1996:1725)

Belonging to the same semantic field, *navy* is a noun which denotes “1. the whole body of warships and auxiliaries belonging to a country or ruler. 2. the complete body of such warships together with their officers and enlisted personnel, equipment, yards, etc., constituting the sea power of a nation. 3. (often cap.) the department of government charged with its management. 4. (archaic) a fleet of ships.” (WUED 1996:1282)

*Sailing*, a de-verbal noun expresses “1. the activity of a person or thing that sails 2. the departure of a ship from port. 3. (Navig.) any of various methods for determining courses and distances by means of charts or with reference to longitudes and latitudes, rhumb lines, great circles, etc.” (WUED 1996:1692)

*Fleet*, a noun with generic meaning is used in connection with “1. the largest organized unit of naval ships grouped for tactical or other purposes. 2. the largest organization of warships under the command of a single officer. 3. a number of naval vessels carrying armed crew members.” (WUED 1996:732)

*Shipbuilding* or ship construction is a branch of the shipbuilding industry, which deals with the designing and building of ships.

*Maritime* is an adjective whose assigned meanings are: “1. of, relating to, or bordering on the sea \*a maritime province\* 2 : of or relating to navigation or commerce on the sea; 3 : having the characteristics of a mariner” (WUED 1996:877). By definition, it is connected with sea in relation to navigation, shipping, etc. The list of water-referring terms is not complete and it was only intended to invite to further investigation. In sum, the resourcefulness of terms connected to water(s) mirrors an abundance of water-centered activities and jobs out of which very few representative examples would include the personnel of shipping companies, shipmates and yachtsmen, customs officers, naval architects, naval and maritime engineers as well as the different marines belonging to the rigidly structured crews on board a(ny) vessel.

### 2. Shipbuilding English

A tentative definition would describe Shipbuilding English to be the specialized language used by the community of experts (performers in the field of marketing, ship design and shipbuilding) who collaborate to design, build, launch, outfit commission, try at sea, sell and, when time comes, to repair ships. As a means of specialized communication, shipbuilding English is used in oral and written messages.

Texts, in shipbuilding English, most often deal with presentations (of designs, orders, instructions, technical documentations) and descriptions (of procedures or technological processes, of installations, equipment and devices as well as their exploitation guidelines) and they are generally characterized by conciseness and accuracy. They have to be so created as to avoid any ambiguity, for the presence of any apparently inoffensive ambiguity may result in unexpected consequences when the ship is at (rough) sea.

A generous classification of the text typologies in shipbuilding English includes texts which formulate and express:

- international rules and regulations for ship construction and classification;
- technical documentation and drawings;
- instruction handbooks and operating manuals;
- marketing quotations and contracting documents.
- internal and external (business) correspondence (memos, circular, minutes, highly formal business letters or invitations to remarkable naval events – ship launchings, ship name-giving ceremonies, etc.).

The building of a ship has to cover three steps, which involve procedures and actions either denominated by the intermediacy of terms borrowed from other scientific and technological fields or pertaining to shipbuilding exclusively:

- a) the marketing quotation and contracting,
- b) the design and engineering,
- c) construction, outfitting and commissioning.

Shipbuilding English, as circumscribed to general English, is a vivid language which even if thoroughly investigated so far, will still offer new research directions as building technologies progress and together with the language of rules and regulations have to adapt

to the requirements of an ever changing environment deriving from the civilization of water(s).

### **3. Maritime English**

Maritime English represents the entirety of all those means of the English language which being a device for communication within the international maritime community contribute to the safety of navigation and facilitation of the seaborne business. It is a special language of command and control where the produced utterances may affect something which is far away – communication between ships, air traffic control and police operations.

Maritime English consists of the following sections:

- general English;
- the language used by those dealing with navigation, safety communications, cargo operations, and deck department activities
- the language used by those concerned with the main and auxiliary engines, the ship electrics and electronics, their operation and maintenance the engineering department works;
- the language used by those in charge with commercial business, maritime law procedures, insurance, etc.

ESP theorists emphasize that even if it is a less flexible specific language, maritime English is not totally rigid in its grammatical structures and it is highly innovative in the field of terminology. Assigned to operational and communicational languages, maritime English is used as a means of communication for the crew members on board any same vessel, for ship to ship or for ship to shore communication. Since the maritime world covers virtually the whole planet, this special language is spoken by people whose native languages are very different. The process of communication in the maritime world may take place under natural circumstances or under very special circumstances (when ships are in emergency, danger, wrecking or under siege), that is why to avoid (human) error, mechanical failure, confusion, damage or disaster, communication must be precise, accurate and, above all, unambiguous.

Attempts at identifying maritime and nautical words and phrases to be used by mariners were given the form of a lexicon – Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary, which was first adopted by IMO in 1977. The concern of the international community in the acquisition of correct English led, along the years to follow the publication of Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary, to the implementation of language education programmes. Subsequently, in the 1980s, dr. Edward Johnson was responsible for selecting the materials to create reliable instruments intended for the non-native speakers of English for specific purposes working in very challenging and dangerous fields of activity. In 1982 he created *SeaSpeak*, the framework for the international language for maritime communication; in 1986 he was in charge with *AirSpeak*, an air traffic pilot training communication programme, and in 1987 he authored *PoliceSpeak*, the basic vocabulary to describe the set of procedures for police communication.

In 2001 the international authorities in the maritime world approved a new and improved version of the 1997/1995 Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary which also had its title improved to Standard Marine Communication Phrases.

From the translation strategy perspective, the shipbuilding English and maritime English could hardly be considered as two separate things, at least in the English speaking countries. Nevertheless, this is not the case when it comes to the translation of these two languages for specific purposes into Romanian.

### **4. International concerns in ‘the civilization of waters’ and its legal matters**

Ships and navigation developed and evolved as humankind evolved. The century-long tradition in navigation and shipbuilding, the growing number of ships and diversification of goods to be carried and of ships to carry them by sea as well as many other factors required legal frameworks, rules and regulations to govern the behaviour at sea. It all started in Edward Lloyd’s 17<sup>th</sup> century London coffee house, when Edward thought to help his shipping industry clientele exchange information about life and concerns at sea. In 1760 the coffee house customers formed the Register Society and printed the first Register of Ships in 1764, a document meant to give those interested (mainly underwriters and merchants) an idea of the condition of the vessels they insured and chartered. In 1834 the Lloyd’s Register of British and Foreign Shipping was reconstituted as an organization which published the first classification Rules.

The origins of the international bodies intended to rule life at sea reside in Lloyd’s inventiveness. As a result, corresponding institutions were created in other European countries, i.e., Bureau Veritas (Anvers in 1828), and Det Norske Veritas (Norway). In 1948 an international conference in Geneva adopted a convention formally establishing The Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization, re-named in 1982 IMO (International Maritime Organization) the United Nations’ specialized agency responsible for improving maritime safety and pollution from ships, among other responsibilities, produces rules and regulations both regarding the building of ships and their operation.

These international shipbuilding and ship safety norm-making institutions, bodies or societies of classification had an impact on the standardization of both shipbuilding and maritime English. The rules, norms, conventions, specifications and regulations stipulated by these worldwide accepted institutions were printed and distributed throughout the world and their language established or implemented that English language for shipbuilding and maritime purposes.

Nevertheless, the maritime terminology is used not only by the personnel of shipping companies, shipmates, or yachtsmen but also by marine engineers and, in general, by all those involved in the work at sea.

### **5. Romanian Concerns in the Study of Shipbuilding English and Maritime English**

The beginnings in the coining of specialized languages connected to the civilization of waters go back to the first half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century western European civilization.

The linguistic research is much younger as it was initiated around the 1980. Since the main intent of the study regards aspects of translation out of /into English and Romanian, achievements of the Romanian research community will be of importance for the approach. Therefore, the achievements in the linguistic investigation of shipbuilding English on the one hand, and of maritime English, on the other hand, materialize the findings of two teams. The former consists of the academics at the “Dunarea de Jos” University of Galati since the tradition in naval architecture and engineering has its roots in this town, and the latter of the “Mircea cel Bătrân” Naval Academy, the Faculty of Military Marine – Naval Engineering and Navigation in Constanța, the largest maritime harbour of the country.

#### ***5.1. Romanian Concerns in the Study of Shipbuilding English***

The local ‘chronicles’ situate the beginnings of institutionalized shipbuilding in Galati around the year 1873 and connect them with the members of the Fernic family of successful industrialists. Păltânea (1995: 160) highlights the determinate attitude of G.

Fernic, who in May 1897 ‘demanded the City Hall authorities “to give him a place on the banks of the Danube to open there a mother company of my factory to repair ships.”

Fernic’s demand was a reaction to the state authorities, who had intended to ‘organize a ship repairs workshop’ in addition to the building of a floating dock.’ (Păltânea 1995: 160) Ever since, this entrepreneurial activity has so evolved as to build huge vessels, tankers, cargo carriers, liners, submarines and even the first drilling rig unit ever made in Romania.

The century-old local tradition in shipbuilding and the faculty of shipbuilding in the town of Galati stirred the interest of academics in the insights of this complex and unique specialized language. This was the case with professor Nicole Bejan, who taught English in the Galati Polytechnical Institute between the late 1950s (1958, to be more precise) and 1990. He not only authored studies and articles to describe languages for specific purposes (1976, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c, 1982, 1986), or English for shipbuilding purposes (1979, 1980) but he also defended his doctoral thesis *Scientific and Technical Terms in English*, whose second chapter, *English Terms in Shipbuilding* was successively published for several years by the University of Oregon in the United States.

Besides, the professor authored the one and only English-Romanian naval dictionary (1984) to have been published so far, and tailored together with Eugenia Gavrilu *Limba engleză pentru construcții navale* (1986), the first and only coursebook by Romanian book designers intended for undergraduate naval architects and shipbuilding engineers.

## **5.2. Romanian Concerns in the Study of Maritime English**

The study of maritime English has witnessed a growing interest, particularly after 1990, when “Mircea cel Batrân” Naval Academy, organized a department of foreign languages teaching and research.

The local literature of English for maritime purposes consists of three different ways of approaching the maritime discourse, university coursebooks, doctoral dissertations and dictionaries. Two doctoral theses dealing with the Maritime terminology have been defended so far by Romanian authors, *Terminologie navală maritimă* (Alina Minea, 2003, Al. I. Cuza University of Iași) and *Teaching General and ESP Maritime English Using a Self-Access System Integrated in the Course Syllabus* (Carmen Astratinei, 2005, University of Bucharest). Four coursebooks have been designed (Minea 2002, Minea 2003a, Minea 2003b, Zechia & Minea 2004), and two specialized dictionaries (Minea 2001, Popa & - Popa 2006).

Since maritime communication may involve a wide range of multinational natives, the bibliography on maritime English is much richer than that of shipbuilding English and it also includes bilingual maritime and phraseological maritime dictionaries.

The evolution from craftsmanship to the industrial achievement was based on human communication and involved the use of specialized terms to denote either ship compartments, component parts, equipment, installations and machinery, or activities, procedures and processes, as variegated as possible, which together make a ship.

To make the exchange of ideas possible, people involved in the making, selling or repairing of a ship resorted to a professional or specific language having the same lexical and grammatical structures as any other language for specific purposes (LSP, from now on). Linguist specialists frequently stated that a good deal of the LSR is common to many fields of activity. As mentioned in the previous chapters, the LSP vocabulary includes three categories of words: a) those belonging to the general word stock, b) those belonging to the technical vocabulary and c) the highly specialized terms. Trimble calls this last category the ‘sub-technical vocabulary’ and he further divides it into a) words that have the

same meaning in several scientific or technical disciplines and words from general English that occur with special meanings in specific scientific and technical fields. (Trimble 1985:128)

### 5.3. *Shipbuilding English and Maritime English. General features.*

Basically the two LSPs, **shipbuilding** and **maritime** Englishes, share the same characteristics of any LSP. Semantically, scientific words are characterized by constancy of meaning, and emotional neutrality.

What is stated about scientific English when considered in very general terms is applicable both to shipbuilding and maritime English. Thus, linguists agree that scientific English possesses no separate, special grammar, no special pronunciation, no special spelling or orthography of words; true, it has some vocabulary ..., and it also employs logico-grammatical operators (*if, as though, unless, whenever*, etc.) with great precision.

Theorists portraying English for Specific Purposes consider elements of morphology, syntax and semantics when they focus on general features. The structure of complex noun phrases which are specific to technical and scientific writings includes premodifiers (nouns, adjectives or *-ing* or *-ed* verb forms) and postmodifiers (*-of, -in, for, -on, -others, prepositional phrases; -ing, -ed, -to* infinitives and *be to* verbs and relative clauses) concentrated around nouns used as heads at noun phrase level (Croitoru 1996: 83-84).

In ESP the structure of verb phrases is less complicated than that of the noun phrase: the indicative mood has the highest frequency of occurrence, in general and the present tense simple, in particular. An extensive use of passive constructions is accounted for by the importance of the technical result or solution which prevails and not the decision-makers. A restrictive use of moods, certain tenses and modals is also noticeable with ESP. At syntactic level the general feature of ESP is the wealth of abbreviated relative clauses.

The presence of (outstandingly) long noun phrases is observable both in English and Romanian, in very few illustrations as: *autonomous inert gas generator room* which is translated as *compartimentul generatorului autonom de gaze inerte* or *system to comminute and disinfect the sewage*, whose Romanian version is *sistem/instalație pentru dezinfectarea și fărâmițarea apelor uzate* and finally, *lifeboats with a self-contained air support system* known in Romanian as *bărci de salvare echipate cu instalație autonomă de alimentare cu aer*. Linguists may observe some sort of equilibrium in the structure of complex noun phrases in the two languages, but this is not always the case. For example, Romanian complex set denominations have their English correspondent expressed by means of simple noun phrases, as *bucată de parâmă de legătură* is rendered in English by a simple noun phrase, *lanyard*.

Imperatives are restricted to formulating instructions, which may sometimes be formulated with the help of 'traditional' future. The subjunctive appears with conditions, concessions and purposes, as this "mood is specific to formal English, hence to specialized texts" (Croitoru 2004: 25). Main verbs are usually in simple present tense because scientific textbooks contain information about the present state of scientific knowledge. Past tense and present perfect are rarely used.

When philology-trained "translators face any LST text, they have to cope with three major issues: (1) the comprehension of the SL – this involving grammar and lexis particularly, involving understanding the intended meaning and specialized knowledge; (2) meaning transfer with relaying the grammatical and lexical meaning and (3) adequacy of interpretation and translation for the intended special purpose" (Croitoru 1996: 97).

Maritime English is an ever enriching specialized language whose core of specialisms denoting navigation-improving devices, such as echo sounders, radars, remote controlled instruments. The two languages, used both in written and oral communication address a large audience starting from the highly educated shipbuilders, shipyard managers and naval architects and going down to the less educated employees of a shipyard, namely steel workers, pipe fitters, welders, or sailors, fishermen and dockers. Ships have always been the most complex technological artefacts produced by the human race and their building involved the use of a wealth of terms denoting parts of a ship and which are not used with other meanings but the denotative ones. Even if the shipbuilding industry is innovative requiring the management of complex projects which combine in numerous cases the latest technologies, the highly specialized terminology has remained unchanged for at least one century.

#### **5.4. Shipbuilding English and Maritime English. Common features.**

Shipbuilding and maritime English show the same features characterizing the languages for specific purposes. They were at length presented in Croitoru (1996) and Croitoru (2004). In what follows, a selective enumeration will outline elements pertaining to the noun phrase and the verb phrase.

Shipbuilding and maritime English share the denomination of the ship compartments, machinery and installations. Thus, *superstructure, bridge deck, main deck, boat deck, fore peak, after peak, engine room, bilge, floor, frame, shell, portside and star portside* will create no difficulty in the translation process, on condition translators may rely on a high quality dictionary or on their first-hand acquired specialized knowledge. Both builders and operators speak about *hoisting installations, cooling systems, the engine room, the chart room, wheelhouse, log, (anchor) windlass, lifeboat, lifejacket, etc.* At the verb phrase level, the common feature resides in the extensive use of the imperative.

#### **5.5. Shipbuilding English and Maritime English. Particulars.**

This final section of our parallel description will discuss some aspects regarding the terminology of these interrelated LSPs, which conceal a few peculiarities. Differences at the verb phrase level, i.e., the use of tense and mood forms as well as the recourse to modals will also be referred to.

Thus, although terms in the scientific and technical vocabulary denote only one concept or real thing, shipbuilding benefits from an abundance of words with synonymic values. Besides, seen from an etymological perspective, the English shipbuilding terminology is a projection of the English word stock, this including words of Dutch, French and German origin, migrating into and out of English. Shipbuilding English has not only borrowed words connected to shipbuilding, but it has also produced and contributed to the acclimatizing of a multitude of its terms to many foreign languages.

Shipbuilding in the 20<sup>th</sup> century became a global industry and this triggered the competition of the shipyards scattered all over the world. Among the famous shipbuilders of the world the literature includes the Japanese, Koreans, Chinese, Europeans and the vessel producers of the two Americas. Since communication was not so performable as it has become after the introduction of the Internet and because of commercial and maybe other reasons, the terminologies developed within each of these shipbuilding enterprises resulted in the creation of synonymic lines (consider only the example of *shipbuilding port, shipbuilding yard, shipyard* and *dockyard* denominate the same signified, a yard, an enclosure or place where ships are built or repaired).

Out of the specialized shipbuilding terminology mention will be made of *affidavit, alidade, spar-deck, stringer, quarterdeck, cofferdam, sisal, pontoon, keel, forecastle, after*

*peak, trawler, skiff, deadweight, ferry-boat, brig, forepeak, skiff, gee.* The Romanian language, in turn, has always had its specialized shipbuilding terminology, which not only adopted and adapted all of the above mentioned terms, but also enjoyed its own thesaurus of specialisms including *marangoz, marangozie, santină, guseu, dunetă, gurnă, coafă, pescaj, bigă, (magazia de) pituri, crucetă, cală de amarare, cală de armare, a călăfătui, a navlosi, varangă, paiol*, to enumerate very few of them. Translating shipbuilding English into Romanian requires some background knowledge of the field terminology or else, mistakes might be at least hilarious to a Romanian shipbuilder who is familiar with *sala/compartimentul mașini* (for the English compound *engine room*), *caldarină* (for the English *boiler*) or *calandru* (for the English *ironing machine*).

Formal instructions in shipbuilding English rely on the extensive use of modal future forms. In the following excerpt each of the sentences is built on future forms: “All reducers *shall be made* of steel and *fitted* with... The inboard flange *shall be made* to bolt directly to the distance piece. The outboard flange on all reducers *shall be known* as the ‘presentation flange’.”

Modals are quite frequent in shipbuilding instructions, and they appear in different tenses:

- a) “Three sets of cruciform bollards [...] *are to be* welded on the deck on each side of the vessel.”
- b) “On occasions, when a smaller presentation flange is required, the semi-permanent principal cargo reducers *will have to be* removed and replaced by spare reducers from the reserve stock.”

The subjunctive is part of the shipbuilding discourse used in formulating instructions: “The presentation flanges *should be* “Welded Neck” flanges ...”; “Flange bolt holes *should be aligned* as shown in Fig. 7.”

Maritime English reveals other ESP lexical and morpho-semantic aspects. Very little is to say on the terminological level, for this language has hardly coined a word. Instead, the terms which have certain denotations in ordinary speech, have acquired a highly specialized meaning, being used to denote parts of machinery and installations, insignificant devices, as is the case with: *dog* – a simple mechanical device for holding, gripping or fastening (*zăvor*), *dolphin* – a spar or buoy for mooring boats; also: a cluster of closely driven piles used as a fender for a dock or as a mooring or guide for boats (*pilon de legare, estacadă, apărătoare din parâmă*) *gypsy* – denotes a part of the windlass (*tamburul vinciului de ancoră*), *monkey island* – the surface on top of the wheelhouse (*puntea cea mai de sus*), *forward spring* – name for a special kind of rope (*springul prova*).

Common nouns may be determiners in compound formations, as is, for example, the role of *donkey* in *donkey-boiler*, a steam boiler on a ship, used to supply steam to deck machinery when the main boilers are shut down (*caldarină auxiliară*), *donkey-engine* is an auxiliary engine (*mașină auxiliară*) or *donkeyman* – specialist in charge with auxiliary machines (*mecanic de auxiliar*).

Unlike shipbuilding, maritime English unfolds differences from the general framework of ESP, at the verb phase level. Thus, the use of tenses depends upon the situations of communication on board a vessel.

The *present tense simple* is used, for instance, during the handover of the watch keeping responsibilities:

Draft aft *is*... meters. (*Pescajul pupa este de ... metri*)

Draft forward *is* ... meters. (*Pescajul prova este de ... metri*)

The *present tense continuous*, and when the context allows it, the future are used in briefings on traffic situations:

A vessel *is overtaking* on starboard side. (*O navă depășește prin tribord*)



A vessel will give way. (*O navă va acorda prioritate*)

The maritime English discourse avoids the use of modals because their ambiguity may result, as things have already happened, in accidents. Therefore, modals are replaced by the least ambiguous formulations, as in the following, where the first column shows the everyday speech and the second introduces the version recommended in maritime English, which is always preceded by the function of the sentence:

<i>May</i> I leave the berth?	The speaker says: "Question: <i>Is it permitted</i> to leave the berth?"
<i>I might</i> drop the anchor.	The speaker says: " <i>Intention: I will</i> drop the anchor."
You <i>should</i> anchor east of buoy D5	The speaker says: "Advice: Anchor east buoy D5."
You <i>could</i> be running into danger	The speaker says: " <i>Warning: You are running</i> into danger."
<i>Can</i> I use the shallow draft?	The speaker says: "Question: <i>Do I have permission</i> to use the shallow draft?"

The interest in accuracy, conciseness and clarity is obvious in both shipbuilding and maritime English. The two specific languages display both common and particular features which characterize the lexical, the morphological and the syntactical levels.

The main difference between them is that, although they share a common lexicon, there are cases when words are uniquely used in each technology or when the same item is identified by two words for each technology.

The present approach did not intend to make an inventory of all the similarities and dissimilarities which contribute to the best understanding of the two specific languages. It only intended to signal possible sources of errors which may occur in the translation process.

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### **Rezumat**

*Pentru a scoate în evidență caracteristicile celor două limbaje de specialitate, abordarea va avea în vedere preocupari ale lingviștilor români pentru descrierea limbajelor profesionale aparținând domeniului construcțiilor navale și celui utilizat în navigație. În vreme ce trăsăturile lor generale sunt asemănătoare cu însușirile oricărui alt limbaj funcțional, lexicul lor prezintă un pronunțat grad de unicitate. Secțiunea finală a abordării se va concentra asupra acestor particularități lexicale proprii fiecăruia dintre limbajele studiate.*

### **Résumé**

*Pour mettre en évidence les caractéristiques des deux langages de spécialité, l'approche comptera sur les préoccupations des linguistes roumains sur la description des langages professionnels du domaine des constructions navales et de la navigation. Il est vrai que leurs traits ressemblent aux traits caractéristiques de tout langage fonctionnel. En revanche, leur lexique présente un degré d'unicité fort élevé. La dernière partie de notre étude se concentrera sur ces quelques particularités lexicales des langages étudiés.*

### **Abstract**

*To outline the peculiar features in the portraits of the two languages for special purposes, the approach will consider Romanian scholars' interest in the description of shipbuilding and maritime English. While their general features are similar to the properties of any other language for specific purposes, their specific lexical features reveal some degree of uniqueness. The final section of the approach will focus on the lexical particularities pertaining to either jargon.*