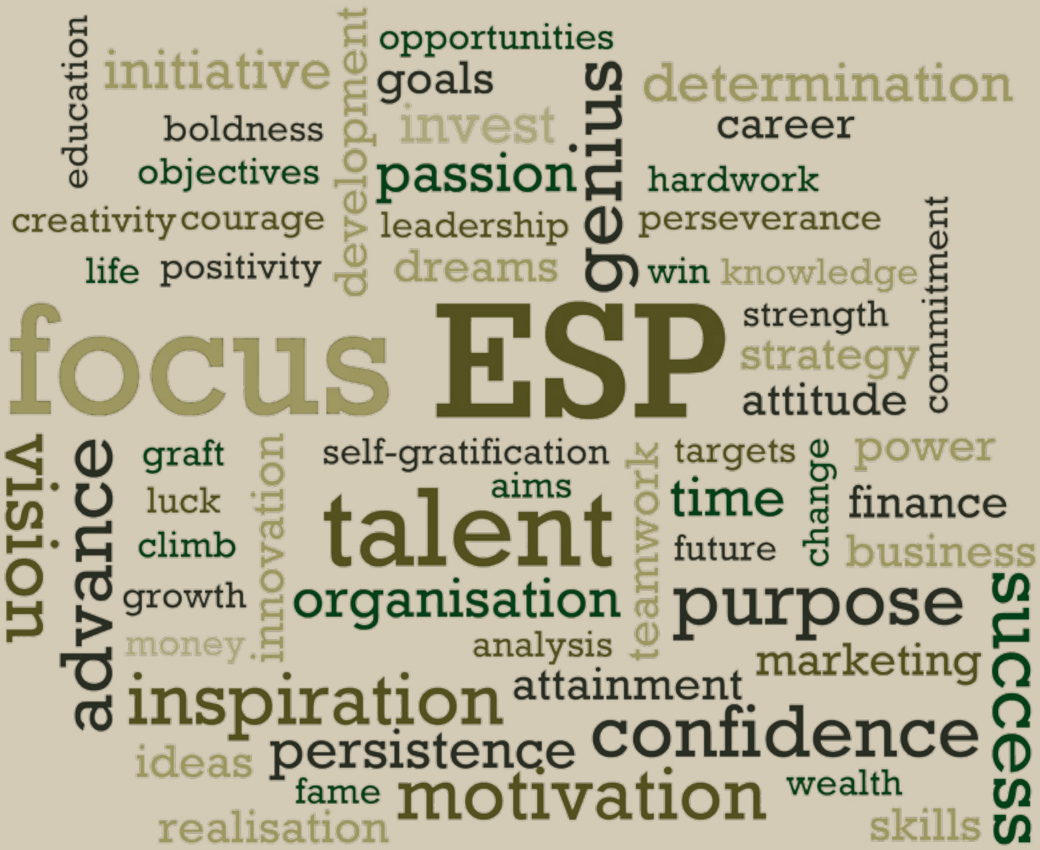
Universidad Camilo José Cela

FOCUS ON LEARNING: CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIELD OF ESP

CRISTINA CALLE MARTÍNEZ & SLAVKA MADAROVA



Edita: Cristina Calle Martínez & Slavka Madarova
Febrero 2019

ISBN: 978-84-95891-78-5
Depósito legal: M-5837-2019

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Targeting ESP: creative and innovative approach to the subject matter

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1. INTRODUCTION

The ever-growing demand for university graduates fluent in the English language of their fields puts a certain pressure on the ESP instructors. ESP has been conceived to offer "courses in which 'relevance' to the learners' needs and interests was paramount" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 8). To enhance learning, the intention of instructors designing ESP materials should be to change students' attitude and transform them from passive receptors to active seekers of new information. Preparation of didactic material, often carried out by compiling corpora for its further use in classrooms, offers such possibility. Use of authentic academic materials could enrich students' contact with the language; allow them to see beyond principal meaning of words and, in addition, to explore the figurative character of the language as well.

However, as mentioned by Salas et al. (2013), design of an ESP course should take into consideration not only micro level such as vocabulary but also the macro level, related to the communication itself (p. 13). ESP courses are designed to provide answer to six basic questions – *why, who, where, when, what* and *how* (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 21). By incorporating new approaches such as the Data driven learning, wikis, blogging, flipped classroom or use of the CAT tools the instructors are facilitating students with new avenues to become familiar with the language of their field. Moreover, instructors implementing ICT resources in their teaching can positively motivate their students and allow them to tap into the endless well of resources that would otherwise be unavailable to them. Students who are willing to engage in analysis of specific language related to their field usually experience increased motivation. Therefore, it would be beneficial to involve students in tasks that would allow them to reflect on their own practice and help them in their language learning.

This volume, which belongs to a flourishing area of English for Specific purposes (ESP), sets to investigate the aforementioned notions in more detail. Collection of articles cover five main areas, beginning with production of written texts; next, they mention resources for language learning; analyse ESP in specific fields such as medicine or law; touch upon pragmatics and lexis and finally, discuss translation.

2. AN OVERVIEW OF THE VOLUME

The issue encompasses 19 articles. The first, by **Curado Fuentes**, explores the Data Driven Learning (DDL) and its application. The author based his qualitative research on evaluation of use of identity in the text, achieved by application of the DDL technique. In three case studies, the students taking EAP classes were asked to explore the authorship and writing identity that appear in excerpts from different corpora, with the aim of increasing their awareness and improving their own writing. The author's main concern has been to determine if the DDL technique would be useful for students with lower level of English and those who do not specifically study language in their degrees. The study also examined the perception of the DDL by students, demonstrating that the students considered the approach beneficial, which would allow future implementation of the DDL as one of the option in teaching writing in the ESP context.

Then, **Montaner-Villalba** conducts a study on students in the first course of higher grade "Design and furnishing" of a public Professional Training Center in the province of Valencia. An in-depth analysis was carried out to verify if written competence improves through the use of Blogging as a teaching tool. The students were asked to do a series of tasks linked to technical English in order to improve the competence in written production. The analysis revealed that although there is no way to confirm this aim, there has been a significant improvement regarding the reading comprehension competence in technical English, as well as in the acquisition of technical vocabulary in English.

Jordano de la Torre presents in her article the evolution of the subject "Vocational and Academic English II" in order to improve the quality of its teaching. The author encourages the use of wikis as a support for English Studies' distance students to analyse and produce English for Science and Technology texts although she also highlights the use of other alternatives for collaborative work aimed to help those not so familiarized with wikis.

The fourth article aims to compare the development of writing skills in English through the use of ICT tools and without the use of them. In this regard, **Suárez Núñez** intends to raise teachers' concern about to what extent and how these technologies enable to enhance students' knowledge better than with processes that do not imply the use of those. To answer this question, the author carries out a case study with two experimental groups with students in the fourth course of Primary Education (group X with ICT tools and group Y without ICT tools) through the use of mind maps and considering CLIL methodology. The analysis revealed an evolution of the group who had not worked with ICT, maybe due to a variable.

Calle-Martínez, Maíz Arévalo and **Núñez Perucha** in their article examine the ability of Tourism students to deal with customer complaints by using the Flipped classroom approach combined with the implementation of a recording program called Voxopop. Maximizing interaction time in class where students work with material, previously examined at home and using the Voxopop allowed a detailed study of complaints as Face Threatening Acts (FTA). The questionnaires filled out

by students after the class have shown that the approach was well received and the majority classified it as useful, motivating and helpful in bettering of their speaking skills, with innovative character of activity scoring 86%. Overall, the authors have exposed the positive impact of this method on the teaching/learning process in the EFL classes for Tourism students, contributing to their motivation and development of their professional skills.

Cubelos Barrera highlights in her article the importance of using technology in elementary school foreign language classrooms. The author presents an innovation proposal, which aims to fill in the gap of promoting oral skills in the target language through technology-based instructions. Cubelos Barrera claims that language learners nowadays need to be provided with more opportunities to become active participants in the foreign language classroom in order to put into practice their creative skills and to practice communication. At the end of her article, the author encourages teachers to use technology in their classes and schools to have enough technological resources available for students.

Variations between the use of language in the traditional printed media and their online alternatives are reflected in the study of the Interactive Case Reports (ICR's) presented by **García-Ostbye**. ICR's, a subgenre of paper based Medical Case Reports (MCR's), appeared with the expansion of the online academic journals, offering the possibility of sharing very specific information among healthcare professionals and interacting with their readers. The objective of this study from the area of genre analysis was to observe and report on the use of language in ICR's, in particular, the textual functions in each of the three parts – presentation, progression and outcome. The quantitative analysis of seven text samples with the use of Wordsmith tools software demonstrated the preference of medical practitioners towards the use of the active voice and past simple tense, which led the author to the conclusion that the main difference between MCR's and ICR's is in the use of verb tenses related to the distinct communicative functions.

Analysis of the language used in the legal documents and its use for ESP syllabus preparation is the focal point of the article by **Bellés-Calvera**. The legal English, or legalese, has its characteristics, such as the use of legal jargon, technical terms, Latinisms or old-fashioned words that differentiate it from an ordinary discourse. Through analysis of trials and verdicts, the author demonstrated the feature with the highest percentage of appearance in both written and oral documents – the legal jargon; however, the oral discourse relied on repetitions and simplifications. These results can facilitate preparation of ESP syllabus, either by creating teaching resources containing authentic courtroom material or by teaching students phrases that appear repeatedly in the oral discourse of the courtrooms and, by extend, positively contribute to preparing the students for participation in programmes such as Erasmus+ and their insertion in the labour market.

Pérez-Penup discusses how non-native learners of English learn to write in English, how they apply strategies and how they form an 'authorial identity' as writers when they publish articles in academic surroundings. The author examined the authorial identity of the non-native English speaking teacher (NNEST) by the means of two main approaches – textography and reader-in-the-text strategy. Textography, as described by Swales (1998), is "something more than a disembodied textual or discoursal analysis, but something less than a full ethnographic account" (p. 1). According to textography, the context of life –for whom the text is, what it is aimed at and where it falls within the rest of the texts– influences writing. Therefore, the combination of textography and discourse analysis data serves as a way of witnessing the path towards construction of authorial identity in academic writing.

In line with this, **Martínez Sáez** in his study investigates how students of Biotechnology react to the specialized texts of their field. As a result, a suitable material for the ESP classes can be prepared, allowing students to become acquainted with, comprehend and produce scientific reports. In the quantitative part of the study, lexical richness of the compiled corpus was measured by the use of Textalyser online analysis tool. In the qualitative part, the excerpts were presented to the 58 students of EPAC (English for Professional and Academic Communication) course to obtain their impressions in terms of complexity, usefulness and suitability of the texts. What the author has shown is that while some students did find the texts too complex, they were not reluctant to engage in their linguistic analysis. Moreover, they seem to appreciate the effort of providing them with the material of varied complexity closely related to their particular scientific domain.

The study carried out by **Izquierdo Alonso, de la Cruz Vicente** and **Gracia Martínez** delves into the insufficiently studied discursive genre on nursing, specifically in the analysis of the instructive content of the clinical documentation of nursing care from the perspective of its rhetorical structure and subject content. In their article, the authors conduct a thorough analysis on a corpus of 10.661 annotations collected from 645 patient records with the aim of gaining a better understanding of the specialized communication within the clinical nursing practice.

Torregrosa and **Sánchez-Reyes** address the intercultural competence, a concept closely linked to global citizenship and multiculturalism. In particular, they explore the intercultural competence awareness in trainee law enforcers who receive ESP classes and design an intercultural 3-stage module specific for L2 police students focused on task-based learning and communicative language teaching. The authors highlight the practical relevance of an ESP (law enforcement) syllabus and sustain that a syllabus, which includes intercultural competence, is motivating for the National Police School ESP apprentices and, in addition, promotes critical thinking, interaction and students' autonomy.

In line with this, **Burgos Cuadrillero** highlights the importance of multiculturality in ESP and, in particular, in specialized sectors such as the tourism area. The author carries out a thorough analysis of the lexical entities categorized as compounds in German within the field of Gastronomy tourism.

In her study, **Durán-Escribano** concentrates on the figurative language in science – in particular, the presence of family schema shown by the use of 'parent/ daughter' metaphors in Geoscience discourse, implementing lexical approach and study of corpus. The author demonstrated that use of lexical approach allowed the search and study of the conceptual metaphors in the dictionary, while the corpus approach provided the possibility to study the metaphors in their contexts; thus, that both methods could be used simultaneously since they complement each other. Identifying the natural collocation of metaphors in the Geoscience texts enables Science and Technology teachers to provide the students with an access to authentic language input. What the author has shown is not only the importance of combining both methods to facilitate ESP teaching/learning but also the possibility of using this method to work with conceptual metaphors in any scientific context.

Turning from the scientific articles towards the news media**, Zelachowska** presents investigation of conceptual metaphors related to the Polish migrants in Britain, using a corpus composed of articles published between years 2006 and 2008. By making use of Critical Discourse Analysis and the Conceptual Metaphor Theory, the author investigates the effect language of the press has on the receptor society. Through the analysis of the corpus, the author categorized the metaphors according to frequency with which they appear and by their source domain. Consequently, it was established that contrary to the initial assumption, the conceptual metaphors used in the discourse of British press (tabloids as well as broadsheets) were predominantly positive, which was caused by various factors such as the political and social context, type of migration and 'usefulness' of the migrants.

By examining the use of stance adverbs with –*ly* ending through analysis of the corpus data, **Álvarez-Gil** sets to investigate the authorial stance of the writers of historical texts in the 18th and 19th century. The author of study chose to look at what adverbs are used to declare the authorial presence in the history texts and what is the frequency with what the adverbs appear. For this purpose the Corpus of History English Texts (CHET) –a subcorpus of The Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing– was used. First, the author used the Coruña Corpus Tools to locate and retrieve the adverbs with –ly in the CHET between the years 1704 and 1895, then he categorized them and listed examples for each category. According to the study, the most frequent ones were circumstantial adverbs, proportionating the *where*, the *when* and the *how* information in the historical texts, due to the descriptive character of the texts and given the nature of writing of the era, where detailed description of events was crucial.

Valero-Garcés contributes to the discussion of how the development of Computer-Assisted, Automatic and Artificial Intelligence Translation tools is leading to a redefinition of the traditional concept of "translation" as well as the role of the translator. In so doing, the author explores these current challenges and their consequences by means of experts reports on the development of Automatic Translation and the results of data collection of market researches.

Even though the use of Machine Translation and CAT tools are becoming more common, the lack of proper lexicon could present a certain difficulty. To address this issue, **Mesonero Maroto** looks at the process of translation and subsequent subtitling

(English to Spanish) of the LGBTQ speech, using the original speech samples of Ru Paul's Drag Race Reality Show. The author reasons that the translators could experience trouble when translating material they are not familiar with since systematic studies in the field are still missing. The study addresses the use of linguistic variations, in particular diastratic and diaphasic as well as idiolect implicated in translation and possible categorization of the slang as a specialized language. Results have confirmed domestication as a major strategy of translations; preservation of style and register of the source text in the translated version and discussed the difficulties in understanding the queer slang as well as issues of cultural appropriation, censorship, omission and euphemism use in subtitling.

The closing paper, by **Zhang**, addresses the disputes that teachers and students face when teaching/learning the subject of Chinese-Spanish translation in the Degree of Spanish Studies in China. In her article, the author conducts a series of online questionnaires addressed to Spanish, Italian and Portuguese students of the third and fourth course of Foreign Studies of the University of Hebei and to a teacher of the subject of Chinese-Spanish translation in the same Institution. The aim of the author was to determine the situation and, in some way, to contribute to the improvement of the subject.

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Corpus use in different EAP contexts for writing evaluation: Some issues and observations

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Abstract
This paper sets out to compare three different EAP scenarios where DDL (Data-driven Learning) techniques were exploited with and / or shown to students for specific writing aims. In particular, this qualitative study deals with the use of identity in writing by the different groups. The students were 20 university faculty members (with a B1 level mostly), 15 graduate students (mostly B2), and 15 faculty and graduate students (B2). The DDL method was explored with all three groups, and salient features in terms of learning opportunities with the use of the first person pronoun and awareness of authorship and voice in the texts can be contrasted.

Keywords: DDL; writing; identity; EAP

1. Introduction

Numerous studies on teaching writing in the context of LSP (i.e., writing in specialized contexts or genres) have emerged over the past decade (e.g., 12 papers in *Ibérica*, a leading journal in LSP, since 2013). Corpus analysis and methods also seem to prove to be a significant instrument for the construction, analysis, and management of written data from L2 learners. Two major corpus approaches tend to be used for non-native written performance analysis: 1) Learner corpora, where learners' use of linguistic items can be studied for different purposes (e.g., Error analysis), and 2) Native corpora for reference and use (e.g., Data-driven learning or DDL).

Our study mostly takes place in the second type of scenario, although there are also some instances of error analysis. The DDL approach may go from simple hands-off concordances (e.g., paper-based) to on-line interaction with the corpus data. The language level (and age) may also vary. Specific writing needs are pinpointed, and writing goals can range from fulfilling a text type task (e.g., a short business report) to getting a paper published.

This paper focuses on a qualitative study about the use of identity in writing by EAP students at our institution, University of Extremadura, including three case studies.

Three school semesters (in 2010, 2013, and 2017) were analysed. The explored DDL method generally led to learning opportunities and students' awareness of authorship and stance in the texts with some linguistic features.

2. Theoretical framework

Corpus linguistics and language learning seem to have merged naturally over the years due to the authenticity conveyed by corpora either as a reference tool for error / interlanguage analysis (e.g., since Granger, 1998) or as key resources for linguistic exploitation (e.g., since Johns, 1990). In the second approach, the term DDL automatically comes to mind, coined by Johns (1990) and expanded and reformulated by several others (e.g., Sinclair, 1991; O'Keeffe et al., 2007; Boulton, 2011). This method has been considered over the years, with different interests and focuses as classroom situations have varied (Boulton & Cobb, 2017, pp. 350-352). In the case of writing, this approach seems to be the most suitable one, since more positive results tend to be found with this academic skill when students use DDL (Boulton & Cobb, 2017, p. 379). The writing tasks tend to mainly deal with learners' uses of corpora for the correction and / or evaluation of linguistic items (Boulton & Cobb, 2017, p. 380).

For writing, DDL research focuses on exploring the connections between words, grammar and discourse, as examined by Mizomuto & Chujo (2015). Meta-linguistic use, identity and authorship stance are important objects of analysis in this area (e.g., Hyland, 2002; Sheldon, 2009). Also, as an example of the increasing concern with this topic in LSP, we could just consider *Ibérica*, the journal of the European Association of Languages for Specific Purposes (AELFE, Asociación Europea de Lenguas para Fines Específicos), to observe that since 2013, 12 papers have been published on writing and meta-discourse, identity, and stance.

It would thus seem that most LSP students favor the use of corpora for writing (Boulton, 2012), and in the case of advanced EAP learners, the tools seem appropriate for students' reflection on their discipline-oriented writing type, style and form (Charles, 2015). However, some questions need ongoing explorations for fuller answers and results. One of such is how these DDL techniques may be useful for lower level learners (e.g., B1) versus advanced learners (C1). Also, how can they be exploited by non-Philology / non-Linguistics students versus language-focused learners? And the most intricate issue: How may students effectively integrate their roles as detectives of language use in their language learning process?

3. The case studies

The three cases involved Spanish learners of EAP at different language levels and in different classroom situations. A quantitative analysis was never carried out with their writing performances, as no previous specific criteria were designed according to the variables to be measured, and because the hours of DDL exposure varied considerably. In contrast, some qualitative observations are presented in this paper in relation to how and in what specific terms they dealt with self-evaluation of academic writing when using personal and meta-textual references (i.e., expressing identity and stance).

There were three groups of students: 1) 20 students (mostly faculty) with mostly B1 levels taking four hours of academic writing (in an intensive 20-hour EAP course) in the Fall semester of 2010. 2) 15 graduate students (from Philology and Education degrees) exposed to 30 hours of corpus work in a 60-hour course for the Master of Education (most students had B2 levels) during the Spring semester of 2013, and 3) 15 mostly graduate students but also faculty with mostly B2 levels taking 2 hours of DDL within a 12-hour EAP module (Fall of 2017). The type of corpus tools also varied considerably, as more frequent and easier access to resources have been made possible over the years, most being free on-line corpora, but also a home-made corpus of blog writing (used in 2010).

The writing tasks assigned to the students were the following:

1. Stating opinion (arguing for or against a given topic): Years 2010 and 2013.
2. Describing a favorite hobby / interest: Years 2010 and 2017.
3. Describing a favorite teaching method: 2013.

The teacher pointed to some specific linguistic mistakes for the groups in 2010 and 2013 prior to corpus use and observation. In 2010, the teacher conducted the DDL revision by showing the data on-line on the screen, while in 2013, the students themselves took note of their possible writing improvements by using the resources available on-line. In 2017, there were no essay writing evaluations, as corpus use was restricted to illustrating some linguistic items that those volunteering to read their texts exposed.

4. Findings

The writing assignments, as seen above, chiefly dealt with essay writing either using description or argument. No discourse structure model regarding any of the text types was considered (e.g., Hyland, 2004; Schneer, 2013), although it may be observed that various texts (especially argumentative essays in 2013) followed the thesis statement / argument / conclusion form. For the evaluation of their writing, three linguistic elements were considered: 1) Using personal pronouns (mainly first person); 2) Using impersonal statements (mainly *it is* + adjectival / participle forms); 3) Using modality in the passive versus active voice. All these elements could point at how identity formulation and reflection might be carried out in the texts (cf. Hyland, 1994; Hyland, 2002).

As expected, the use of the first person singular pronoun was made mostly in argumentation texts (e.g., *I think that*, *I believe that*, *I am in favor of…*). It was also prominent in the description of a favorite teaching method in 2013 (e.g., *I think that*, *I prefer*, *I will choose…*). No use was made of the plural form *we*, and only some use of the second person *you* as an impersonal statement for activity description in 2013 (e.g., *if you take…*). The most common verb tense used with pronouns was the present simple, followed by the future.

Impersonal statements with the use of *it is* + adjective / participle were most prominent in argumentation (especially in 2013: *it is possible that*, *it is good that*, *it* *is considered that…*). However, the passive voice was rarely used with modality (only in arguments with *can* and *may*: three statements in 2013 and one in 2010). They chiefly referred to concepts and objective observations made by the authors. Most of the modal verbs used appeared in the active voice (e.g., *this can happen*, *this may be…*).

In 2010, after the assignments were examined by the teacher, some information was contrasted with the on-line Hong Kong Polytechnic Corpus of Engineering (HKPCE) (as most faculty came from areas in Science) and a home-made corpus of blog writing compiled by the teacher in 2009 and processed with WordSmith Tools (2004) for concordance. As expected, no use was made of the first person singular pronoun in HKPCE, as the texts were research papers and written projects. In contrast, the students realized how the use of *we* could be made in active statements in the corpus. Less clear was their realization of how some verbs going with personal pronouns in their writing (e.g., *observe*, *predict*, *consider*) could be re-written in the passive voice with modals (e.g., *it could be predicted that…*) to confer a more detached academic stance.

By looking at the corpus of blogs, a wealth of choices could be also induced from the use of *I* with other verbs. A common structure, unused by the students, was the omission of *that* in *I believe / think* clauses. In addition, the possible use of *we* to involve the reader was shown, prompting interpersonal relationships with a community of readers in the texts.

In 2013, many different corpus resources were used, but for the evaluation of identity in texts, three on-line resources were important: MICUSP (The Michigan Corpus of Upper-level Student Papers), the academic section of COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English), and BAWE (British Academic Written English corpus). With MICUSP, a wider range of verbs and tenses were observed with the first person pronouns (e.g., *I +* continuous forms in the future and past, *we +* modals involving the reader). The students in 2013 had to take notes on these differences and submit them as a final exercise for the activities. The results were quite satisfactory as a whole. One student even wrote her final project for the course on linguistic differences noticed and exploited with the on-line tools.

By using BAWE, in general, important information was also gathered regarding frequent verbs with modality and passive statements in argumentative texts, written by native authors in BAWE more often than by non-native ones (e.g., with the verb *argue*, up to 88 percent of its use was made by native speakers in impersonal statements involving *it +* modal + *passive*). With COCA, the 2013 students examined, among other aspects, the future tense with personal pronouns in essays, where up to 50 percent of the items occurred in the future continuous (e.g., *I will be arguing / I will be referring to…*). Regarding impersonal statements, some linguistic items produced by our students could be located in COCA, but some distinctions in terms of collocation and structure were noticeable (e.g., *it is possible* is followed by *to* more frequently than by *that*, of the use of *that* is also often omitted).

Finally, in 2017, BAWE and COCA were chosen by the teacher to show some linguistic uses of frequent verbs and nouns (based on previous findings from our EAP courses). Some examples were that many key verbs from the essays (e.g., *find*, *predict*, *generalize*, *observe*) highly occur in passive statements with modality. As found in COCA, it was demonstrated that mainly two modals (*can* and *may*) are favored in the passive voice, whereas the rest are less frequent.

5. Conclusions

Some observations could be made in the form of derived ideas and proposals from the courses in relation to the use of DDL in foreign language academic writing contexts. We may organize them according to three variables observed over the past decade.

1. The language level variable. As demonstrated by the 2017 group, more faculty and graduate students tend to have B2 levels nowadays (regulated by official external examinations). In contrast, the 2010 group had lower levels or could not demonstrate the level with a good degree of confidence. This variable is important because the students at B2 were able to more easily grasp why the corpus-driven evaluation of their writing was relevant. They connected native-like use with the frequency of corpus-informed linguistic items and how this knowledge could benefit their own academic writing competence. In 2010 and 2017, the student groups came from areas in Science. Thus, no bias could be alleged in 2017 in terms of their being language-focused learners.
2. The specific type of text. EAP courses usually include the study of academic genres. An example is the research paper introduction. However, for the writing assignments described, other (less academically rigid) types were chosen so that the students could be allowed more freedom in their writing style. Thus, more variation and choices of linguistic items could be induced from the DDL activities. The wide array of linguistic items that emerged in the DDL sessions belonged to the so-called lexico-grammar aspect of language learning (e.g., a key verb is frequently used in a given tense and voice within a given text type). This correlation was less easily understood by learners, and only in 2013, and partially, the graduate students coming from Philology and Education majors could really make the connections or reproduce such insights onto their own dissertation papers.
3. The inductive work. Except for the 2017 group (since there were no explicit evaluations), the case studies seem to demonstrate that inductive work is possible with DDL in order to both correct and clarify lexico-grammatical items and structures. For the discovery of more optional linguistic items and frequent native-like expressions, the student writers have always indeed valued the tool as quite positive (e.g., in 2013, a questionnaire was given at the end of the course, and 80 percent of the students rated the corpora as very good for writing—Curado, 2014).

Variable 1 thus asks how to make students with lower language level become attracted to the resources. DDL usually implies some good knowledge of foreign language in order to activate the appropriate queries or searches for the different choices without getting lost in the process. Different proposals have been researched and offered to the academic community (e.g., in the form of simplified interfaces and concordance displays—cf. Chujo et al. 2015) but no adequate solutions seem to be found for academic writing when those students are starting at A2 or B1 (especially to make the connections between word use, grammar, and discourse or text type).

We (DDL researchers) may also be interested in future and / or on-going incursions into the comparison of Philology versus non-Philology students' appreciation on the usefulness of DDL (variable 2). Perhaps, one way of examination would be the approach to more current and updated resources where they may make the connection better (indeed, it may seem that corpora such as HKCPE may have become outdated or others like BAWE and COCA may not let them see the connection so clearly). An example could be the use of more recent corpora, explicitly categorized according to disciplines and subjects (the Elsevier corpus of research—Kwary, 2018—may be one possibility).

Finally, it seems that more research is needed in the form of longitudinal studies (variable 3) that focus on post-evaluation over a one-year course or, even more importantly, over a whole degree and / or career (e.g., evaluating teachers on their DDL skills every x number of months for an x-year period, a proposal that other authors have made, e.g., Boulton & Cobb, 2017).

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La producción escrita en la enseñanza del inglés para fines específicos mediante el blogging: análisis del rango de la producción escrita

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Resumen
En esta investigación, se pretende corroborar si la competencia en producción escrita en inglés mejora mediante el Blogging. Como objetivo secundario, se pretende comprobar que se ha producido un aprendizaje positivo en cuanto a la adquisición de vocabulario técnico en el contexto educativo de la Formación Profesional.

Para tal fin, se realizó una experimentación con alumnos de inglés que estudiaron, durante el curso 2013-2014, 1º curso de grado superior "Diseño y Amueblamiento", en la Formación Profesional. De ahí que esta investigación está enmarcada dentro del área Enseñanza del inglés para fines específicos (Teaching ESP-English for Specific Purposes), dado que el alumnado participante en este proyecto tuvo que realizar actividades diversas para trabajar la competencia en producción escrita, mediante el Blogging, directamente ligadas con el inglés técnico, propio de la especialidad formativa correspondiente al ámbito correspondiente de la Formación Profesional.

Se escogió el modelo investigación-acción, teniendo en cuenta que el autor del presente artículo asumió el doble papel de investigador y docente del grupo de alumnos que participaron en esta experimentación, objeto de estudio del presente artículo. En consecuencia, se consideró oportuno analizar los resultados obtenidos a partir de los métodos cuantitativos, con especial atención en el rango de la producción escrita, considerando pues la escritura como producto, y no como proceso, consiguiendo así resultados positivos durante toda la experimentación, y determinando pues beneficios satisfactorios en lo concerniente a la competencia en producción escrita mediante el Blogging al final del proyecto.

Palabras claves: Blogging; competencia en producción escrita; inglés para fines específicos; inglés técnico.

1. Introducción

El motivo de esta investigación está determinado por la necesidad de mejorar la calidad de la competencia de la producción escrita en lengua inglesa para fines específicos y, particularmente, inglés técnico propio de la Familia Profesional "Diseño y Amueblamiento", 1º curso de Grado Superior de la Formación Profesional Reglada. La presente investigación resulta interesante, considerando las escasas publicaciones con respecto al *Blogging* en la enseñanza del inglés en la formación profesional.

Nuestro objetivo principal consiste en corroborar si la competencia en expresión escrita mejora a través del *Blogging* como herramienta educativa con alumnos de Ciclos Formativos, cuya función consistía en realizar tareas de competencia escrita relacionadas con el aprendizaje del inglés relacionado con la Familia Profesional "Diseño y Amueblamiento".

Se espera pues que los alumnos hayan mejorado en su capacidad de desarrollar la producción escrita mediante el *Blogging* (Fellner y Apple, 2006; Murray y Hourigan, 2008), pudiendo así verificar la hipótesis de partida que se plantea en este trabajo, dando una respuesta a las preguntas de investigación establecidas inicialmente.

2. Marco teórico

En este apartado, se expone el estado de la cuestión en el que se fundamenta este trabajo. En primer lugar, se explican los tres enfoques metodológicos en los que se fundamenta la Web 2.0 en el ámbito de la enseñanza de las lenguas extranjeras: 1. El Constructivismo, puesto que la Web 2.0 aporta diversas herramientas con un componente social, facilitando el trabajo colaborativo, mayor interacción en el proceso de aprendizaje y el aprendizaje en grupo (Vázquez y Sevillano, 2011) y la creación conjunta y compartida de conocimiento; 2. El Enfoque Comunicativo, considerando que la Web 2.0 ofrece mayor interacción en el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras por parte del alumnado y 3. El Aprendizaje por Tareas, puesto que la Web 2.0 dispone de varias herramientas mediante las cuales los alumnos pueden realizar varios tipos de tareas (Pérez Torres y Pérez Gútierrez, 2005).

En segundo lugar, se expone todo lo relacionado con la enseñanza de lenguas para fines específicos. En cuanto a la enseñanza de este "movimiento pedagógico" (Aguirre, 2011, p.27), Hutchinson y Waters (1987: 16) distinguen cuatro categorías: *English for Specific Purposes*, *English for Academic Purposes*, *English for Science & Technology* y *English for Occupational Purposes*. El idioma inglés adquiere, en la formación profesional, una gran relevancia dado que la formación profesional prepara al alumnado para la actividad profesional y facilita la inserción del alumno en el mercado laboral, dándole la oportunidad de realizar prácticas no remuneradas en países de la Unión Europea de habla inglesa.

En un curso de inglés para fines específicos, el término "análisis de necesidades" se concibe (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) como un concepto relevante que implica un curso muy especializado. Los autores se refieren al término "necesidades del alumno" como elemento fundamental en la enseñanza de lenguas para fines específicos, tratándose pues de una enseñanza centrada en el alumnado (Hutchinson y Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans y St. John, 1998).

En cuanto a las TIC aplicadas en la enseñanza del inglés para fines específicos, destacan Lázaro, Pena y Vitalaru (2009) y Martín Monje (2010). Lázaro, Pena y Vitalaru (2009) se centran en la enseñanza del inglés aplicada al derecho. Martín Monje (2010) analiza la enseñanza del inglés para fines específicos en un contexto docente universitario a distancia.

En tercer lugar, se expone todo aquello relacionado con los Blogs en la enseñanza de lenguas para fines específicos. Las publicaciones más conocidas son Arani (2005), Martín-Monje (2010) y Murray y Hourigan (2008). No obstante, cabe decir que apenas hay publicaciones con respecto al *Blogging* en la enseñanza del inglés para fines específicos y, en concreto, en la enseñanza del inglés técnico en la formación profesional, siendo pues necesaria esta investigación.

3. Metodología

El problema de esta investigación tuvo lugar en el contexto de un centro integrado público de formación profesional, donde se observó una carencia relevante en competencia de la producción escrita en inglés en el primer curso de Grado Superior de la Familia Profesional de Diseño y Amueblamiento.

Resulta relevante mencionar que, considerando la experiencia docente del investigador, se han observado que: 1. En la formación profesional existe un bajo nivel educativo en lengua inglesa y 2. El autor, desde su propia experiencia docente, distingue una gran variedad de niveles en un mismo grupo de alumnos. Esto se pudo constatar en el CIPFP "Catarroja" (Valencia), donde el autor impartió clases durante el curso académico 2013-2014, cuando esta experimentación se desarrolló.

El motivo por el cual el nivel del idioma es bajo se debe a que el alumnado de FP no reconoce una aplicación práctica del idioma a corto plazo, distinguiendo tres grupos de alumnos: alumnos con estudios universitarios, alumnos procedentes de Bachillerato, y un tercer grupo cuya edad oscila entre 40 y 50 años y, por tanto, su nivel de inglés es nulo. Esta es la realidad educativa en la Formación Profesional con respecto al inglés, siendo pues necesaria la presente investigación en el marco de la enseñanza del inglés para fines específicos.

Las preguntas de investigación formuladas aquí son: 1. ¿Pueden influir los blogs en la mejora de la competencia en producción escrita en inglés? 2. En cuanto a la adquisición de vocabulario técnico en inglés, ¿cómo pueden los blogs ayudar al alumnado a mejorar este aspecto? 3. ¿Puede el uso de los blogs aumentar la motivación del alumnado hacia el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa?

Para esta investigación, se ha elegido el modelo investigación-acción. Las hipótesis de partida de la presente investigación son éstas: 1. El uso del blog en el curso de inglés para fines específicos aumenta la motivación del alumnado, e influye positivamente en la mejora de la competencia de la producción escrita y 2. El empleo del blog en la clase de inglés para fines específicos facilita una mejora notable en la adquisición de vocabulario técnico, adaptándose bien a las necesidades formativas bien a las necesidades laborales del alumnado.

A continuación, se explica de forma concisa el modelo investigación-acción. En el campo de la educación, Elliot (1993) y Kemmis y McTaggart (1988) introducen la idea del maestro investigador. Estos autores sugieren que el docente pueda realizar una investigación sistemática sobre su propia acción educativa con la finalidad de mejorarla, pudiendo así combinar los roles de investigador, observador y profesor y, paralelamente, uniendo el conocimiento teórico con el de un contexto determinado en el que resulta conveniente una intervención educativa (Cohen, Manion y Morrison, 2007).

Según Cohen y Manion (1990) y Elliot (1993), este modelo cumple con estas características: 1. Su objetivo es mejorar la educación mediante un cambio, 2. Implica la participación de investigadores y docentes, 3. Está focalizada en los problemas en un contexto concreto, 4. La práctica no adquiere mayor importancia en cuanto al contexto sobre el que se está investigando, y 5. Se está considerando constantemente posibles cambios sobre los que poder reflexionar y, a partir de la reflexión, intervenir, ofreciendo así una visión amplia y objetiva de la realidad.

En esta investigación, se analizan los datos cuantitativos obtenidos a partir de las actividades de producción escrita realizadas mediante el *Blogging* durante el curso escolar 2013-2014, y así verificar si la competencia en producción escrita en inglés técnico ha mejorado o no, al finalizar la experimentación, centrándose en el análisis de los resultados a partir de la valoración del producto desde la perspectiva del rango de las diferentes producciones escritas mediante el *Blogging*.

4. Análisis de los resultados

En primer lugar, se analizan los resultados de la prueba inicial realizada antes de comenzar la experimentación. La finalidad de esta prueba reside en conocer el nivel inicial del alumnado antes de la experimentación. Los alumnos tenían que presentarse a sí mismos, e incluir información de acciones cotidianas que los alumnos realizan habitualmente.

Si se observa el rango de la primera gráfica, hay una ingente diferencia entre las máximas y las mínimas, mostrando un grupo bastante diverso con respecto a la competencia escrita: solo una alumna obtuvo la calificación de 9; dos alumnos consiguieron 7; cuatro alumnos aprobaron con 6, de los cuales 2 alumnos rozaron 7; tres alumnos superaron el 5 y el resto no superó la prueba inicial. Como caso excepcional, existe un alumno que no superó la calificación de 1 durante todo el curso a causa de su nulo nivel.

En segundo lugar, se analiza el rango de los resultados de las tres producciones escritas de la presente experimentación. En el rango de la primera actividad se encuentran valores positivos, alcanzando la calificación de 10 en los componentes gramática, vocabulario y ortografía. Esto se debe a que los alumnos usaron estructuras sencillas y concisas del idioma. Con respecto al vocabulario, subrayar que se trata de un vocabulario técnico con el que el alumnado está familiarizado en su lengua nativa. Por ello, no les supuso una gran dificultad realizar el diccionario online técnico, utilizando oraciones simples y coordinadas con los verbos *to be*, *to have* y verbos en *presente simple* para definir vocabulario relacionado con el diseño y el amueblamiento, siendo pues maquinaria diversa que los alumnos utilizan en los respectivos talleres prácticos en los diferentes módulos formativos. Así pues, apenas hay cabida para muchos errores de ortografía debido a la simplicidad de la tarea.

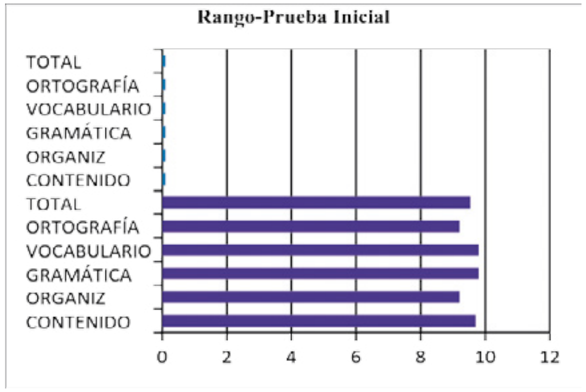

Fig. 1. Rango de los resultados de la prueba inicial

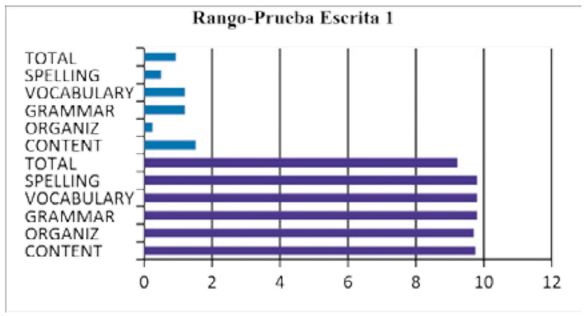

Fig. 2. Rango de los resultados de la Primera Producción Escrita

El rango de la segunda producción escrita desciende a 8.7, produciéndose así diferencias significativas entre las notas máximas de los diferentes componentes que en el rango de la primera tarea.

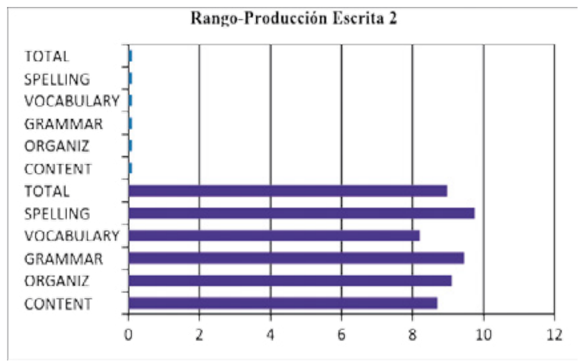

Fig. 3. Rango de los resultados de la Segunda Producción Escrita

El ligero empeoramiento de estos resultados puede deberse a que: 1. El bajo nivel del idioma por parte de una gran mayoría de alumnos que estudian en la formación profesional, 2. Una mayor dificultad en las estructuras de la lengua requeridas en esta actividad y 3. Baja motivación por parte del alumnado en el proceso de escritura.

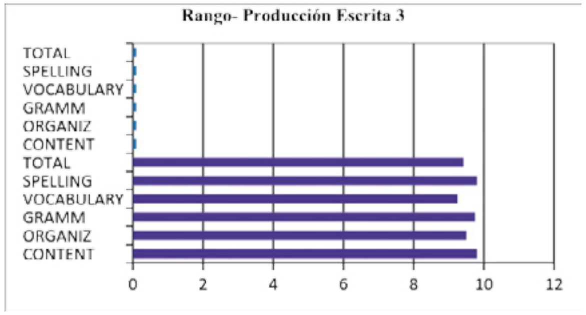

Fig. 4. Rango de los resultados de la Tercera Producción Escrita

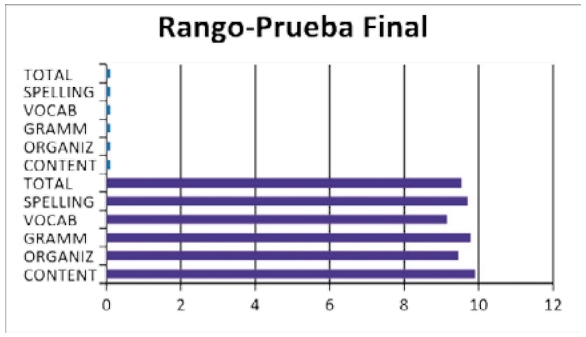

Fig. 5. Rango de los resultados de la prueba final

El rango de esta tercera actividad se acentúa, alcanzando la calificación de 10, por un lado, en los componentes de contenido, gramática y ortografía mientras, por otro, la mínima sigue en 0.1 durante todas las tareas realizadas. Analizando las puntuaciones de los alumnos por separado, se puede inferir que: 1. Los alumnos, que comenzaron con un nivel relativamente más alto, lograron incrementar su nivel; 2. Existe un grupo de alumnos cuyas calificaciones oscilan entre 5 y 7 durante la experimentación y 3. Hay dos alumnos cuyo nivel inicial se encontraba en lo mínimo. Desde el principio del curso, su nivel de la lengua no evolucionó en absoluto, puesto que estos dos alumnos se ausentaban frecuentemente de las clases, por motivos laborales.

En tercer lugar, se analiza el rango de los resultados de la prueba final. Éste incrementa notablemente con respecto a la prueba de inicio de curso; así, si la media total de la prueba inicial era 5.1, en la prueba final el rango asciende a 7.1, habiendo pues una diferencia significativa. Se puede pues comprobar que el nivel de calidad de los textos ha mejorado sustancialmente.

5. Discusión y Conclusiones

A partir de los datos obtenidos, se puede corroborar que la competencia en producción escrita mediante el *Blogging* en la enseñanza del inglés técnico en la FP ha mejorado notablemente hacia el final de la experimentación. Considerando pues que la bibliografía con respecto al *Blogging* en la enseñanza del inglés técnico en la formación profesional reglada es escasa, la presente investigación podría servir como punto de partida para abrir nuevas líneas de investigación académicas en torno al *Blogging* en la docencia del inglés en la FP.

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Wikis as support for English studies' distance students to analyse and produce EST texts

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Abstract

This paper describes the evolution that a subject such IPAII has experienced in order to improve the quality of its teaching. The use of collaborative work and the critical reading of bibliographic references has influenced the final marks of the students of the course. Due to the nature of this subject, with no face-to-face tutorials and based on the analysis and writing of brief pieces of EST texts, the teaching team devised the idea of creating a common space in the form of a wiki so that all students had access to the same texts. To prove the effectiveness of this methodology, an exhaustive analysis of the data retrieved from the course was performed. These data came through two channels: Wikispaces statistics (history of changes and forum participation) and aLF, which apart from serving as common fora to discuss each activity, has also been a place to link different questionnaires to gather feedback related to the satisfaction of students with the subject.

The announcement of the closure of Wikispaces in July 2018 has obliged the teaching team to think about other alternatives for collaborative work without affecting the instructions provided in the course guide. One of the best solutions found for this academic year was to migrate all the texts from the wiki to aLF so that they could be discussed in the fora. Some of the most useful features -such as using colours to highlight sections of text or delving into the history of changes for later analysis- is missing with this modification, but the debate on specific topics arisen from the analysis of the text is still possible. The comparison between the marks obtained this academic year and in previous ones can help us to conclude whether the use of wikis improves the quality of the learning or represents an obstacle for students who are not very familiar with this methodology.

Keywords: EST; ESP; ICT; Collaborative learning; Digital Competences

1. Introduction

This paper depicts the teaching of a subject based on the analysis of technical texts from a linguistic point of view through different perspectives. From the beginning, the teaching team had thought about the use of a wiki to analyse collaboratively all the texts included in the subject as a suitable solution to comment and ask doubts in the same way they could do it in a face-to-face context. However, with the closing of the wiki tool used, Wikispaces, the instructors had to think about other alternatives which could supply most of the functions of the wiki. Teaching English for Technology (EST) to students with a non-technological background requires an additional effort from their part and a high level of multidisciplinarity from the teaching team to choose the right texts and evaluate them attending to different linguistic aspects. Due to the specificity of this discipline (Parkinson, 2012), the use of the Internet (Suau-Jiménez, Francisca; Ramírez-, 2016) has always been an excellent allied. Similar subjects to this can be found in different degrees related to Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) or Translation Studies. Nonetheless, its inclusion in Bachelors' Degree in English Studies degrees is not so frequent as in mentioned context. Among the universities which offer it, we find Alcala de Henares (Madrid) or Universitat Jaume I (Castellón). The approach varies from a STEM context to the linguistic one, being the first one more focused on learning a specialised instructional English, in opposition to the other, more descriptive or normative.

2. English for Science and Technology

EST arises in the early years of the English for Specific Purposes (1962-1981) as a way to write about the experience gathered by language teachers when having to teach technical English to non-native students (Johns, 2012). One of the pioneers in this filed, who served as a reference for many authors in the future, is Louis Trimble. He studied the rhetoric of a broad scope of EST texts, covering from the most formal academic articles to the not so formal style, "written for the layman" (Trimble, 1985), as it can be the instructions to install an air-conditioned machine. These apparently opposed extremes motivated the sometimes-blurred division between English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). Hence, the first term refers to the EST fields (e.g. Engineering, Electronics or Mining) in opposition to EST occupations such as engineering technicians, mechanics or plumbers). Although EAP disciplines share some linguistic features, there are studies aimed to analyse their possible differences (Hamp-Lyons & Hyland, 2004). Additionally, we find other texts in between, addressed to a trained audience but not experts (Roger & Sergi, 2018), which corresponds to scientific and technological magazines or the sections of Science and Technologies found in some international daily publications. This type of discourse is also known as 'science writing', described by Day & Sakaduski (2011, p. 8) as' writing sometimes written by scientists but sometimes written by not scientists, for an audience of non-scientists'. Parallel to Trimble; the Academic and Scientific genre analysis experiences a drastic advancement thanks to John Swales (Swales, 1990). Different factors determine the level of technicality of EST word: its frequency in specialised areas, its appearance in general texts, etc. (Johnson, 2007; D. Liu, 2012). Some authors distinguish three levels of the specialization -specialized, semi-specialized and general terms used in languages of speciality (Hatam et al., 2009; Mudraya, 2006; Rusko, 2014). Others recognise five thanks to the Technicality Analysis Model (TAM): least technical, slightly technical, moderately technical, very technical and most technical (Ha & Hyland, 2017).

3. The use of wikis in an online collaborative language learning context

Since the first educative emerged at the beginning of the 21st cent. (Godwin-Jones, 2003), they have received a pleasant welcome from language teachers. They are easy to use and present a friendly interface which allows a quick edition anytime from any device. If some of them like PhP Works (Ortiz & Ferreira, 2014) or Wikimedia (Zheng, Niiya, & Warschauer, 2015) an added difficulty due to that they needed to install in a server, others like Wikispaces, have been used by many teachers of different disciplines probably because of its WYSIWYG edition system (Li & Kim, 2016). In the field of language teaching and learning, wikis have been used to facilitate the collaborative writing (Roy, 2017), treat online anxiety (Kassem, 2017; X. Liu, 2010), create contents online, translate (Talaván, Noa; Jordano, María; Bárcena, 2017), elaborating glossaries (Lázaro, Raquel; Pena, 2009) or discuss topics. Other authors perceive them as the perfect context to develop online tasks as a way to substitute the physical presence and connect students from different places (Windsor & Park, 2014). Many authors have incorporated wikis in their English for Academic Purposes classes (Kuteeva, 2011; Murray, Hourigan, & Jeanneau, 2007; Windsor & Park, 2014). Most of the mentioned authors remark the importance of a good project design to obtain a successful collaborative task.

4. Methodology

This research analyses the influence of a wiki and the consequent collaborative work dropped in a such a multidisciplinary subject like this. To conduct this analysis, an exhaustive review of the statistics generated by the different sections of the Wikispaces course site was carried out. This review begins by showing a general view of the activities throughout the course and number of visits received, continuing with a selection of some of the most relevant ones. The number of accesses to the forum of each wiki page has also been analysed together with the activity concentrated in the thematic forums, which can be found in the official online course. It is important to highlight that, in opposition to other wiki projects, the wiki has been used in this course as a support for making easier the completion of some activities. This means that, eventhough all of them belong to the same topic, they can be worked independently. Apart from the information retrieved from the wiki and the thematic forums, it is crucial to relate these data to other elements of the course: continuous evaluation participation and results, questionnaires of satisfaction and success rates of the subject (not available datum up to this point).

5. Study

This subject began to be offered in 2012-13 as an optional subject of the fourth grade of the Bachelor's Degree in English Studies. It started with 80 students enrolled in its first year, and it has reached a total of 150 in the academic year of 2017-18. It gathers students from different points of Spain and other countries mainly coming from Europe and America.

The figure 1 shows how the number of enrolled students has been increasing gradually except for the academic years 2014-15 and 2015-16, which experienced a slight decrease, which might have been due to the initial discontent with the subject. It also includes the number of students which created an account at Wikispaces (first item), at the percentage in relation to the total of students enrolled (4th item), which represents a measure of 48%. Paradoxically, the year 2015-16 was the year with the highest number of Wikispaces members.

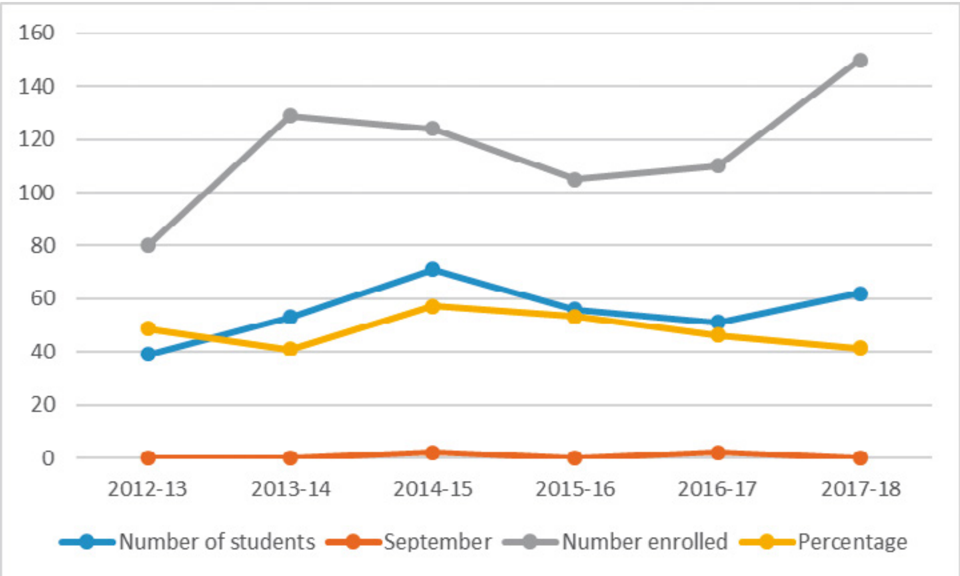

Fig. 1. Overall figures (total of enrolled students & Wikispaces' membership

This feeling, provoked by a sense of overwhelming at the very beginning of the course, might be the cause of the consequent light students' drop. At the light of these results, the teaching team decided to give more technological support from the beginning, especially for those not familiarised with Wikispaces. The beginning of the academic year 2017-18, which coincided with the closure of this tool, triggered the migration of all the activities found on the wiki to the online course. If at the beginning this meant a significant problem for the collaborative work, some evidence proves that this fact has brought more advantages than expected.

5.1. The wiki

The wiki was created on January 23rd, some days before the launching of the subject, with Wikispaces, a free tool founded in 2005 when used for educative purposes. Most of the students already knew how to work with it, given that most of them had followed a subject delivered by the same teaching team with similar methodology. However, 45.9% had not worked with this tool ever, and this fact represents for them a real handicap in the first weeks of the course, being an obstacle more than an element of help to comment the texts.

5.2. Wiki activities

As mentioned before, the wiki is just mere support for some of the activities proposed throughout the course. They appear on the online course through a link that points to the page in the wiki that contains it. The structure of the wiki pages is always the same: an editable space where texts are displayed ready to work on, a forum below to discuss questions related to the texts, a history of changes and administration section. Table 1 shows the number of activities found in the wiki in relation to the total of activities found along the course. The brainstorming activities consist on some questions addressed at the beginning and end of each unit to the students to make them share what they know about each topic before its study and final questions as a reflection and feedback about what they have learnt after its study. 'Others' are mainly based on the reading of some relevant article with the aims of sharing some relevant findings on the forum and the total displays the number of activities per unit and its measure, more than 6,4 activities per unit, perhaps more than other similar subjects on the same course.

TABLE 1. NUMBER OF WIKI ACTIVITIES PER UNIT.

UNITS	WIKI ACTIVITIES	BRAINSTORMING	OTHERS	TOTAL
Unit 1	2	2	2	6
Unit 2	2	2	2	6
Unit 3	3	2	2	7
Unit 4	3	2	1	6
Unit 5	3	2	2	7
Measure	2,6	2	1,8	6,4

Most of these activities consist of a group of texts which must be annotated with colours to identify the different linguistic features studied in each unit. These annotations are tracked by the platform with the name of the user and the date of modification for later analysis. Although most of the pages are updated with new texts at the beginning of the semester, the students have access to the previous annotated versions so that they can read other annotated samples of texts to revise before the exam. One of the activities included in unit 4 consisted on identifying different parts of the IMRD structure of an article in different abstracts according to Galsman-Deal (2010), who divided them into model 1 or 2 depending on whether they referred to all the sections of the complete article or not (Introduction-Methodology-Results-Discussion). Some of the students preferred to wiki forum to post their answers and some others wrote their analysis after the text, probably because they did not know how to add colours to the text. In the case of 2015-16-year students, the platform registered a total of 14 responses to the wiki forum colour editions from two different students. The same activity in the academic year 2017-18 generated 31 messages in the forum, in opposition to the eight received in 2015-16. One of the most relevant findings this year is that they have been able to do basically the same than with Wikispaces, probably due to the homogeneity of working places.

5.3. Continuous Evaluation Test (PEC)

Apart from the final written exam, all UNED subjects include the realisation of a personal project which can represent up to 20% of the total marks. In this case, the PEC consists of the submission of a summary of all the activities done during the course so that the students can be rewarded by their effort conveniently. These PECs are checked by online tutors, who provided some feedback of help for the students before their exam. The number of students who submitted the PEC corresponds approximately to the number of students who registered at Wikispaces to do the activities. Most of these students go to the first exam call, and most of them pass it.

6. Results

One of the peculiarities of Distance Studies is the elevated rate on abandonment and return. From the 18 subjects offered for the 4th Grade, 13 were optional, similarly to the subject analysed in this study. It is important to highlight the fact that this was among the six subjects with the highest rate of evaluation (an 81,01%), a percentage which has been decreasing until the year 2016-17. This could be caused by the time it takes its global study, including a quite complete PEC which represents 20% of the total score. IPAII is indeed a complex subject with a high degree of multidisciplinarity and interaction, due to the design of the subject. Although the interest and motivation have experienced considerable growth in the last year, as the enrollment numbers and satisfaction questionnaires demonstrate, there are many weak points to improve.

The problem on the closing of Wikispaces has helped us realise that working collaboratively in other simple contexts is also possible. Having two spaces to attend obliged the teaching team to double the work, resting answering times to the question replies, and making a second effort to explain how to manage with external tools for some students. An additional obstacle came in the academic year 2017-18 when two in prison students enrolled in this course for the first time so that the teaching team had to adapt the online materials into plain ones to be acceded by these students with Internet restrictions.

The fact that the activities can be done individually, without having to edit directly on the Wikispaces activity page, hides part of the work done by the students. This explains the poor activity registered by the changes registry. One of the most relevant conclusions of this study reinforces others concluded by other authors mentioned in this study. The key of a wiki-based project like this resides on a well-planned and monitored design, with the presence of the tutor visible at all time. Using a single platform can be a good way to help those not so familiarized with wiki edition, so that it can motivate to more students.

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Enfoques metodológicos en el aprendizaje del inglés con o sin recursos TIC. Estudio de caso AICLE en Educación Primaria

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Resumen
En este artículo se recoge un estudio de casos llevado a cabo en varios centros públicos rurales de Extremadura. Dicho estudio pretende comparar el desarrollo de la habilidad de expresión escrita en Lengua Extranjera-Inglés mediante el uso de herramientas TIC y sin el uso de las mismas. Para ello, se han creado dos grupos experimentales X e Y con niños de 9-10 años. Como conclusión, se puede decir que se aprecia una evolución del grupo que no ha trabajado con TIC quizá debido a una variable.

Palabras clave: TIC, inglés, enseñanza, aprendizaje

1. Introducción

En general y, sobre todo en los últimos años, la investigación en torno al uso de las TIC (Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación) en entornos educativos y de enseñanza-aprendizaje tiende a demostrar que existen muchos casos positivos que enriquecen el proceso educativo, sobre todo debido a una gran variedad de posibilidades ofrecidas. A pesar de ello, siempre es saludable cuestionar y plantear en qué medida y cómo estas tecnologías permiten a los alumnos adquirir mejor los conocimientos que con procesos que no impliquen el uso de las mimas. Para dar respuesta a este interrogante, se ha llevado a cabo un estudio de caso con dos grupos experimentales.

1.1. Campo de trabajo y tema principal

Se ha realizado un estudio de caso para trabajar la expresión escrita con alumnos de 4º curso de Educación Primaria pertenecientes a colegios de entornos rurales. Para su desarrollo, se han creado dos grupos: grupo X con TIC y grupo Y sin TIC.

1.2. Estado de la cuestión y objeto de estudio

Son muchos los trabajos de investigación que se han llevado a cabo en relación con el uso de las TIC y el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje en general, y del inglés como

Lengua Extranjera en particular. Entre ellos, Sebastián y Garrido (2017) realizaron un estudio de casos sobre el desarrollo de la inteligencia intrapersonal e interpersonal en Educación Primaria a partir del uso de las TIC. Tondeur, Krug, Bill, Smulders y Zhu (2015) estudiaron los beneficios de la inclusión de las TIC en varios institutos de Kenia. En estos trabajos de investigación se aprecian resultados satisfactorios obtenidos gracias a la incorporación de las TIC en los procesos de aprendizaje. La duda relacionada con este tema es si realizando actividades similares sin el uso de las TIC los resultados hubiesen sido satisfactorios igualmente, independientemente de las múltiples aplicaciones que indudablemente éstas ofrecen.

El objeto concreto de nuestro estudio es comparar el aprendizaje con y sin recursos TIC en la expresión escrita a través del uso de mapas mentales y teniendo en cuenta la metodología AICLE.

2. Marco Teórico

2.1. Las TIC en el ámbito educativo

La educación presenta como función principal la transmisión de la cultura de una generación a otra (Araujo, 2015). Hoy en día, vivimos en una sociedad digital que gira en torno a las TIC. Partiendo de esta idea, se hace preciso formar a nuestros alumnos en competencias digitales esenciales para el desarrollo de su vida diaria. Gisbert y Esteve (2011) denominan a las personas nacidas en la era tecnológica como Nativos Digitales. Además, señalan como características propias de estas personas las siguientes: una marcada alfabetización digital, la necesidad constante de estar conectados, la inmediatez o necesidad de acceso instantáneo a la información, la multitarea, un marcado carácter social y el aprendizaje experimental.

Los Nativos Digitales demandan el uso de las TIC en el aula. Según Marqués (2013) y teniendo en cuenta a otros autores, las actuaciones de los centros educativos para adaptarse a las TIC deben girar en torno a tres escenarios: el escenario tecnócrata (desarrollo de la alfabetización digital), el escenario reformista (formar en/sobre TIC) y el escenario holístico (reestructuración de los centros educativos para incluir las TIC en su vida diaria).

Las TIC presentan diferentes funcionalidades y usos en el proceso educativo, por ello, atendiendo a las aportaciones de Marqués (2013), Serrano (2013), Rodríguez (2015) y Muñoz, Ariza y Sampedro (2017) hemos tratado de resumir estos usos y funcionalidades en la siguiente infografía.

2.2. Las TIC en la etapa de educación primaria

La importancia del uso y aplicación de las TIC en el proceso educativo de los alumnos de la etapa de Educación Primaria viene determinada por el artículo 7, objetivo i) que está destinado a las TIC y señala la importancia de "Iniciarse en la utilización, para el aprendizaje, de las Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación desarrollando un espíritu crítico ante los mensajes que reciben y elaboran" (RD 126/2014, p. 6).

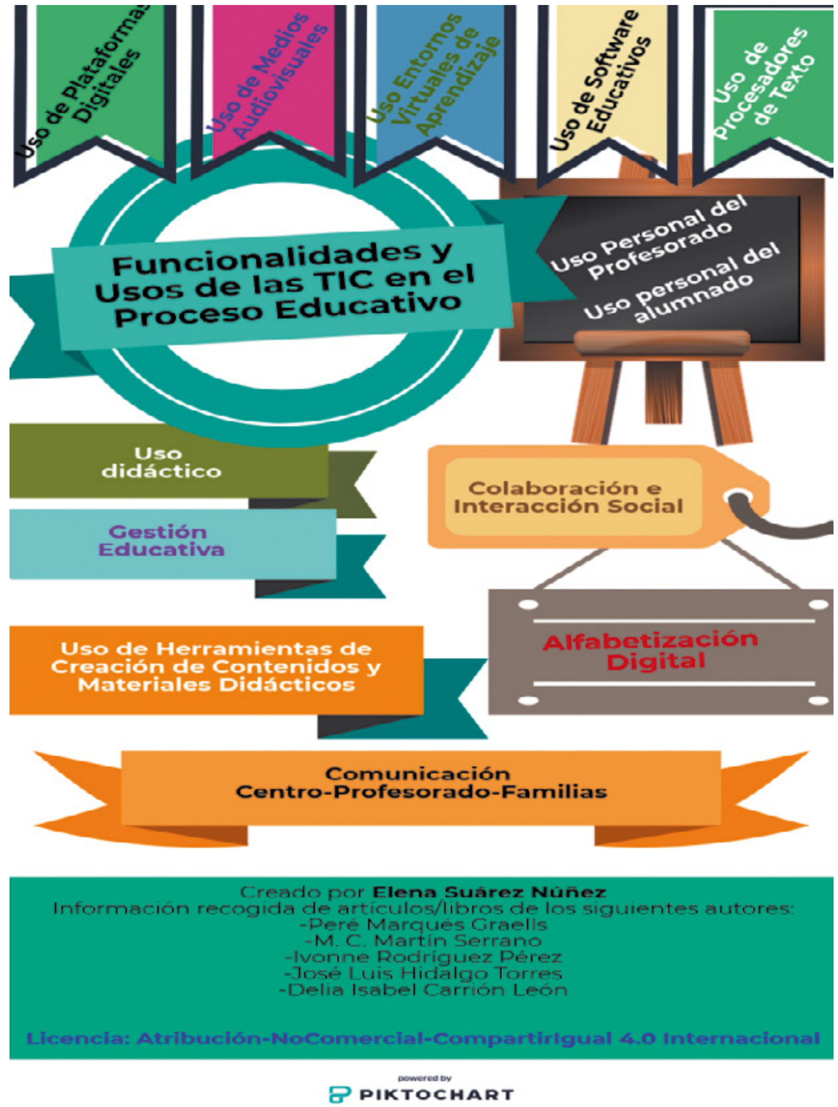

Fig. 1. Funcionalidades y usos de las TIC en el proceso educativo. (Fuente: elaboración propia)

El RD y el D 103/2014, basados en la LOE-LOMCE, señalan los elementos que conforman el currículo. Entre ellos encontramos las *Competencias Clave* que son las "capacidades para aplicar de forma integrada los contenidos propios de cada enseñanza y etapa educativa" (D, p. 18970) y entre estas está la *Competencia Digital*.

Así mismo, en el punto 4, artículo 6 del D, apartado d) se establecen las "Estrategias metodológicas, incluyendo el uso de las *TIC*, como recurso didáctico" (p.18972).

2.3. La importancia del aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera
Podríamos definir el inglés como la lengua comunicativa por excelencia ya que sirve como nexo de comunicación entre personas de diferentes nacionalidades. Por este motivo, el RD y el D establecen dentro del bloque de asignaturas troncales la *Primera Lengua Extranjera*.

Las lenguas extranjeras son esenciales porque forman parte del futuro. Con el tiempo, se van extendiendo las relaciones entre los individuos de diferentes partes del mundo, países, organismos y corporaciones. Por este motivo se persigue formar un perfil plurilingüe e intercultural que permita a los alumnos adaptar la lengua a diferentes contextos y situaciones. (D, pp. 19122-19123).

2.4. Los mapas mentales como herramienta creativa del proceso educativo
Los mapas mentales son una técnica que surgió en la década de los 70 con el movimiento del cognitivismo, adquiriendo su máxima expansión en los 80 y 90. Esta técnica combina imágenes con palabras permitiendo de este modo estructurar y organizar la información para recordarla mejor. Además, contribuye al desarrollo de la competencia de aprender a aprender (Muñoz et al. 2015).

3. Estudio de caso AICLE
En rasgos generales el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) es un enfoque educativo dual basado en la lengua y en el contenido de forma inseparable, aunque en ciertos momentos pueda presentar mayor énfasis uno que otro (Gené, 2015, p.15).

3.1 Muestra
Este estudio de casos ha sido llevado a cabo con un grupo de 56 alumnos de dos colegios rurales de Extremadura.

3.2 Datos
A continuación, se presenta una tabla donde se señalan las herramientas que ha utilizado cada grupo experimental (X e Y), el número de alumnos que han participado en cada grupo y cómo han realizado el mapa mental los alumnos de cada grupo, así como la redacción.

	GRUPO X	GRUPO Y
Herramientas	Con TIC	Sin TIC
Número de alumnos	27	27
Mapa mental Redacción	Programa EdrawMindMap Word	A papel A papel

Fig. 2. Datos sobre los grupos experimentales. (Fuente: elaboración propia).

3.3 Contenidos, criterios de evaluación, estándares de aprendizaje evaluables e ítems
Los elementos del currículo que a continuación se detallan han sido recogidos del RD y D, en concreto para el área de *Lengua Extranjera-Inglés* y para el 4º curso de Educación Primaria.

ELEMENTOS DE CURRÍCULO	RD y D
Contenidos	4.2. Estrategias de producción/ planificación. 4.4. Estrategias de producción/ejecución. 4.8. Aspectos socioculturales y sociolingüísticos.
Criterios de evaluación	4.4 4.5 4.8
Estándares de aprendizaje evaluables	Escribe correspondencia personal breve y simple (mensajes, notas, postales, correos, chats o SMS) en la que da las gracias, felicita a alguien, hace una invitación, da instrucciones, o habla de sí mismo y de su entorno personal más inmediato (familia, amigos, aficiones, actividades cotidianas, objetos, lugares) y hace preguntas relativas a estos temas. Elabora textos a partir de un tema tratado como la ciudad, barrio, intereses…
Ítems	0. No escribe apenas nada. 1. No es capaz de escribir un texto corto sencillo donde hable de su pueblo. 2. Escribe un texto corto sencillo donde hable de su pueblo aunque con mucha dificultad y cometiendo muchos errores. 3. Escribe un texto corto sencillo donde hable de su pueblo aunque comete algunos errores. 4, Escribe adecuadamente un texto corto sencillo donde hable de su pueblo. 5. Escribe satisfactoriamente un texto corto sencillo donde hable de su pueblo.

Fig. 3. Tabla de contenidos, criterios de evaluación, estándares de aprendizaje evaluables e ítems.

3.4 Descripción de las actividades y temporalización
En la siguiente tabla se presentan las actividades que se han realizado en los cuatro momentos en que se divide el estudio de casos. También se detalla en qué ha consistido cada una de las actividades que se han llevado a cabo.

ACTIVIDAD	DESARROLLO	TEMPORALIZACIÓN
1	Prueba inicial (conocimientos previos)	Semana 1
2	Mapa mental (en parejas)	Semana 2
3 4	Redacción a partir del mapa mental Prueba final	Semana 3 Semana 4

Fig. 4. Actividades y temporalización. (Fuente: elaboración propia).

4. Resultados

En las siguientes tablas se presentan los resultados obtenidos de la investigación (grupo X con TIC/grupo Y sin TIC) atendiendo a los ítems presentados en el apartado 3.3. Para respetar la privacidad de los alumnos a cada niño le corresponde un número.

ALUMNO	PRUEBA INICIAL	PRUEBA FINAL
1	0	3
2	2	4
3	2	3
4	2	3
5	1	3
6	1	2
7	1	0
8	NP	1
9	NP	2
10	1	2
11	0	0
12	2	NP
14	1	3
15	0	0
16	0	1
17	2	5
18	2	4
19	3	3
20	0	0
21	2	4
22	2	4
23	1	1
24	0	0
25	1	3
50	1	1
51	3	4
53	3	3

Fig. 5. Datos del grupo experimental X. (Fuente: elaboración propia).

ALUMNO	PRUEBA INICIAL	PRUEBA FINAL
26	2	2
27	0	0
28	1	3
29	1	3
30	2	3
31	2	3
32	2	5
33	0	3
34	0	3
35	0	0
36	3	4
37	0	1
38	0	2
39	0	0
40	1	2
41	1	3
42	2	3
43	1	4
44	0	2
45	1	5
46	1	1
47	1	2
48	1	2
49	1	3
54	5	5
55	3	4
56	2	3

Fig. 6. Datos del grupo experimental Y. (Fuente: elaboración propia).

	TIC	Sin TIC
No presentado (NP)	3	-
No han evolucionado	10	6
Han evolucionado 1 ítem	5	10
Han evolucionado 2 ítems	8	7
Han evolucionado 3 ítems	1	3
Han evolucionado 3 ítems	-	1

Fig. 7. Resultados de los grupos experimentales. (Fuente: elaboración propia).

5. Conclusiones

Se aprecia un breve avance de los alumnos que han realizado la actividad sin TIC. Este hecho quizá pueda ser debido a que los alumnos del *grupo Y* (sin TIC) realizaron cada uno, individualmente, una redacción a partir del mapa mental que habían realizado en parejas. Por el contrario, el *grupo X* (sin TIC), al no disponer en los centros de los ordenadores portátiles suficientes, realizaron la redacción en grupos de tres personas, correspondiendo a cada alumno una de las tres partes de las cuales se compone la redacción (*introduction*, *main body* and *conclusion*).

Teniendo en cuenta los resultados de la investigación y la variable incluida en el proceso, se realizará en un futuro próximo otro proyecto de investigación donde todos los alumnos de ambas partes, grupo X y grupo Y, realicen individualmente la redacción: grupo X sin TIC y grupo Y con TIC.

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Using the flipped classroom to teach Tourism: a case study

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Abstract
In this article we report on a case study carried out with a group of 30 EFL students in the Degree of Tourism at the University Complutense of Madrid[1]. Amongst the competences these students have to acquire in English, dealing with customers' complaints plays a crucial role. Students need not only to be aware of the main structures that identify complaints in English but also of the pragmatically appropriate way of giving a satisfactory solution to such complaints.

Given the importance of this speech act, students were provided with a power point presentation containing an audio recorded by the instructors along with the main aspects (both linguistic and pragmatic) characterising complaints in English. Following a flipped classroom approach, students were thus expected to listen to the recording in their own out-of-class time, as many times as they needed, before carrying out the second part of the activity: responding and recording their own complaints in the classroom using Voxopop programme.

Results show that using the flipped classroom to teach Tourism students how to deal with complaints contributes to the improvement of productive and receptive skills while increasing motivation. Certainly, students defined Voxopop as an interesting, innovative, helpful and motivational tool in the English classroom as well as an effective tool for promoting group discussions.

Keywords: Flipped classroom; EFL; Tourism; dealing with complaints

1 This study was designed as part of the Innovation Project "Punto de encuentro: métodos y espacios para la clase invertida / Meeting point: methods and places for the flipped classroom" (Project N. 169). Vicerrectorado de Calidad Universidad Complutense de Madrid, curso 2016-2017.

1. Introduction

Over the last decade, educational resources in the field of tourism have increasingly benefited from the new technologies and online learning platforms. Specifically, flipped classrooms have been found to provide many advantages to teachers and students, such as maximising students' time to interact with their classmates and instructor (Davis, 2016), increasing students´ level of achievement as well as their interest and engagement with the contents (Fulton, 2012), mitigating levels of anxiety (O'Flaherty and Phillips, 2015), or representing an "added learning experience" (Murphy et al, 2017, p. 167). While most studies have shown the pedagogical benefits of flipped classrooms, further research is needed on the way flipped learning can contribute to the development of communicative and vocational skills, which are still a central issue in tourism curriculum and language courses design (see, for instance, Fidgeon, 2010; Musarat et al., 2016). Bearing this in mind, the present paper reports on an experimental activity aimed to develop tourism students' linguistic and pragmatic competences for dealing with complaints using the online Voxpop programme.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. The Flipped Classroom Model

The Flipped Classroom Model is described as a methodology where students are provided with "instructional resources to use outside of class so that class time is freed up for other instructional activities" (Enfield, 2013, p. 14). The strengths of the model have been summed up in the following four features, for which the acronym F-L-I-P stands, namely: it is flexible (F), as it allows both students and teachers to establish their own timelines, provided enough time is devoted to the optimal preparation of the flipped class. Secondly, it involves a new Learning culture, which moves from a traditional teacher-centred class to a learner-centred approach, thus developing students' autonomy and responsibility for their own learning. Third, flipping the classroom also involves an intentional choice of content, focusing on central aspects that are accessible to all the students in the class and explaining such content in a clearly structured, understandable manner. Finally, flipping the classroom necessarily involves professional educators able to reflect on their practice so as to improve the way content is presented to students and knowing when to "step aside" (Enfield, 2013, p. 14).

It is important, however, to make a clear distinction between the flipped classroom and flipped learning, as these terms are not interchangeable. Thus, while it is possible for teachers to flip their classroom, this does not ensure that flipped learning will take place.

2.2. The speech act of complaints

As opposed to other speech acts like requests or compliments, complaints have received less scholarly attention (see Trosborg, 1995; Murphy & Neu, 1996; Chen et al., 2011). However, complaints are extremely complex speech acts that involve a high degree of face-threat and may thus endanger social relationships if not appropriately performed. In their seminal study on complaints, Olshtain and Weinbach (1993, p. 108) define this speech act in the following terms:

> In the speech act of complaining, the speaker (S) expresses displeasure or annoyance as a reaction to a past or ongoing action, the consequences of which are perceived by S as affecting him/ her unfavourably. This complaint is usually addressed to the hearer (H) whom the S holds, at least partially, responsible for the offensive action.

Trosborg (1995, pp. 311-312) also describes complaints as "an illocutionary act in which the speaker (the complainer) expresses his/her disapproval or other negative feelings towards the state of affairs described in the proposition (the complainable), and for which he or she holds the hearer (the complainee) responsible, either directly or indirectly". For this reason, as already pointed out, complaining can be considered a highly face-threatening act (FTA henceforth).

FTAs stand for acts (either verbal or non-verbal) that intrinsically threaten face by their very nature. Goffman (1967) takes the concept from the English expression "to lose face" -i.e. to be embarrassed. Brown and Levinson (1987) further distinguish between positive face, which represents an individual's desire to be approved of, accepted, admired, liked and validated by others and negative face, which refers to an individual's right to freedom of action and their need not to be imposed on by others. In the case of complaints (and especially in service encounters like those a graduate in Tourism may eventually face), face-threat is manifold, since it can affect the addressee's positive face –e.g. if the speaker expresses disapproval of the addressee- as well as the addressee's negative face by making him / her do something –i.e. solve the problem. Furthermore, the speaker or customer can also threaten their own negative face when they have to perform a speech act they might consider embarrassing, and their own positive face by appearing as unlikeable to the addressee.

In the case of a context like tourism service encounters (e.g. hotel receptions, guides), complaints are relatively frequent whenever customers' expectations are not successfully met. Hence, dealing appropriately (and satisfactorily) with customers' complaints becomes crucial to EFL students in the degree in Tourism.

3. Methodology

This case study was carried out in the Faculty of Commerce and Tourism at the University Complutense of Madrid. The participants were 48 students enrolled in the course "English II", a second year compulsory course. All students were aged between 18 and 25, the distribution between male and female being balanced.

First, students were provided with a power point presentation containing some useful language tips and a dialogue from the course book read and recorded over the ppt presentation by two of the researchers. This material was made available on the Virtual Platform (Campus Virtual), so that students could easily consult it as many times as necessary before the following class.

Next, while in the language laboratory, students were asked students were asked in the laboratory to listen to a complaint produced and recorded by another member of the research team and to provide give a solution. They were also instructed to record themselves their own voice using the Voxopop programme, and to save the recording once the task had been completed.

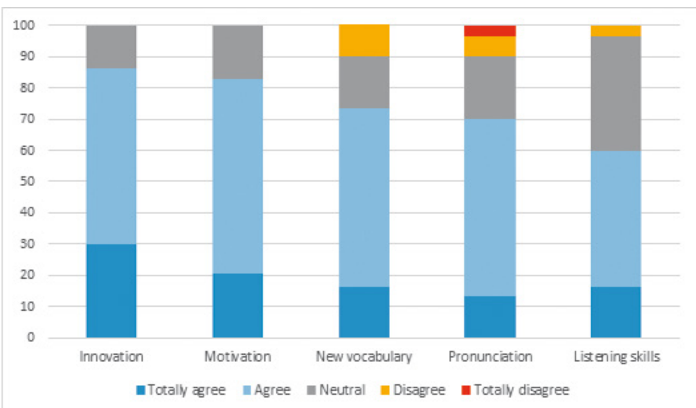
Finally, in order to gather students' opinions about this experimental activity, students were requested to fill in a Google form questionnaire, consisting of four parts. Part I asked students for some personal information; Part II included six statements on the contribution of the task to developing productive and receptive skills; Part III focused on whether students found the task motivating and innovative; Part IV contained three open questions about what they liked most /least, advantages and disadvantages, and their willingness to do a similar task. For Parts II and III a Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

4. Results

Quantitative and qualitative research was conducted on the information obtained from the survey. It should be noted that of the 48 students who took part in the activity, 30 completed the questionnaire (i.e. 62.5%).

For questions in Parts II and III, the present analysis focused on those where students overwhelmingly chose either 5 or 4 points on the Likert scale (i.e. 5 corresponding to "I strongly agree" and 4 to "I agree"). Future research will deal with the remaining questions of the survey, where students' answers were mostly neutral.

As shown by the results, the aspect that was most positively evaluated by students was the innovative character of the activity (86.7%), closely followed by its motivating nature (82.8%). Students also rated highly the acquisition of new vocabulary (76.4%), pronunciation (70%) and listening skills (60%). Graph 1 below shows that students remained more neutral only in the case of their listening skills, where 36.7% were not sure whether these had improved or not. This might be due to the fact that the power point material also included written support. Besides the only part that required



Graph 1. Students' responses to the questionnaire

students to understand and produce language accordingly was the practical part where they could record themselves.

These results are in line with the students' comments in the open questions. The first open question (*i.e. what the students liked most about the experimental activity*) was answered by 87% of the students, and their comments show that they found the activity motivating, entertaining, practical and very innovative, different from other usual activities, as illustrated by the following examples[2]:

(1) I thought it was a fun activity. Very innotivate [sic], I havent [sic] seen it before.
(2) It is a activity innovate [sic]

Further, students felt really comfortable recording their voices and listening to the instructions from the teacher. They appreciated the fact that they could freely express themselves, which, in their view, contributed to the improvement of their English level, especially their overall listening and speaking skills, as well as the acquisition of new vocabulary and grammar knowledge. The fact that they could record their answers over and over again and listen to what other students had recorded, let them check their mistakes and correct them, while becoming more aware of pronunciation and, in general, improving their English level.

Interestingly enough, an unexpected finding was that many of the students liked very much the fact that they could develop their future professional skills in a practical way, as the following examples show:

(3) The fact that they could be for a little helping [sic] a client and giving them a solution.
(4) Listening to a complaint from a customer and answer like she was in front of them.
(5) Dealing with complaints before working in a hotel.

By contrast, the second open question *What did you like least about this activity?* was answered by 12 students (40%), and, for 3 of them, nothing was wrong with this experimental activity. The most common negative comments were about the functioning of the application, which sometimes did not work correctly, and students had to repeat the activity several times. Apart from the difficulty with managing the application, which only worked with Internet Explorer, and the access to the webpage, two students pointed out their feelings of embarrassment when doing the activity:

(6) The software didn't work correctly and I had to repeat the activity 3 times.
(7) Difficult to use it in the beginning.
(8) The awkwardness of having to talk to a computer.
(9) I was embarrassed to speak in English.

[2] All the examples are taken from the data. No editing or corrections have been made to preserve their authenticity.

Regarding the advantages and disadvantages, 87% of the students answered the question, and, for most of them, the advantages outweighed the disadvantages. The positive answers were similar to some of the comments in the first open question; students praised the innovative, practical and motivating character of this type of activity as well as its contribution to developing their productive and receptive skills.

(10) It's interactive and fun.
(11) Innovative application.
(12) It allows to learn new vocabulary in an innovative way.
(13) Improves listening and speaking skills.

As previously mentioned in the Introduction among the benefits of flipped learning, it is worth noting that students appreciate being able to work at their own pace without pressure, which, in turn leads to a higher level of interest and, consequently, to a more effective learning, as can be seen from this comment:

(14) You work individually and everyone has its owns rhythm.

Similarly, the students' responses concerning the disadvantages of this activity coincided again with the ones in the first open question:

(15) We have to download a programme which I didn't have in my computer and didn't work properly.
(16) It should have a better browser of Internet.

With regard to the last question (i.e. *Would you like to do another experimental activity like this in your English course?*), 14 students answered positively, highlighting the fact that "activities like Voxopop should be in the whole course [sic] and that it would help to be able to learn more and more [sic]".

5. Conclusions

To conclude, this case study has shown that using the flipped classroom to teach tourism students how to deal with complaints had a positive impact on students' learning, in the sense that it contributed to developing productive and receptive skills while enhancing motivation. Indeed, students found *Voxopop* to be an interesting, innovative, helpful and motivational approach in the English classroom as well as an effective tool for promoting group discussions.

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Innovation proposal to promote oral production skills in second language learners

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Abstract
Technology-based instruction in elementary school foreign language classrooms is the focus of this proposal. This innovation proposal aims to fill-in the gap of promoting oral skills in the target language through technology-based instruction in foreign language classrooms. Twenty-first century foreign language learners need to be provided with more opportunities to become active participants in the classroom and be exposed to foreign culture and native speakers, in order to have a chance to exercise their creative skills, and practice communication. Technology can positively contribute to all of these opportunities if used and scaffolded through consistent pedagogical practice.

Keywords: oral skills, target language, technology, foreign culture.

1. Introduction

"Research has shown that using technology in the classroom helps tailor instruction to students with different abilities, and facilitates quick sharing and building of knowledge within the participatory environment" (Asselin & Moayeri, 2011). Research also proves that technology-enhanced multimedia instruction increases student motivation and develops curiosity (Allen, 2003). Moreover, Second Language Acquisition (hence SLA) research shows that "using technology in the classroom offers opportunities for input and output, content-rich learning activities, and access to native speakers and cultural knowledge" (Ruschoff & Ritter, 2001). It also shows the "benefits of the use of technology on foreign language student vocabulary acquisition, grammar instruction, cultural knowledge and speaking performance" (Arslan & Sahin-Kizil, 2010). I decided to develop this proposal according to research that examines the role technology plays in the development of oral skills in Grades 1-6 students within the foreign language classroom. The purpose of this project is to identify technological resources to use in the classroom in order to support students of second languages and improve their oral skills, as well as to identify strategies that can be used to assist classroom language teachers and their students during the language learning process. This project presents the usage of different technological interfaces that will increase students' oral skills if applied constantly.

1.1 *Hypothesis*

As educators, we are in the unique position to embrace new technologies and use them in order to enhance curriculum while better engaging each of our students. It is important to understand how students acquire a new language in order to appreciate the significance that technology can have in ensuring success for foreign language learners. Research shows that it can take more than five years for the average child learning a new language to acquire the academic language necessary to succeed in school. Successful acquisition requires two types of skills: "Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). BICS refers to social or conversational language, while CALP is the academic language needed to comprehend and analyze a textbook or understand a presentation by a teacher" (Cummins, 1996). "Conversational fluency is often acquired to a functional level within about two years of initial exposure to the second language, whereas at least five years is usually required to catch up to native speakers in academic aspects of the second language" (Cummins, 2000, p. 76). In support of the research and my teaching experience, I would like to state the following hypothesis of this innovation proposal: The regular usage of technology in the foreign language classroom enhances oral communication skills in foreign language students.

1.2 Objectives

Howard Gardner's theory of Multiple Intelligences is summarized as "students possess different kinds of minds and therefore learn, remember, perform, and understand in different ways" (Howard Gardner, 2008). According to Gardner, there are eight types of intelligence: verbal-linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical-rhythmic, visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalistic; existential and moral intelligence were added as afterthoughts in the definition of Intelligence. Verbal-linguistic intelligence involves sensitivity to spoken and written language, the ability to learn languages, and the capacity to use language to accomplish goals. Such intelligence is fostered by three specific activities: reading, writing and interpersonal communication - both written and oral. The traditional tools that have been used to efficiently develop verbal-linguistic intelligence -textbook, pencil, and paper- have given way to technology in many schools. Tablets, eBooks, Internet e-portfolios, online assignments, and word processing software are now fully integrated within the classroom. Technology allows the addition of multisensory elements that provide meaningful contexts to facilitate comprehension and thus expand the learning ground of language and linguistics. In turn, I decided to delve deeper into the concept of bilingualism and the use of technology throughout this project.

My goal with this project is to inquire into the concept of bilingualism through the study of how technology fosters oral skills in foreign language learners. The objective of this project is to propose different sample activities that are directly connected to the usage of different technological interfaces that will have a significant impact in the improvement of the students' oral production skills. With this proposal, I aim to reach out to other educators who are facing the same situation that I have experienced and help foreign language students produce more in the target language.

1.3 Methodology

As my main objective with this proposal is to gain a deep understanding of how technology promotes oral skills in foreign language students, my project involved a literature review about students learning second languages and the use of technology in the classroom following an inquiry-based method. Research on inquiry-based teaching has often focused on its application in science and math education, but the approach is equally well-suited to the teaching of languages. The role of the teacher in an inquiry-based classroom is quite different from that of a teacher in a conventional classroom:

1 Students develop questions that they are hungry to answer. Have students develop a problem statement that requires them to pitch their question using a constructed response, further inquiry, and citation.
2. Students research the topic using time in class. It's crucial to have some of this be classwork so students have access to the teacher. The teacher is going to guide them and model methods of researching reliably.
3. Students present what they have learned. Students should create and present a culminating artifact using a rubric that helps them understand what they need to do to be successful.
4. Ask students to reflect on what worked about the process. Reflection is key. It is the moment where students can work in metacognition. Thinking about how they learned not just what they learned.

Participants in this project will have access to different tech resources such as Ipads, laptops, or wall-projectors, amongst others.

2. Theoretical frame

I once heard the quote "The limits of my language mean the limits of my world" (Ludwig Wittgenstein, 1922). The words that we possess affect the way in which we see things. With speaking another language comes a unique perspective and understanding of how big the world truly is. Not only does speaking multiple languages help us communicate, but bilingualism and multilingualism also provide advantages to the developing brain. For this reason, I decided to investigate deeper into different aspects in order to fully understand the concept of bilingualism.

2.1. Why focusing on oral skills?

2.2. What is teaching speaking?

2.3. Importance of learning a second language

2.4. Reasons to promote bilingualism at a early age

2.5. Bilingual development

2.6. Types of bilingual education

2.7. Benefits of using Tablets or Ipads

2.8. Technology and differentiated instruction - Challenges

3. Proposal of innovation: Using technology in the foreign language classroom in order to promote oral skills

This proposal is inviting teachers to use technology in their foreign language classes due to its benefit in promoting oral skills in students. In order to do so, this proposal is suggesting schools to have enough technological resources available for students, as well as willing teachers to assist to professional development workshops in order to discover the innovative tech tools they could use with their students. This innovation proposal contains:

1. Five Sample Lessons that could be taught in the Elementary classroom (Grade 1-6) in order to boost students' oral skills
2. A list of different Apps that can be easily integrated in the classroom and as a homework assignment that will support the development of the communicative skills of the students.

It was designed to invite students to use different interfaces to gather and analyze data, using the target language as a vehicle. The only requirement is to have a techie mind-set: an acceptance that technology is part of the daily academic landscape, that it can be integrated into assignments, practice, modeling, homework, assessments, projects, portfolios, grading rubrics, and/or expectations.

Sample lesson

Age/Grade Range: 6 Grade

Lesson Objective/Learning Goal: Improve speaking and writing skills in the second language, using an avatar that is published in the classroom blog.

Description of Lesson: An avatar will be used to improve the writing and speaking skills of the students. Students will record news from their city using the avatar as a medium of communication, and then write the news on the class blog. There will be an "avatar journalist" that will be in charge to do it in a weekly basis.

Materials: Ipad or phone for Avatar creation: Tellagami App.

Assessment: Students are assessed in the use of the avatar technology, blog and content in the recordings and the blog. A rubric is provided to the students before they start working.

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Verb tense in medical interactive case reports. A corpus-driven approach

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Abstract

Medicine 2.0 revealed high levels of experimentation with potential genres on online academic journals in the 2000s. In disciplines such as medicine, this was the case of *thebmj.com*. This open access medical journal featured interactive case reports (ICRs henceforward) as an experimental online genre which further explored the pedagogical purpose of the medical case report itself, which has characterized the printed and online medical tradition so far. In this tradition, the study of the case report organization yielded a five-stage rhetorical structure which reported a title, an introduction, the case presentation, a discussion and a conclusion section. This differed from the observed structure of ICRs as they were constituted by three stages published online along with time: case presentation, case progression and case outcome, each followed by online debate in the form of online rapid responses. Here, we report a study of the language of medical ICRs which focuses on the range of verb tenses employed by medical authors in these online subgenres and, more specifically, in all three parts of the interactive medical case report. A corpus-driven approach was adopted in this study. The corpus comprised 7 Interactive case reports (16,047 words) taken from *thebmj.com,* which constituted the population addressed by the study. Our results revealed ranges of verb tenses characterized by a distinct profile across subsections related to text communicative functions somehow different from those reported in the printed and online case reports traditionally employed in medicine and it was concluded that verb tense, in these electronic medical subgenres, seemed to be subgenre-dependent.

Keywords: response; medicine; case; corpus; tense; computer mediated communication

1. Introduction

The language of medicine has been extensively researched in disciplines such as discourse analysis, linguistics and genre analysis. Although studies employing a genre analytic approach in medicine have focused mainly on the research article (Skelton 1994, Nwogu 1997, Li and Ge 2009) some studies have also addressed the medical case report (Helán, 2012). Studies focusing on experimental genres in medicine are scarce and there has been no extended study investigating the case of the subgenre of the Interactive Case Report (hereafter abbreviated to ICR) on *thebmj.com*. Within this framework the present study constitutes an effort to contribute to work in the genre analysis (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995; Swales 1990, 2004) of new emerging online subgenres in medicine from a corpus-driven perspective (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001).

1.1. Medicine 2.0

The progress in the development of the Internet and its technologies in different disciplines has been remarkable; and online open-access publishing has constituted one of the principles of Science 2.0 (Shneiderman 2008) and, more specifically, Medicine 2.0 (Eysenbach 2008).

Medicine 2.0 applications, services and tools are Web-based services for health care consumers, caregivers, patients, health professionals, and biomedical researchers, that use Web 2.0 technologies and/or semantic web and virtual-reality tools, to enable and facilitate specifically social networking, participation, apomediation, collaboration, and openness within and between these user groups.

In this sense, the open collaboration and cooperation on *thebmj.com* of ICR participants could lead to a challenge to their medical knowledge through the process of inference of correct diagnoses, weighing of treatment proposals, trial and error, outcomes and, more importantly, into eventual actual practice.

1.2. The genres of an online discourse community of medical professionals

Both ICRs and electronic rapid responses were posted by members of an online contemporary discourse community of medical professionals. Six general identifying characteristics of discourse communities employing these medical subgenres have been suggested by Swales (1990, pp. 24 – 27): common public goals, mechanisms of intercommunication, information and feedback, genres utilized, specific lexis and membership. As for the genres utilized in the field of medicine, which these participants may share, clinical settings are characterized by the presence of a constellation of genres that includes written case histories, oral case presentations, published case reports, research articles and editorials among others. Published medical case reports (MCRs henceforward) can be considered a 'hybrid' genre combining professional writing (in case histories) and academic writing (in medical journals) (Helán,2012).

Medical case histories, one of the basic forms of health-care documentation, are extremely conventionalized records of the possible causes, development, diagnosis, and treatment of patients' pathological conditions. These histories are typically taken during doctor-patient communication or the patient's hospitalization. They are normally included in the medical record (Fleischman, 2003, p. 477). In addition, medical journals feature a specific genre structure of medical case reports; namely, introduction, case presentation, discussion and conclusion.

MCRs include such information as the patients' comorbidities (the occurrence of more than one pathological condition in a patient), patients' histories (the documentation of patients' pathological condition on a regular basis), and the physician's reasoning (often revealing the logic behind their use of certain strategies to determine diagnoses and treat patients).

As for the pedagogic qualities of MCRs, Smith (2008) considers that every medical case is a significant piece of clinical information that can teach medical professionals about something new or important.

Following Helán (2012)," the formal structure of the MCRs in the *Journal of Medical Case Reports* and *Cases Journal* follows the journals' officially required division of the reports according to the ***TAIMRaD*** schema (***T****itle,* ***A****bstract,* ***I****ntroduction,* ***M****ethod,* ***R****esults,* ***a****nd* ***D****iscussion*), adding administrative or legal sections such as *Consent, Competing Interests, References,* etc."

1.3. The subgenre of Interactive Case Reports

Like medical case reports, ICRs can be defined as a medical recount of a pathological condition in a single patient; i.e. they constitute staged stories or narratives of the onset, development and treatment of a pathological condition in a single patient in a real clinical setting posted online with pedagogical purposes.

Authors of ICRs were accomplished clinicians who noticed unusual, interesting, or unique medical aspects in their patient's pathology, their diagnosis, treatment or adverse reaction to the treatment, and weighed its potential pedagogic features to be posted online for the medical community to study.

As for their pedagogical purpose, ICRs might try to elicit the kind of reasoning which medical experts employ when they consider the best treatment or procedure options for a patient with a particular disease in the e-journal readership. Signs and symptoms of a pathological condition formed the basis to pose a challenge and establish a diagnosis following an inductive form of reasoning. Electronic responses on the other hand are the written expression of readers' participation and involvement in decision-making processes concerning the steps in the management of the particular patient's pathological conditions.

1.4. The structure of Interactive Case Reports
ICRs serve pedagogical purposes which further explore those of the MCR. They consist of the online publication of a real case presentation, the case progression and the case outcome including questions to be addressed by the worldwide medical community after each stage along with time.

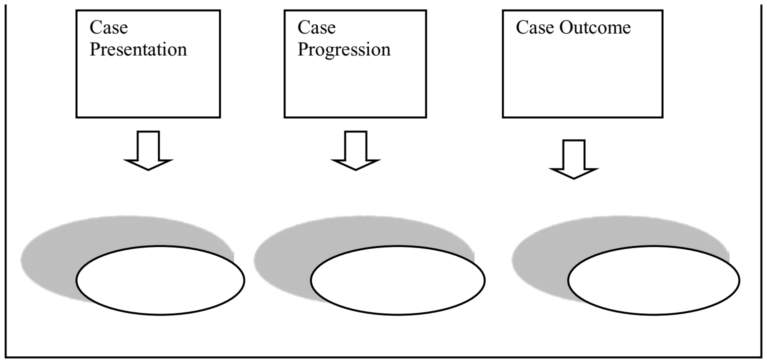

Figure 1. A sample Interactive Case Report

As ICRs were based on real patients' cases in real clinical settings posted in real time by a team of medical experts, they constituted a challenge and contribution to the worldwide medical community, their knowledge and their experience.

2. Method

The methodology employed in our study follows the traditions of quantitative applied linguistics and corpus linguistics. The criteria for the selection of the corpus were the e-journal relevance (*thebmj's* impact factor was 17.445 in 2015), its accessibility and representativity.

A total of 7 ICRs, which constitute the population addressed by the study, were downloaded from *thebmj.com* webpage for quantitative analysis. Our corpus was characterized by 7499 tokens and 1740 types. Each ICR section was identified separately as one of the three stages of the ICR; i.e. case presentation, case progression and case outcome. In the process of converting the html files into text the title, reference and questions were excluded.

As our main purpose was to characterize the language used in ICRs from the perspective provided by Quantitative Applied Linguistics and corpus linguistics, Wordsmith tools such as word frequency were applied to the corpus for quantitative analysis; basic parameters (number of words and absolute frequencies) were estimated making use of *Wordsmith tools 6* statistical package (Scott, 2015) and relative frequencies of elements were calculated.

3. Results

Verb tenses represented 7,06% (f=530) of the corpus of ICRs. Medical experts expressed ICRs mostly in the active voice (f=430) and in the past simple tense (see Figure 2). Other tenses such as the past continuous, the past perfect, the present simple, the conditional tense and the future were scarce.

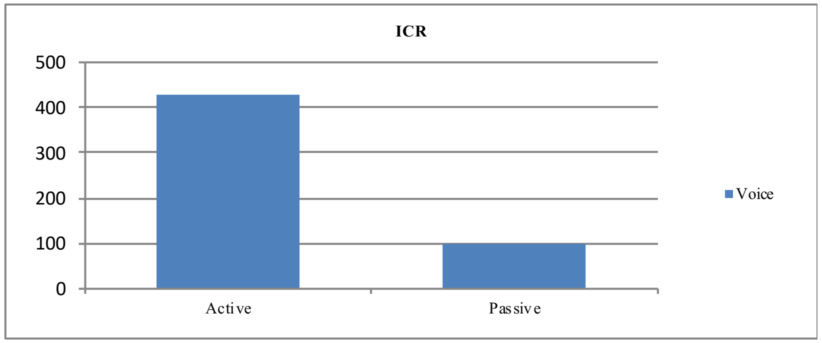

Figure 2. Verb voice in ICRs

The textual functions of the *present simple* in **ICR presentations** included the description of the patient and their current symptoms and the description of the purpose of medications (see figure 3). The textual functions of the *past simple* in ICR presentations ranged from the description of the patient and their symptoms on presentation or admission, previous treatments, investigations & diagnoses to test results, the patient's clinical management, their response to treatments and their compliance with treatment. ICR writers also employed the past simple passive revealing academic impersonality, as medical experts, especially when reporting the activities of the medical team.

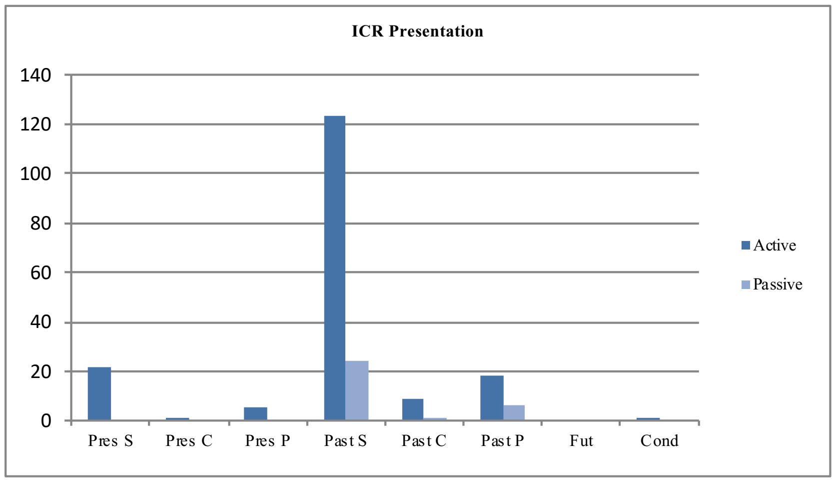

Figure 3. Tense in ICR presentations

We can take into account the importance of the patient's history –previous to admission- among the textual functions of the past perfect in ICR presentations. The *past continuous* was used to describe temporary current treatments in ICR presentations. The *present perfect* was employed to describe symptom evolution until present moment of time and to describe current treatment, and the *conditional tense* was used to refer to likely diagnoses.

The textual functions of the *present simple* in **ICR progression** included the comparison against population descriptors, investigation assessment, the assessment of the patient's reliability and the characterization of clinical situations (see Figure 4).

On a much broader scale were the textual functions of the *past simple* in ICR progression. These ranged from case reminders and clinical management to medical investigations. In a significant way these functions also included informing the patient & their relatives, the results of medical investigations, likely diagnoses, the evolution of symptoms after treatment, the patient's history, assessing risks and investigations and the patient's reaction to treatment and their evolution. When revealing academic impersonality, as medical experts, ICR writers also employed the past simple passive especially when reporting the activities of the medical team in the clinical management of the patient.

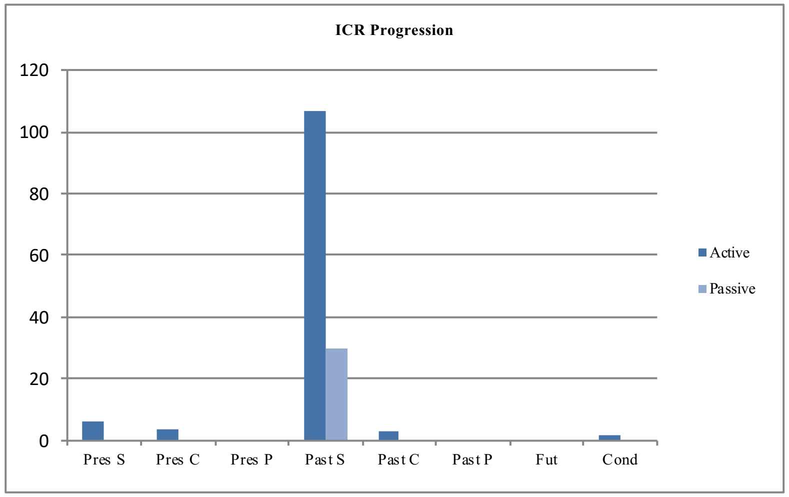

Figure 4. Verb Tense in ICR Progression

When dealing with the textual functions of the *past perfect* in ICR progression we can include previous investigations and the patient's evolution. However, in order to describe the patient's evolution of symptoms after the treatment and the patient's condition at a specific moment in time the *past continuous* was employed at this stage. In addition, the *conditional tense* was used to disregard options for treatment and to speculate on investigation usefulness.

In **ICR outcomes**, the textual functions of the *present simple* included the description of medications, of the patient's condition, measures available for patient treatment, the discussion of case aspects (continuing treatment), arguing in favour of a particular investigation, thanking, doctor's ethics (patient's rights) and describing diagnostic criteria for a particular illness (see Figure 5). Furthermore, the textual functions of the *past simple* in ICR outcome ranged from case reminders and the clinical management of the patient to medical investigations and their results. These functions also included informing the patient or their relatives as well as the patient's evolution or follow up, diagnoses, arguments supporting a surgical procedure and the justification of team decisions.

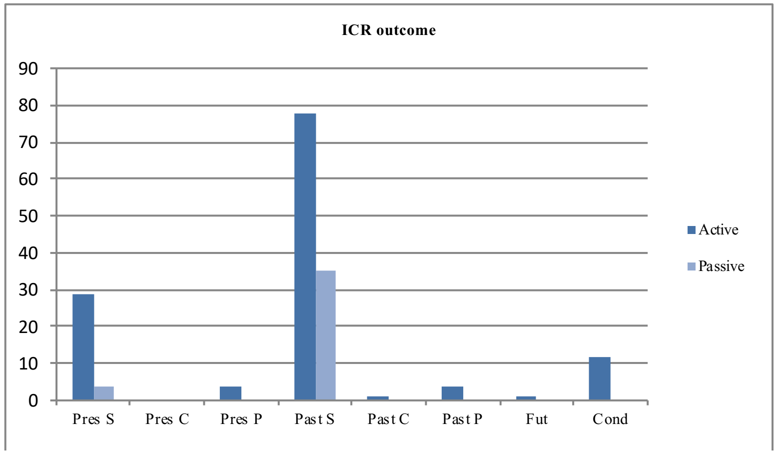

Figure 5. Verb Tense in ICR outcomes

As medical experts, ICR writers also employed the past simple passive revealing academic impersonality, especially when reporting the activities of the medical team in the clinical management of the patient. In ICR outcomes the *present continuous* was employed to describe temporary current treatments. Among the textual functions of the *present perfect* in ICR outcomes we can include the patient's follow up, advice to patient, injury effects on patient and quoting recent studies. Moreover, the *conditional tense* was employed to envisage treatment, to share and discuss with the online community what should be done, for the prevision of effects, to disregard medication and surgery options, and in foreseeing negative effects. The *past perfect* was used at this stage to refer to past patient's compliance of measures. Finally, the *future* tense was used in the indication of effects in ICR outcomes.

4. Conclusions

The experimental subgenre of the medical ICR was expressed mostly in the past simple active tense across its three stages, i.e. presentation, progression and outcome. The past simple passive was employed mostly to indicate academic impersonality in the expression of the medical team's role in the clinical management across the three stages. ICR writers reported to the online medical community on three different stages of the clinical management of a patient, letting the readership respond and contribute to the investigation, diagnoses and treatment of patients among others. Although ICRs share the usage of the past tense with medical case reports, the presence and frequency of other tenses across stages make them distinct. Other tenses employed include the present simple, present perfect, past perfect, past continuous and conditional with specific functions which differ across stages.

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Discourse analysis in legal settings: the case of trials and verdicts

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Abstract
Within this globalized society English has emerged as a lingua franca in a variety of fields, from business to tourism (McIntyre, 2009). Hence, the creation of specialised language courses in higher education institutions has been vital to meet the needs of the labour market (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), especially because they provide learners with an effective syllabus that fosters internationalization and employability. Evidence may be found in the field of Law, given that Legal English has been regarded as one of the languages for specific purposes (Saussure, 1945). According to Goźdź-Roszkowski (2011) legal discourse and ordinary speech differ to a great extent in terms of register and style. Gillian (2007) identified a number of common features in Legalese, namely legal jargon, technical terms, Latinisms, old-fashioned words, and vague words, among others. Therefore, the aim of this study is to examine the similarities and differences between written and oral legal genres. The analysis of five documents and seven video-recordings dealing with trials and verdicts will be the main focus of the paper. Surprisingly, results show that legal jargon, technical terms and vague words occur in both written and oral texts. Conversely, they differ in the presence of the passive voice, the modal verb *shall*, Latinisms and other old-fashioned words. These results may have a positive impact on learners as well as on lecturers. By analysing these legal documents, potential international law students or attorneys could transfer their knowledge in their first language to the target language they need to master. In addition, these future attorneys can benefit from the existence of typical oral and written phrases that could be helpful when facing a trial. Likewise, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teachers may adapt their curricular materials to suit the needs of students as potential professionals.

Keywords: English for Specific Purposes (ESP); law; trials; verdicts; speaking; writing

1. Introduction

It is well known that English has become a lingua franca in many domains such as business, tourism and commerce (McIntyre, 2009). This fact has generated the creation of specialised language courses (Koester, 2010; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), particularly in higher education institutions. Three main factors explain this growing need to provide learners with an effective syllabus that fosters internationalization and employability (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987): a) the demand for English courses to meet the needs of non-native students, b) the developments in the field of linguistics as well as c) the developments in the field of educational psychology.

Already in 1945 Saussure classified Legal English as one of the languages for specific purposes, used in professional contexts. Similarly, Goźdź-Roszkowski (2011) pointed out that Legal English, also known as English for Law, is the term used to refer to all the texts included in this domain. In line with this, legal discourse has been examined from a sociolinguistic perspective, as it entails some comprehensibility problems for those not specialised in this field (Goźdź-Roszkowski, 2011), especially because these genres greatly differ from ordinary speech when it comes to register and style.

Clearly, legal texts have their own conventions, topics, and typical structures following strict and repetitive models, which are rather common in this professional field (Borja, 2007). Features such as the use of legal jargon, technical terms, Latinisms, old-fashioned words, vague words, pairs and triplets (Gillian, 2007) are characteristic of legal discourse, whether written or spoken, and therefore important for this analysis. Other common legal features involve little punctuation and capital letters to signal important or defined terms, but given that they can only be distinguished in written genres, they will not be part of this study.

As to pedagogical implications, scholars like Swales understood the concept 'task' as a means that enhances the acquisition of new cognitive and communicative skills. In this sense, the analysis of legal genres allows readers realize the stereotypical features of these texts. According to Bhatia (1997), it was this kind of task what engaged students in the learning process (1997).

The current paper presents the results obtained after analyzing the differences and similarities in terms of communication between trials and verdicts in the domain of Legalese. To do so, the written and oral transcripts of these legal procedures were carried out thanks to a wide range of documents and videos taken from several online resources, including *YouTube* and *FindLaw for Legal Professionals.* The results obtained may benefit learners and lecturers; on the one hand, they could transfer their previous knowledge from one language into another; on the other hand, educators can modify and create a course syllabus that can suit law students' needs in the near future. By dealing with different legal genres, those foreign practitioners, law students or interpreters who want to move abroad in search of new job opportunities could transfer their background knowledge from one language to another.

2. Method

In this section, a detailed description of the materials, and the procedure of the study will be provided to point out the elements that have been taken into account. Likewise, the features that have been analysed in the study will be revised.

2.1. Materials

Two types of materials were used to examine the similarities between spoken and written legal procedures. Thus, the data for this study were drawn from five written documents as well as the transcriptions of seven video-recordings dealing with trials and verdicts.

On the one hand, the written documents were taken from the website *FindLaw for Legal Professionals*, a resource that includes blogs, cases and codes, among others. Users, particularly law students, can find this tool really useful as they can search for the written records of cases, contracts, articles, forms and news. So far, the documents used in this study belong to the Supreme Court of Connecticut and the Supreme Court of Louisiana.

On the other hand, seven video recordings involving the trials and verdicts of a number of murderers, famous celebrities and athletes were taken from both *YouTube* and the *United States Courts* website. The length of each video is about three minutes.

2.2. Procedure

To begin with, a research was carried out to find reliable open legal resources available on the net. In other words, it was necessary to find tools that allow free access to a wide range of legal materials. Afterwards, the selection of the materials, both written and spoken, was crucial as they had to do with popular trials and verdicts that took place in the last few years. Once selected, all the video recordings were transcribed literally.

A number of features were taken into account when analysing the documents, namely Latin terms and old-fashioned words, technical terms, pairs of words with a reciprocal relationship, legal jargon, ordinary words with special meanings, word order inversion, capital letters, avoidance of personal pronouns and the verb *shall*. They were assigned a colour code so that the most salient features could be identified easily. Then, all the texts were read and the frequency of the features was considered.

2.3. Data analysis

As previously mentioned, different colours were assigned to classify the features of this professional area (Gillian, 2007), as shown in the table below.

TABLE 1. LEGALESE FEATURES.	
FEATURES	COLOUR
Using Latin terms	Orange
Old fashioned words not much in general use	Purple
Technical terms	Blue
Using pairs of words and triplets	Light red
Using legal jargon	Yellow
Having special meanings for words in ordinary use	Green
Using vague words	Light orange
Inverting word order	Highlighted
Avoiding personal pronouns with the use of the passive voice	Red and bold
The use of 'shall' in a directory sense	Light purple

3. Results and discussion

The results obtained in the analysis of the written and oral legal texts will be provided. Then, the most salient features in written and oral communication will be discussed.

It can be concluded from these results that the most predominant features of written texts in the area of law involve legal jargon (42%) and technical terms (11%) as they are used in context (e.g. *pending cases* and *time barred*). Regarding ordinary words (18%) and vague words (5%), their use is quite unexpected since these documents are meant to be formal (e.g. *count, find; arbitrary and capricious, such a gap*). These findings are quite similar to the incorporation of features such as the passive voice (11%), Latinisms (2%), old-fashioned words (2%), and the verb shall (1%) (e.g. *is entitled*, *per curiam*, and *insofar*). Apart from that, it is also important to highlight the appearance of pairs and triplets (8%) (e.g. *appellant-appellee*, *employer-employee*), in contrast to word order inversion (0%), which did not occur in the text.

When it comes to spoken texts, it can be observed that the most salient features have to do with the use of legal jargon (75%) and ordinary words with special meanings (10%). These results are not surprising as this is a specific professional domain where participants need to communicate rigorously (e.g. *premeditated murder, count,* and *sentences*). Nonetheless, it is important to emphasize that repetition plays a significant role to determine the frequency of these features (e.g. *jury, court, council, verdict, your honour*). Similarly, the use of the passive voice (8%) can be identified when the juror speaks (e.g. *Please, be seated*). This is closely followed by technical terms (4%) such as *ammunition* and *termination,* among others. As for vague words (2%), terms like *elsewhere, otherwise, anyone, anyway* and *anything else* can be observed, whereas items such as *terms and conditions* correspond to pairs and triplets (1%). Unlike written texts, the use of word order inversion (0.01%), old-fashioned words (0.01%), Latinisms and the verb *shall* seem to be avoided as they sound too formal in oral discourse. Evidence may be found in *wherein* and *so say we all for person*.

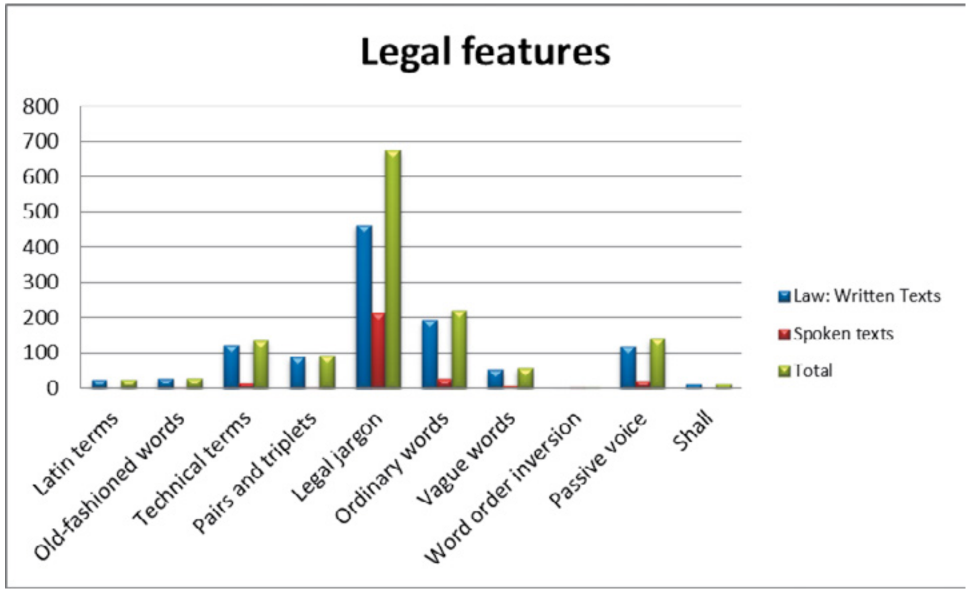

Fig. 1. Legal features

As can be seen in Figure 1 above, results show that legal jargon, ordinary words and the passive voice are usual in both written and spoken legal discourse. Astonishingly, legal jargon is employed to a larger extent in oral texts, where a higher use of ordinary words with special meaning could be expected. As to technical terms, vague words, and pairs and triplets, their frequency is reduced in spoken discourse. Finally, it is clear that the presence of Latinisms, old-fashioned words, and the verb *shall* in written texts differs from spoken verdicts and trials, where only an old-fashioned word could be recognised. Hence, it can be concluded that that the register employed in oral legalese is more informal than that of written legalese. These informal structures may be closely related to what is known as the Plain English Movement (Wydick, 2005), which emerged to allow citizens a better understanding of government forms and consumer documents through the language to which they are exposed on a daily basis.

4. Pedagogical implications

Taking all these aspects into account, students and educators can implement new practices in the teaching and learning processes. On the one hand, law is characterized by the use of Latin terms, and little punctuation, not only in English but also in Spanish. At the same time, the avoidance of personal pronouns is present in these languages by means of the passive voice. Therefore, by dealing with trials and verdicts, those practitioners, law students or interpreters who want to move abroad in search of new job opportunities could transfer their background knowledge from one language into another. Of course, there are other elements that they would need to acquire, namely legal jargon, technical terms, vague words or inversion, which could differ from their mother tongue.

In addition, these future attorneys can benefit from the existence of typical oral and written phrases that could be helpful when facing a trial. Written examples include: *This court issued its decision*; *this court held that the defendant* […]; *The commission contended* […]; *The commission subsequently ordered... in accordance with*; and *The plaintiff filed a motion*. As to spoken examples, it is necessary to point out phrases or utterances like: *Your honor*; *Please, be seated*; *Members of the jury, have you reached a verdict?*; *On count one*; and *Now, the evidence will show that* […]. Likewise, ESP teachers may adapt their curricular materials to suit the needs of students as potential professionals. Not only could they provide their students with texts where they can implement these lexical items, but they can also do a role play in which they need to perform as attorneys or judges. These practices would help them to acquire new knowledge.

5. Conclusion

All in all, the fact that English has become a lingua franca has led to the emergence of courses where students are trained to communicate in specific professional contexts through English. Research on the field of law as well as its main features have been explained and presented in order to examine legal texts that foster the implementation of effective curricular contents.

The analysis of this corpus has given us some striking results. Hence, it can be inferred that the language used in written Legalese is more formal since Latinisms and old-fashioned words are used to a larger extent in contrast to spoken legal texts. The fact that there may be defendants who are not familiar with such specific language may explain the difference between written and oral communication in legal procedures.

There is a growing need in higher education institutions to provide learners with an effective syllabus that fosters internationalization and employability. The incorporation of useful utterances and phrases in ESP courses as well as the performance of some practical activities, where they are required to speak in a specific workplace through English, will encourage law students and practitioners to interact with each other. Thus, they will develop the language and skills needed to properly carry out the given tasks. As a result, they will have more opportunities to take part in well-known international programmes, such as Erasmus+, which may have a positive impact on their professional careers.

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Potentialities of textography to research the construction of authorial identity by professional academic non-native writers of English in the 'soft sciences'

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Abstract

Research articles, essays, reports are, among others, some of the diverse types of texts professors at higher education institutions are expected to write as part of their professional careers. In addition to this expectation, many journals, books, and academic texts are published in English as the audiences accessing information in this language are larger than the ones reading information in the researchers' native languages from around the world. Such reality has motivated researchers in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to investigate the development of non-native English speakers' abilities to write in this language. These efforts have originated various kinds of quantitative and qualitative methodologies aiming to find efficient strategies to facilitate the successful production of professional texts in English. This paper aims to contend that an ethnographic approach such as textography can be fruitful to examine the construction of authorial identity by professional academic writers, particularly in the 'soft' sciences. In order to illustrate this, I firstly describe what textography involves and discuss the advantages and the challenges it presents when being considered as a methodological research tool. Besides, the applicability of textography is exemplified by means of a case study consisting of the textographic analysis of five research articles published by a Non-Native English Speaking Teacher (NNEST) from a Spanish university. The data presented in this study combine Swales' (1998) notion of textography with Thompson's (2001) concept of authorial construction by using what he called 'reader-in-the-text' strategy. This study presents the applicability of textography to gain a clearer insight of the construction of authorial identity by professional academic non-native writers of English and, therefore, it can be useful for teachers of EAP and of ESP.

Keywords: ESP; EAP; professional academic writing; authorial identity; textography; ethnographic methodologies

1. Introduction

The use of qualitative research methods has been reasoned and even justified by multiple ESP researchers interested in demonstrating the social links to the language. For example, Dressen-Hammouda (2012) explained the increase in qualitative research methods used in language and literacy studies by arguing that language "cannot be realistically described or understood outside its context of social use" (p. 501). Thus, researchers have seen the necessity of providing holistic views to explain the production of language tied to any given context or situation in which a group of people needs to communicate. As part of the set of qualitative methodology, ethnographic approaches, such as textography, have emerged to play an eventually more accepted role in ESP research. This paper aims to demonstrate that the application of textography as a methodological research may contribute to the better understanding of one specific area of ESP of major relevance for the field, namely the establishment of authorial identity of professional academic writers. To achieve this objective, first I consider the emergence and definition of textography into the genre theory. At the same time, I try to state the advantages and challenges implicit in performing textography as a research methodology, and how researchers have overcome such challenges. Next, the applicability of textography is exemplified by means of a case study, in which by combining Swales' (1998) textography with Thompson's (2001) concept of authorial construction, I analyze the conclusions of five research articles published by a NNEST from a Spanish university.

2. Textography: Potentialities and challenges

Studies examining genres first appeared in the 80s with a particular focus on teaching. Such studies, purely linguistic, were mainly concerned with finding ways to improve the pedagogical strategies to teach ESP students to elaborate the texts required in their professions (Bathia, 2012). However, such studies, and the pedagogical implications derived from them, revealed the need to understand the professional practices and disciplinary cultures from a more than purely linguistic perspective to one that would uncover the principles, resolutions, and behaviors of professionals using such genres. This is how alternatives to genre analysis, such as Critical Genre Analysis (CDA) (Rogers et al., 2005), interdiscursivity (Bathia, 2008), and ethnographic methodologies (Ramathan and Atkinson, 1999), appeared to try to fulfill the contextual gaps left by the first linguistic-based examinations. Regarding ethnographic approaches, authors agree on the potentialities to add better understanding to genre theories by fulfilling the gap between text and context and by providing principles to similar communities that could help them understand their own text production. It is under this reasoning that textography emerged. Swales (1998) states that the purpose of a textography is to clarify the form and formation of the written texts as produced by members of a community by exploring their contextually embedded discursive practices. In other words, a textography questions the author's writing life/context in order to present an integral view of what is implicit in his/her written work. The application of the ethnographic techniques allows exploring the context in which a text is produced by considering the role, purpose, and audience of the text, the expectations of the discourse community, and the relationship of the text with other similar texts (Starfield, Paltridge, and Ravelli, 2015).

Textography allows to comprehend the emic connection between the community being studied and the outside world. Swales' study (1998) was intended to discover how three communities in his building operated and why they completed their written tasks in the way they did. Some of his main findings were that (1) texts were produced as part of the practice of checking and assessing the existing records, (2) texts were produced as an extension of published texts, which gives origin to what he called 'a web of texts', (3) text production was directly affected by the specific policies driving the procedures of the department, and (4) texts production was possible due to the collaboration among institutions and their established procedures to deal with these institutions. These findings provided what Ramanathan and Atkinson (1999) considered a 'holistic work', which means to see the studied community as part of a whole system. Swales (1998) has discovered significant connections between the communities emic context and extended such connections to the communities' etic context.

Certainly, as Starfield, Paltridge, and Ravelli (2015) recognized, textography may have many of the same limitations as traditional ethnography. One repetitive critique made to ethnographic-based studies (Dressen-Hammouda, 2006; Ramanathan and Atkinson, 1999; Smart, 2008) is that ethnographic studies are only superficially supported by the researchers applying them (i.e., lack of consistency on the selection of the methods to be used, lack of common criteria for validating the research results, and lack of reflection on the full implications the ethnographies bring to the understanding of language learning or literacy acquisition). The failure to explicitly state the theories underlying the studies has caused distrust of this kind of studies.

In order to solve this issue and provide a better support to textography, as a kind of ethnographic study, textography should imply a triangulation of multiple data sources and a combination of methodological approaches (Ramanathan and Atkinson, 1999; Smart, 2008). For example, Souza (2012) narrated how she analyzed her own evolution as a virtual student and professor by combining Larsen-Freeman and Cameron's Complexity Paradigm and Swales' Textography. She collected nine emails (seven written by her, one from a colleague, and one from a student) and described in the detail the context wherein each had been written in terms of the reasons why she wrote them and how the emails had accomplished their communicative purpose. The analysis of each email was intended to prove the complexity behind her process to become a virtual learner and teacher. Her conclusions indicated that there is stability within highly variable processes as learning and teaching online. Thus, by combining ethnographic data with other already established theories (e.g., corpus linguistics, genre discourse analysis, etc.), it is possible to simultaneously reveal attitudes and institutional practices which influence the production of texts and understand the emergence of authorial identity in text as an indicator of professional development.

3. Authorial identity

One difficult skill to acquire for novice writers is the construction of an authorial identity in the text. Such struggle is shared also with researchers whose native language is other than English, despite their expertise in academic writing in their native languages. The rhetorical strategy to be addressed in this study, the reader-in-the-text, is defined as the writer's construction of a balanced discourse by setting "shared attitudes and knowledge [with the reader] so that it does not appear that the writer is presupposing ideas which might be unacceptable for the real reader" (Neff et al., 2004, p. 562). The use of this strategy reflects the writer's awareness of the audience enhancing the arguments presented in the text. Previous studies have examined the use of this strategy by novice native writers to teach ways to improve argumentation (Thompson, 2001). Also, Neff et al.'s, (2004) corpus-based study researched the use of the reader-in-the-text strategy by advanced EFL students, English native speaker students, and Native English Speaking professional writers. Alternatively, the present study proposes the examination of authorial identity constructed by a kind of writers who were not studied before, namely NNESTs, by combining textographic and discourse analysis data in order to provide insights into better ways of teaching EAP and ESP to this specific group of writers.

4. Methodology

4.1. Participant

The first step to write this textography consisted on finding a professor who would fulfill the intended profile, namely a native speaker of Spanish, speaker of English as a foreign language, professor in the field of Arts and Humanities, and publisher of at least five professional pieces in English. After consulting some potential participants, professor Ana[1] accepted my request to participate in this study. She is a professor in the Department of Librarianship and Documentation. Ana was interviewed using an open-ended questionnaire which explored her current position at the University, her academic and professional development, her story as an English learner and user, and her process to write and publish the five papers provided for this study. Later, Ana read her textography to confirm the accuracy of the information presented.

4.2. Data collection and analysis

To analyse Ana's construction of authorial identity, she facilitated the digital versions of five of her papers. This study focused specifically on the conclusions of each publication. Conclusions were chosen because they are a section limitedly studied despite requiring a certain level of rhetorical complexity in its writing (Kashiha, 2015). Following Thompson's (2001) model, statements signalling dialogic strategies between the writer and the reader-in-the-text were identified, and classified into two discourse contexts, namely Hypothetical/Real and Concession. The conclusions of the five papers were examined sentence by sentence in order to determine the stances in which the reader-in-the-text's strategy was being applied with clarity.

1 A fictional name has been assigned to the participant.

5. Findings and discussion

5.1. Ana

Ana has worked in the Department of Librarianship and Documentation as Assistant-professor in training for three years. Ana started studying English, as most students in the Spanish system, when she was around 10 years old. Later, when she was 14, she also started attending extra classes twice a week in the afternoons which she continued until finishing high school. However, it was not until she started to pursue her Bachelor degree that she had the need to relate to the English language again. She did not attend any other classes at that moment because she managed to familiarize herself with the information through reading of documents and contact with the language through popular media. As she started her Doctoral degree, she decided to strengthen her abilities in English with a specialized course in formal writing, oral presentations, and professional interactions. In total, she took around 16-20 hours of an intensive course to reinforce these specific skills.

To publish in English, first, she writes her article in Spanish; then, she translates the text by herself; next, she uses a commercial website to detect grammar, spelling, punctuation, word choice, and style mistakes, so that she can polish her translation. After this process, she submits the paper and in case the journal requires further revisions related to the formality of the language, she and/or her colleagues consider to use the translation services offered by the University or to pay for a particular translator service. Ana considers imperative to write first in Spanish to make sure all necessary details are included in her papers.

5.2. Reader-in-the-text voice

The five publications provided for this study were described as follows. The first paper was published in 2015 and was the expanded version of a conference proceeding. The next four publications (2016, 2016, 2017, and 2018) were all co-authored pieces from which three are full researches and one is a conference proceeding. It is noteworthy that, according to Ana, none of the co-authors was a native speaker of English. The examination of the conclusions of these five papers allowed determining the establishment of Ana's authorial identity. The results of the analysis are presented in the Table 1 below.

TABLE 1. READER-IN-THE-TEXT STRATEGY APPLICATION

Publication	Reader-in-the-text' stances	
	Hypothetical-Real	Concessions
	Unattributed modalized mental and verbal processes	Expressions of certainty: modal disjuncts, modal comment clauses
Publication_1	-	2
Publication_2	-	-
Publication_3	-	-
Publication_4	2	-
Publication_5	-	1
TOTALS	**2**	**3**

The data presented in this table shows the cases of reader-in-the-text. Among the conclusions, the cases in which dialogic signs appeared were five. For example, in the Publication 4 the following construction applying a Hypothetical-Real discourse context was identified (emphasis added).

Publication_4 **It has been found** that Digital Reading Research assumes an important role in the study of the field of reading, and almost half of the data analyzed specifically addresses this topic. **However**, the visibility of Digital Reading Research is still limited. **This may be due to** where the article is published, but, **perhaps** more importantly, to some of the problems identified in this analysis; especially those related to assigned keywords…

Thompson (2001) pointed out that "unattributed verbal or mental process introducing a Hypothetical member… will normally be taken as signalling that we are hearing the voice of the-reader-in-the-text" (p. 64). In this example, the unattributed mental process 'it has been found' serves to present the idea that is not to be taken as true. The Hypothetical is that 'Digital Reading Research' has a significant 'role in the study of the field of reading.' The Real is that its 'visibility … is still limited.' The main sign of the Real is 'however' which is establishing the contrast, but the use of 'this may be due to' also adds to the writer's point to be taken as Real. The use of 'may' and 'perhaps' reflects the writer's awareness of mitigating a face-threatening act, or FTA by avoiding to make a categorical claim on the reasons of the Real which is also, I would argue, evidence of dialogic resources between the reader-in-the-text and the writer.

6. Conclusions

Similarly to Swales' (1998) textographic findings, two of Ana's publications were produced as an extension of published texts, namely conference proceedings, so building 'a web of texts' continues to be an effective strategy to produce scientific publications. In addition, four of the analyzed publications were the result of collaboration among scholars in the same group of research or in the same field. Thus, this way of working seems to continue to favor the production of scientific texts too.

At first sight, it may seem that the construction of authorial identity by means of the use of dialogic contexts (i.e., the-reader-in-the-text strategy) was scarce or even poor in the samples examined. Yet the insights exposed in the interview demonstrate the emergence of a professional academic writer who is taking advantage of a variety of resources to accomplish the goal of becoming a recognized expert in her field of study. Although Ana does not have any specialized course on EAP or ESP, she has been able to become familiar with the rhetoric of English. With only five English papers published, she is starting to reflect the style of more advanced writers of English. This understanding has only been possible due to the combination of textography with discourse analysis; therefore, this demonstrates the applicability of this methodology to gain a clearer insight of the construction of authorial identity by professional academic non-native writers of English. Consequently, it can be useful for teachers of EAP and of ESP to reinforce the teaching of this kind of textual features to construct better arguments.

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Analysing the degree of specialisation of a selection of biotechnological texts and their role in an English for Professional and Academic Communication course

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Abstract
There are two main ways of approaching the degree of specialisation of a scientific text (Ciapuscio & Kugel, 2002; Edo-Marzà, 2011, p. 298): Some authors refer to a "sharp line" or "clear-cut boundary allowing for a fast and easy distinction between general and specialised language". This distinction would be mainly based on "the specificity of the topics dealt with, addressers and addressees and communicative situations" (Edo-Marzà, 2011, p. 298). Other authors mention that there is a continuum and that "the difference between general and specific is a matter of degree" (Cabré, 1993, 1999; Edo-Marzà, 2011, p. 298). The approach adopted in this research in progress coincides with the second perspective, and in particular with the three levels mentioned by Cabré: highly specialised, specialised and fairly specialised.

Our study is aimed at measuring the degree of specialisation of some candidate texts that would be used in class and tested in detail so as to validate them and determine the effect these might have in an English for Specific Purposes learning context in the coming years. This paper is focused on the initial stage of our research, which consists in the analysis of a corpus of twelve recent texts belonging to the domain of Biotechnology and classified into three main genres, i.e. opinion, review, and original articles. In order to measure specialisation, we considered lexical richness and variation (Edo-Marzà, 2011) as well as function, genre and tenor relationship (Edo-Marzà, 2011; Vargas-Sierra, 2005). Moreover, we conducted a brief qualitative analysis of the initial implementation of some of these texts with a group of 58 students following an English for Professional and Academic Communication course at the Technical University of Madrid (Universidad Politécnica de Madrid). Preliminary findings suggest that the corpus shows different degrees of specialisation. In terms of their usefulness and suitability, the first impressions shared by the students with the whole group after reading and analysing several sections were positive. However, they found that some parts were quite complex and difficult to understand despite their high level of linguistic and scientific competence.

Keywords: ESP; degree of specialisation; lexical density; genres; articles; scientific and technical domain

1. Introduction

The development of new areas of study and the evolution towards a much greater specialisation of knowledge lead English for Specific Purposes (henceforth ESP) instructors to face "the challenge of teaching a foreign language to the students of highly specialised disciplines" (Krajka, 2009, p. 209). Moreover, "the lack of properly developed commercial materials confronts many of them with the urgent need of adapting appropriate teaching resources" (Krajka, 2009, p. 209). As stated by Krajka (2009), the multitude of target language input available on the Internet provides lecturers working in technical institutions with different paths, which would enable them to retrieve, evaluate, analyse, and start to implement a compilation of some of those written materials found online in a varied range of English learning contexts.

This paper addresses the beginning of the research conducted in an attempt to identify, start to implement, and use a corpus of specialised texts related to the field of Biotechnology with undergraduate students of English. The final selection of recently published and relevant articles would become the central component of one of the units of the course English for Professional and Academic Communication (henceforth EPAC) at the Technical University of Madrid (Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, henceforth UPM). Students enrolling in this EPAC course are required to certify a B2 level of English. It is a compulsory subject at the UPM and is mainly focused on the development of a series of common competences and skills, i.e. note-taking; writing CVs and formal letters; analysing and producing written reports; or familiarising oneself with the situations, tools and guidelines for academic and professional oral communication, for instance, oral presentations, job interviews as well as meetings. Even though this EPAC course aims at providing students with the tools and methods for practicing, developing, and fostering a series of oral and written skills and competences in an academic and professional context, they usually express their interest in using materials and participating in activities closely related and adapted to their corresponding field of specialisation. This motivating factor is especially evident in the case of the Bachelor's degree in Biotechnology, since we have perceived that students' level of involvement is very high and most of them expect and demand an English course as adapted to their scientific domain as possible. Furthermore, in the context of a technical university, in which students have a specialised background, it is relevant and even mandatory to explore and find new ways, methods, and techniques "capable of fostering an integral communicative competence and making the entire learning process more dynamic and attractive" (Gimeno-Sanz & Martínez-Sáez, 2016, p. 31).

Basing students' language practice on a scientific field and implementing learning resources that cater to the students' specific needs have proven to foster their interest. "The fact of providing students with specific content is considered as a key factor in stimulating motivation; the more domain-related the content, the more relevant they are considered to be" (Gimeno-Sanz & Martínez-Sáez, 2016, p. 35). Moreover, learners usually rate the relevance of materials in connection with how much they think these satisfy their future needs and professional expectations (Gimeno-Sanz & Martínez-Sáez, 2016). As defined by Räisänen and Fortanet-Gómez (2008, p. 12), ESP is aimed at providing the learner with the tools to "communicate within a specific academic, occupational or professional domain". These facts led us to start to design the structure of a unit that would pursue 1) the familiarisation with; 2) the understanding; and 3) the eventual production of scientific reports by the students of Biotechnology at the UPM. It was important to bear in mind that including technical language would require specific knowledge to be understood, and that some second-year students might not be sufficiently prepared to face a very high level of specialisation. However, most of them are already familiar with complex vocabulary and these types of texts, since their lecturers in other technical courses often share and make reference to original English versions.

Therefore, measuring the degree of specialisation was one of the initial priorities in order to present students with a broader variety of resources and different levels of complexity. According to Ciapuscio & Kugel (2002) and Edo-Marzà (2011, p. 298), there are two main ways of approaching the degree of specialisation of a scientific text. Some authors refer to a "sharp line" or "clear-cut boundary allowing for a fast and easy distinction between general and specialised language" (Edo-Marzà, 2011, p. 298). This distinction would be mainly based on "the specificity of the topics dealt with, addressers and addressees and communicative situations" (Edo-Marzà, 2011, p. 298). These features would enable us to classify the texts studied in this initial stage as specialised discourse, since they cover very specific topics, are addressed to experts in this particular area and foster the dissemination of relevant findings. Other authors mention that there is a continuum and that "the difference between general and specific is a matter of degree" (Cabré, 1993, 1999; Edo-Marzà, 2011, p. 298). This is the approach adopted in this research in progress by paying attention to the three levels mentioned by Cabré, i.e. highly specialised, specialised and fairly specialised.

2. Methodology

The initial step consisted in selecting a corpus of twelve relevant texts from a series of specialised journals. Secondly, these texts were classified into three categories based on the genre to which they belong by taking into account the definitions provided for each of these text types, i.e. opinion[1], review (and mini-review)[2], and original research[3] articles. Crop modification, genetics, the development of new medical techniques

[1] "Opinion articles present the author's viewpoint on the interpretation, analysis, or methods used in a particular study. It allows the author to comment on the strength and weakness of a theory or hypothesis. Opinion articles are usually based on constructive criticism and should be backed by evidence. Such articles promote discussion on current issues concerning science. These are relatively short articles." (https://www.editage.com/insights/6-article-types-that-journals-publish-a-guide-for-early-career-researchers)

[2] "Review Articles provide a comprehensive summary of research on a certain topic, and a perspective on the state of the field and where it is heading." "Reviews commonly cite approximately 100 primary research articles." (https://www.springer.com/gp/authors-editors/authorandreviewertutorials/writing-a-journal-manuscript/types-of-journal-articles/10285504) They "give an overview of existing literature in a field, often identifying specific problems or issues and analysing information from available published work on the topic with a balanced perspective". (https://www.editage.com/insights/6-article-types-that-journals-publish-a-guide-for-early-career-researchers)

[3] "The most common type of journal manuscript used to publish full reports of data from research. It may be called an Original Article, Research Article, Research, or just Article, depending on the journal. The Original Research format is suitable for many different fields and different types of studies." (https://www.springer.com/gp/authors-editors/authorandreviewertutorials/writing-a-journal-manuscript/types-of-journal-articles/10285504)

for targeting diseases in a more personalised way, bioinformatics or modelling are an illustration of some of the topics included in the first corpus of texts. Thirdly, the need emerged to delimit their corresponding degree of specialisation, define their role and measure how appropriate and effective these could be for their eventual implementation in our language learning context.

When measuring specialisation, both lexical richness and variation are seen as clarifying and defining factors (Edo-Marzà, 2011). However, lexical variation – "the ratio measured as a percentage between the different words in the text and the total number of running words (number of words x 100/ number of tokens" – can be affected by differences in length and be unstable in the case of short texts (Gregori-Signes & Clavel-Arroitia, 2015, p. 548). Some other criteria are function, genre, and tenor relationship (Vargas-Sierra, 2005; Edo-Marzà, 2011). These criteria have also been taken into consideration when selecting the texts from several prestigious publications and resources dealing with Biotechnology, through which experts address their research and findings to other scientists and students sharing their knowledge and interest in this particular field.

"Lexical density, lexical diversity or lexical richness are terms which refer to statistical measures that gauge the lexical richness of texts" (Daller, van Hout & Treffers-Daller, 2003; Gregori-Signes & Clavel-Arroitia, 2015, p. 547). In the present study, we have narrowed the scope and focused more specifically on lexical density (complexity factor), which "provides a measure of the proportion of lexical items (i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives, and some adverbs) in the text (Johansson, 2008; Gregori-Signes & Clavel-Arroitia, 2015, p. 547). As claimed by these authors (2015), texts with lower density tend to be more easily understood. However, "a text may have high lexical diversity (i.e. contain many different word types), but low lexical density (i.e. contain many pronouns and auxiliaries rather than nouns and lexical verbs) or vice versa" (Johansson, 2008; Gregori-Signes & Clavel-Arroitia, 2015, p. 547). Lexical density has been measured using *Textalyser* (http://textalyser.net), a free online text analysis tool which offers detailed statistics, finds out the keyword density, and analyses word groups as well as the prominence of words or expressions. In this initial stage, we decided to focus our analysis on the beginnings of the articles compiled and classified for the study, i.e. abstracts as well as other introductory sections. This delimitation allowed us to measure lexical density in extracts of a more similar length – between 550 and 650 words per article (total word count provided automatically by *Textalyser*)- and be able to compare more homogenous sections regarding content and structure.

3. Analysis and results

As previously mentioned, one of the main goals of the present study was to take the first steps and start to delimit the reading materials which would be shared with the students in the coming years. These resources would allow them to know more about text structure, degree of specialisation as well as other important features concerning scientific discourse, so that they might have the tools for understanding and writing technical reports.

In so doing, we decided to start to analyse their level of lexical richness, and in particular their lexical density and complexity. We have been able to observe how the complexity factor (lexical density) in opinion articles – ranging from 62.2% to 67.7% – is higher than it is in the selection of review articles, offering more varied results, which range from 62.5% to 64.5% in the case of mini-reviews, and from 56.7% to 58.6% in both review articles. The most significant contrast is found in the results provided by the analysis of the corpus of original articles, which shows a more noticeable decrease in the level of complexity or lexical density –ranging, in this case, from 53.5% to 56.9%–when compared with the two previous genres, which means that students would find them easier to understand. As illustrated in Table 1, these results reflect a trend which can also be seen in other factors such as readability or average sentence length:

TABLE 1. RESULTS PROVIDED AUTOMATICALLY BY *TEXTALYSER*

Article	Complexity factor (Lexical density)	Readability (Gunning-Fog Index): (6-easy 20-hard)	Average sentence length (words)	Readability (Alternative) beta: (100-easy, 20-hard, optimal 60-70)
Opinion 1	63.9%	14.8	22.08	6.8
Opinion 2	67.7%	15.6	26.35	6.3
Opinion 3	62.2%	14.3	21.68	12.4
Opinion 4	65.9%	14.3	23.64	13.1
(Mini-)review 1	64.5%	11.8	16.8	19.2
Review 2	56.7%	13.8	25	17.6
Review 3	58.6%	13.6	19.78	18.8
(Mini-)review 4	62.5%	10.3	13.37	17.8
Original 1	56.9%	10.2	14.37	30.5
Original 2	54.4%	11.7	19.05	24.7
Original 3	53.5%	14.2	17.57	5.6
Original 4	53.8%	14.6	18.28	8.6

Moreover, we conducted a brief qualitative analysis of the initial implementation of a text belonging to each genre included in the corpus with a group of 58 students following the EPAC course at the UPM. In general terms, most of the students were able to detect different levels of complexity even within the same article and in comparison with other texts. In terms of usefulness and suitability, they shared their own conclusions with the whole group after reading and analysing several sections. Besides, they were asked to think about the role of these extracts and if reading and analysing them could be considered as a useful tool and method to start to attain the abovementioned linguistic goals. The first and general impressions were positive.

However, with regard to the apparently high level of specialisation of the first texts read in class, some of the initial hypotheses were also confirmed, since the participants expressed the view that some parts were quite complex and difficult to understand in spite of their good command of English and familiarisation with some of the main ideas and specific topics. Initially, we also thought that those students who are more used to scientific and technical disciplines might be slightly reluctant to do an activity essentially based on linguistic analysis. Nevertheless, they seemed to appreciate the relevance of the contents and analysis conducted in class. We need to bear in mind the limited scope and obvious restrictions presented by the debate held in class and its subsequent qualitative analysis, along with the impossibility of accepting the results as conclusive evidence, since our validation questionnaire has not been implemented yet.

4. Conclusion

Despite of being a study in progress, the limited number of texts which have been analysed in the first stage and being aware of the need to expand and achieve a more representative corpus, we might say that some of the preliminary findings contribute to the initial theory of the existence of a continuum or a progressive degree of specialisation, even within texts addressed by and to experts in the same scientific area. As we have seen, preliminary findings suggest that the corpus comprising twelve texts is able to provide the reader with different degrees of high complexity depending on the type of text. However, we still have to explore the specific pedagogical effects that these resources may have when using them in class, and see whether the lecturers' intuition and previous hypothesis about a likely increase in students' motivation and progress is confirmed or not. We would also need to monitor if the initial results have a noticeable effect in terms of the familiarisation of students with scientific discourse in general, and if there is a clear impact when it comes to understanding the specialised concepts, methods, findings and conclusions provided. As previously mentioned, apart from lexical density, there are some other factors concerning the degree of specialisation of scientific resources which should be taken into consideration. These factors would enable us to offer a broader and complete view of all the components taking part in the present approach to ESP learning which we hope to address in the near future.

Appendix

List of articles analysed in the present study (see Table 1):

A. Opinion Articles

A.1. Vervoort, Y., Gutiérrez, A., Roncoroni, M., Liu, C., Steensels, J. & Verstrepen, K. (2017). High-throughput system-wide engineering and screening for microbial biotechnology. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology, 46*, 120-125.

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La perspectiva de género como base para el estudio de la calidad del contenido informativo del evolutivo de enfermería de úlceras por presión

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Resumen
Se presenta un estudio sobre la calidad del contenido informativo del evolutivo de enfermería para úlceras por presión, como género textual específico dentro de documentación clínico enfermera del cuidado, con el objetivo de identificar una estructura retórica y temática para el mismo, de modo que se puedan evaluar sus niveles de calidad informativa. Se sigue para ello una metodología inductiva (con la creación de una matriz conceptual) junto con una deductiva, basada en el análisis de un corpus de 10.661 anotaciones, incluidas en 654 historias clínicas del Servicio de Geriatría del Hospital Universitario de Guadalajara. Los resultados del análisis muestran una baja calidad informativa de los evolutivos (84,81%) y ponen de manifiesto que la información registrada en las anotaciones carece de exhaustividad, consistencia, precisión y especificidad temática. Se destaca que el análisis de las convenciones de género en el dominio disciplinar de la enfermería, ayudará a una mejor comprensión de la comunicación especializada, dentro de la práctica clínico enfermera.

Palabras clave: Análisis de género; evolutivo de enfermería; registros de enfermería; histórica clínica enfermera; calidad de contenido.

1. Introducción

Aunque el discurso en ciencias biomédicas ha sido ampliamente abordado desde el área de inglés para fines específicos (Nwogu, 1991; López-Arroyo 2000; Mendiluce, 2004; Posteguillo y Piqué-Angordans, 2006; etc.) o desde la traducción médica (Burdiles, 2016; Faya, 2015, 2016; Rodríguez, 2015; Muñoz y Hurtado Albir, 2012, etc.) el análisis de los géneros discursivos en enfermería no ha sido apenas investigado. Cabe mencionar algunos trabajos, desde la lingüística aplicada y el análisis discursivo, que han estudiado tipos textuales concretos para la documentación enfermera, sin abordar el enfoque de género (Lövestam, 2015; Tarruella, 2014; Barral *et al*., 2012; Silva *et al*., 2012; Oliveira y Cadette, 2009; Forteza, 2003; Lourenço *et al*., 2002; Angerami *et. al*, 1976, etc.). Desde este contexto, el objeto de nuestro trabajo es al análisis discursivo del evolutivo de enfermería, considerando su especificidad funcional y tipológica (Hatim y Mason, 1990; Swales, 1990, Martin, 1994, Paltridge, 1997, etc.) y desde la producción de géneros textuales específicos en la documentación clínico-enfermera, entendidos como informes de actividad de esta comunidad discursivo-profesional. (Parodi, 2008; Bhatia, 2012, 1993; Trosborg, 2000, etc.).

2. Objetivos

El objetivo general de la investigación es doble: a) caracterizar el evolutivo de enfermería como género específico dentro de la *documentación clínico enfermera del cuidado* y b) analizar la calidad del contenido informativo del evolutivo en formato narrativo, desde la perspectiva de su estructura retórica y contenido temático.

3. El evolutivo de enfermería como género discursivo de la documentación del cuidado

El evolutivo de enfermería es un género discursivo, dentro de la historia clínico-enfermera, cuyo propósito comunicativo esencial es el registro y seguimiento de la evolución del cuidado del paciente, en una determinada situación clínica. Su contexto comunicativo es el de una comunicación técnica especializada, entre profesionales de enfermería y otros profesionales de salud que intervienen en los contextos del cuidado del paciente. Tiene sus propias convenciones retóricas y unos rasgos tipificados (estructurales, temáticos, estilísticos y terminológicos) que lo diferencian de otros tipos documentales de la historia clínica enfermera.

4. Análisis de corpus y diseño metodológico

El estudio se lleva a cabo sobre un corpus de 10.661 anotaciones, registradas en una población de 645 historias clínicas de pacientes que presentan y/o están en riesgo de desarrollar una úlcera por presión (UPP) en la Unidad de Agudos del Servicio de Geriatría del Hospital Universitario de Guadalajara, durante el periodo (mayo 2012-diciembre de 2013).

Con el objeto de identificar la organización prototípica de la información en el evolutivo, se diseña una matriz conceptual, que toma como esquema estructurador el sistema de registro Focus-DAR, adaptado a las necesidades y problemas de enfermería para el tratamiento y prevención de la úlcera por presión, considerando también las patologías médicas asociadas de mayor incidencia en el anciano. El nivel de calidad (Saranto y Kinnunen, 2009) se mide a través de una escala que identifica las posibles combinaciones de las categorías retóricas, a partir de cuatro niveles: baja, media, alta y excelente.

5. Resultados y Discusión

5.1. Anotaciones y calidad retórica de la estructura esquemática

Las cifras más altas de anotaciones de evolutivos se corresponden con las dimensiones directamente relacionadas con aspectos fisiológicos: alimentación (42,85%), higiene e integridad de la piel (24,09%) movilidad (13,06%), evitar peligros (11,8%) y eliminación (7,99). El mayor número de anotaciones se concentra en las categorías individuales acción (59,62%) y problema (16,68%).

TABLA 1. PORCENTAJE DE ANOTACIONES PARA LA ESTRUCTURA RETÓRICA DEL EVOLUTIVO Y CALIDAD

DIMENSIONES	CATEGORÍAS RETÓRICAS %				CALIDAD %
	Problema	**Dato**	**Acción**	**Respuesta**	**Calidad baja**
Alimentación	7,82	7,36	64,12	8,65	87,95
Eliminación	86,62	0	12,09	0	98,71
Evitar peligros	0,32	8,96	58,21	0,08	67,57
Higiene e integridad	14,29	0.04	62,97	0,04	77,3
Movilidad	22,34	2,8	69,9	0,22	95,26
Realización personal					0
Relaciones familiares y sociales	5	95	0	0	100
Dimensiones	PD	PA	DA	AR	Calidad media
Alimentación	0,04	0.07	4,51	6,04	10,59
Eliminación	0	0	1,29	0	1,29
Evitar peligros	2,14	0	12,69	2,06	16,89
Higiene e integridad	0	15,93	2,38	3,31	21,62
Movilidad	0,14	0,14	0	4,38	4,66
Realización personal					0
Relaciones familiares y sociales	0	0	0	0	0
Dimensiones	PDA	DAR	PAR		Calidad alta
Alimentación	0.02	1,38	0		1,38
Eliminación	0	0	0		0
Evitar peligros	0,87	14,12	0		14,99
Higiene e integridad	0.04	0,04	0,97		1,01
Movilidad	0.00	0,07	0		0,07
Realización personal					0
Relaciones familiares y sociales	0	0	0		0
Dimensiones	PDAR				Calidad Excelente
Alimentación	0				0
Eliminación	0				0
Evitar peligros	0,56				0,56
Higiene e integridad	0				0
Movilidad	0				0
Realización personal					0
Relaciones familiares y sociales	0				0

Desde una perspectiva desagregada en dimensiones, la mayoría de las anotaciones corresponde a la categoría de *acción* en las dimensiones *movilidad* (69,90%), seguida de *higiene e integridad de la piel* (62,97%) y *alimentación* (64,12%), como escenarios clínicos con mayor incidencia de UPP en la población anciana sometida a estudio. La categoría AR también concentra anotaciones en la dimensión *alimentación* (6,04%) y *movilidad* (4,38), propias de la intervención enfermera en esta patología. Las dimensiones que recogen anotaciones con una menor calidad son las de *eliminación* (98,71%), *movilidad* (95,26%) y alimentación (87,94%). Para las dimensiones psicosociales de autorrealización y relaciones familiares no se registran datos. La dimensiones que presentan las anotaciones con mayor calidad de contenido informativo son la de *evitar peligros* (14,99%), alta calidad, e *higiene e integridad de la piel*, calidad media, (21,61%). Las anotaciones de calidad excelente sólo aparecen en la dimensión evitar peligros, en un bajo porcentaje (0,56% del total).

5.2. Items en estructura retórica, calidad y representatividad temática

La mayoría de los ítems temáticos registrados corresponden a la categoría alimentación (50,93%), seguida muy en menor medida por la dimensión higiene e integridad de la piel (16,82%) y evitar peligros (15,89%), correspondiéndose los datos con las dimensiones que recogen también mayor número de anotaciones.

En cuanto a los niveles de calidad, la mayoría de los ítems se registran en anotaciones de calidad media (45%, 52) y baja (38,79).

TABLA 2. PORCENTAJE DE ÍTEMS TEMÁTICOS DISTRIBUIDOS POR DIMENSIONES Y NIVELES DE CALIDAD.

Dimensiones /ítems	NIVEL DE CALIDAD RETÓRICA			
	Baja	Media	Alta	Excelente
Alimentación	30,28	48,62	21,10	0,00
Eliminación	70,00	30,00	0,00	0,00
Evitar peligros	29,41	35,29	29,41	5,88
Higiene e integridad	41,67	47,22	11,11	0,00
Movilidad	68,18	27,27	4,55	0,00
Realización personal	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Relaciones familiares y sociales	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00

Destaca el registro de ítems en combinaciones retóricas que aseguran una calidad excelente en la dimensión evitar peligros (5,88%) y en alta calidad de contenido informativo para esta misma dimensión (29,41%), seguida de la dimensión de alimentación (21%), así como el registro de ítems en anotaciones de baja calidad en las dimensiones eliminación (70%) y movilidad (68%), que refleja una baja exhaustividad y precisión temática en los registros.

5.3. *Análisis del ítem acción enfermera: acciones propias de enfermería y acciones en colaboración con otros profesionales sanitarios*

El ítem que más se registra en las anotaciones de baja calidad es el que se relaciona con la variable individual acción (64,12%.).

TABLA 3. PORCENTAJE DE ACCIONES PROPIAS ENFERMERAS Y EN COLABORACIÓN.

ACCIONES EN COMBINACIÓN %								
	A	PA	DA	AR	PDA	PAR	DAR	PDAR
Alimentación	74,42	0,14	9,47	12,79	0,05	0,00	3,13	0,00
Eliminación								
Evitar peligro	20,09	0,00	35,26	5,13	3,21	0,00	35,04	1,28
Higiene e integridad	44,36	54,89	0,00	0,75	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Movilidad	95,20	0,80	0,00	3,20	0,00	0,00	0,80	0,00
Totales	64,96	2,71	12,87	10,54	0,56	0,00	8,14	0,21
ACCIONES PROPIAS								
	A	PA	DA	AR	PDA	PAR	DAR	PDAR
Alimentación	94,24	0,14	3,26	0,42	0,00	0,00	1,94	0,00
Eliminación	86,55	0,00	13,45	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Evitar peligro	93,70	0,00	1,02	0,29	0,00	0,00	4,69	0,29
Higiene e integridad	62,22	24,08	4,91	6,67	0,08	1,96	0,08	0,00
Movilidad	93,54	0,11	0,00	6,24	0,00	0,00	0,11	0,00
Totales	79,73	10,71	3,41	4,10	0,04	0,87	1,11	0,04

El porcentaje global de acciones propias, relacionadas con aspectos generales del cuidado, (66,61%) es mayor que el de acciones en colaboración médica (28,09%). El mayor número de acciones propias de enfermería se da en la dimensión de eliminación (100%) seguida de las dimensiones higiene e integridad de la piel (94,96%) y la de movilidad (87,96%). Por el contrario, las dimensiones alimentación (59,43%) y la de evitar peligros (40,66%) registran el mayor número de acciones en colaboración, relacionas con la administración de medicación. Resulta además significativo que siendo éstas una de las dimensiones esenciales en el cuidado y tratamiento de UPP tengan registradas menos de la mitad de intervenciones propias de enfermería. Ello demuestra la necesidad de asumir el rol enfermero y la importancia de la documentación de acciones propias para el desarrollo autónomo de la disciplina.

5.4. Especificidad / subjetividad temática en la descripción de anotaciones

Destacamos un aspecto fundamental derivado del uso del lenguaje natural en la descripción de la respuesta del paciente a los cuidados: la presencia de ambigüedad y subjetividad, hecho que reduce la especificidad temática, asociada al uso del lenguaje normalizado enfermero.

La subjetividad en las respuestas aparece en las descripciones de anotaciones en todas las dimensiones. Así, en la descripción de la respuesta para la dimensión *higiene e integridad de la piel* se emplean términos subjetivos: *buena evolución, mejor aspecto* (…)

- Realizada cura de talón Izq. ---*buena evolución de la úlcera.*
- Curada upp de maléolo externo derecho, *mejor aspecto.*
- Curada úlcera de trocánter derecho---*buena evolución*

6. Conclusiones

Como conclusión general señalamos que el análisis de las convenciones de género en el dominio disciplinar de la enfermería ayudará a una mejor comprensión de la comunicación especializada dentro de la práctica clínico enfermera, en nuestro caso en el ámbito específico del seguimiento y evaluación del cuidado de las úlceras por presión.

Señalamos también otra serie de conclusiones, más detalladas, a la luz del estudio empírico realizado sobre el análisis de corpus de los evolutivos:

- Desde su concepción específica de género, el evolutivo, en formato narrativo, no responde a su función discursiva específica de *registro* de la *evolución y el seguimiento del cuidado del paciente*, ni a la comunicación eficaz de evidencias de la práctica clínico enfermera a los profesionales sanitarios.
- Las anotaciones analizadas para el corpus objeto de estudio no plasman convenientemente el pensamiento racional y crítico del proceso enfermero. Suelen cumplimentarse de modo fragmentario y descontextualizado, sin referencia a problemas enfermeros concretos y sin respuestas adecuadas a las intervenciones realizadas.
- La ausencia de estructuración retórica y temática de la información en el evolutivo incide directamente en la calidad del contenido en términos de duplicación de información, claridad informativa, exhaustividad temática y coherencia con la lógica del cuidado ejecutado.
- La mayor presencia de acciones enfermeras en colaboración con el profesional médico, en las anotaciones de mayor calidad, refleja datos interesantes sobre la concepción profesional de la práctica enfermera y el desarrollo de la enfermería como disciplina.
- Respecto al tenor especializado del evolutivo, en su dimensión de comunicación técnica entre profesionales, subrayamos que el personal de enfermería registra las anotaciones en lenguaje natural, frente al uso del *lenguaje enfermero estandarizado*, con la consiguiente problemática de sinonimia, inespecificidad temática y subjetividad del registro.
- Finalmente, defendemos que la identificación de una *estructura retórica de contenido*, junto con el uso del lenguaje enfermero estandarizado, constituye una importante herramienta para mejorar la calidad informativa de la información registrada. Asimismo, esta *estructura esquemática* no sólo facilitaría la cumplimentación normalizada de los registros (didáctica de la escritura de géneros en el dominio enfermero) sino que ayudaría a potenciar la función didáctica del evolutivo como registro y constituiría, a su vez, un gran avance para la recuperación automática de información y el registro de este género en la historia clínica electrónica.

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Intercultural competence in English for law enforcement

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Abstract
In recent years, the increase of globalization has drawn focus on intercultural competence acquisition, a notion closely linked to the concepts of global citizenship and multiculturalism. Many fields have currently addressed the concept of intercultural competence, including police/security. Teaching/learning languages has to some extent reinvented itself, focusing not only on language skills, but also on intercultural communication. Speaking a foreign language is not equivalent to developing intercultural competence; that is why intercultural competence awareness is included in the syllabus of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses in the National Police Corps Training Centre, located in Avila and affiliated to the University of Salamanca. The main objective of this research is to develop intercultural competence awareness in trainee law enforcers and design an intercultural module specific for L2 police students.

Keywords: ESP; English for Law Enforcement; Intercultural Competence

1. Cultural diversity awareness for effective communication in police contexts

The increase of globalization has drawn focus on intercultural competence, a concept that cannot be separated from those of global citizenship and multiculturalism. Migration, travel, business and international education are facilitating intercultural contact (Jackson, 2012) to the point that Alred, Byram & Fleming (2003) argue for the notion of intercultural citizenship, arising from “a sense of interculturality, an intercultural competence, which is fundamental to education, perhaps always has been so, but is all the more significant in the contemporary world” (p. 6).

Kim (2002) sees adaptability at the heart of intercultural communication competence and defines it as “the individual’s capacity to suspend or modify some of the old cultural ways, and creatively find ways to manage the dynamics of cultural difference/unfamiliarity” (p.377).

Many fields address intercultural competence acquisition, including police and security (Yancey, 2009), as law enforcers are bound to engage in intercultural situations, “in which the cultural distance between the participants is significant enough to have an effect on interaction/communication” (Spencer – Oatey & Franklin, 2009, p.3). Interactions in police contexts involve participants from diverse cultural backgrounds with their own assumptions about communication, who “must accommodate this cultural diversity in order to communicate effectively; a failure to do so can result in serious consequences for the individuals concerned” (Hafner, 2012, p. 523).

2. Intercultural competence awareness in trainee law enforcers

The process of teaching and learning languages has reinvented itself, focusing not only on language skills, but also on intercultural communication (Parker, 2009). According to Romanowski (2017), “an intercultural competent being is someone who possesses much more than evolving knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of the target language, together with the skills and subskills that are required to communicate in it accurately and fluently. An interculturally competent being possesses the linguistic knowledge, emotional resources and ethical qualities necessary to meditate otherness, cope with strangeness and make wise judgements in unpredictable situations” (p. X).

The main objective of this research is to develop intercultural competence awareness in trainee law enforcers who receive ESP classes. Language both reflects and shapes culture and there are many cultural differences in verbal codes and styles of interaction, reflecting fundamental differences in the pragmatics of language (Remland, Jones, Foeman & Arévalo, 2015), but speaking a foreign language is not equivalent to developing intercultural competence. Accordingly, Leenen (2002) advocates for “integration of intercultural content into all relevant recruit and in-service police courses” (p.52), as “there has been a broad shift in policing from a more conventional reactive paradigm towards a more community-based paradigm” (p. 46) and culturally responsive police practice. Therefore, intercultural competence awareness is currently included in the syllabus of the ESP courses in the Ávila National Police Corps Training Centre, affiliated to the University of Salamanca, as in most international police and military schools, colleges and training centres nowadays (Tomforde, 2018).

The curriculum of the National Police School highlights a globalization criterion which emphasizes coordinated work with international police forces, since organized crime is expanding in networks beyond national borders. Police officers must also be prepared for operating under a joint command in the European Union. The role of foreign languages, especially English as the worldwide *lingua franca*, is fully acknowledged among the list of function-oriented skills of law enforcers. The English Department at the National Police School is composed of lecturers and law enforcers with a degree in modern languages. Coordinated teaching between the University of Salamanca professors and the police English practitioners is a privileged community of practice for an ESP environment. All materials and resources are constantly updated, and the evaluation system is agreed upon. Staff members attend refreshing courses abroad in locations such as the Police College at Bramshill, England (Torregrosa Benavent & Sánchez-Reyes, 2015).

3. Methodology

The pre-requisite target language needs profile of trainee law enforcers in the Ávila National Police School is embodied in a syllabus based on the description of the skills and language needed for the most customary communicative events in policing, with a shift from language system to language use, from texts to learners, and trying to reproduce as much as possible real speech acts and target situations.

The intercultural module for trainee officers (in-service police inspectors of the Executive Scale of the Spanish National Police Corps, Common European Framework of Reference level B2, divided in sections comprising 25 students each, who receive 2 hours of lessons per week throughout a whole academic year) covers five one-hour ESP sessions and is studied in the first term of the year to make trainee enforcers more receptive and motivated to cultural diversity and more attentive to language as a complex phenomenon. Any ESP areas aimed at collectives in contact with citizens benefit from this approach. The module focuses on task-based learning and communicative language teaching.

Initially, the trainer brainstorms and elicits from students terms they associate with the idea of culture clash, such as those connected with attire, verbal/non-verbal communication, gestures, body language, eye contact, taboos, customs and moral beliefs, dietary restrictions, police questioning in specific cultural contexts… Activating previous knowledge helps to engage trainee officers with the topic and creates interest.

The intercultural awareness module begins with the introduction of the so-called *Ethnocentrism scale* (Remland, Jones, Foeman & Arévalo, 2015, pp. 21-22) to raise awareness of the students’ own perception of culture. Ethnocentrism is the belief that one’s own culture is superior to others and therefore the centre of everything, with the consequence that “one’s own group’s norms, values, and behaviors are seen as moral, good, and proper, whereas those of groups that differ from one’s own often are seen as immoral, wrong, and improper” (Stephan & Stephan, 2002, p. 130).

The lead-in question, prior to providing the students with the scale, is: “Do you consider yourself ethnocentric? Score your ethnocentrism from 1 (slight) to 10 (maximum), since everybody experiences some degree of ethnocentrism”. Application of the scale usually is bound to surprise some trainee officers who do not describe themselves as ethnocentric but are in fact so according to the questionnaire, and is the starting point of a short whole-class discussion, as a lockstep activity, on how they feel about their results. As part of this introductory stage, the trainer presents the four spheres of intercultural-relevant competences distinguished by Leenen (2002): interculturally relevant general personality traits (like tolerance of uncertainty and ambiguity), interculturally relevant social competences (like ability to assume different roles and perspectives), specific culture competences (like knowledge of languages) and general cultural competences (like knowledge about general cultural differences and their significance) (p. 88), and asks trainee law enforcers to talk about themselves in pairs to ascertain how competent they feel they are in the four given intercultural-relevant competences and which strategies would be effective for increasing them.

Most class groups have law enforcers from different countries (especially African and South American) receiving instruction in Ávila under an international agreement. They now explain to the whole group their particular cases as to instances of culture shock they have experienced both in ordinary intercourses in Spain by and large and watching the police function in Spain. The rest of the class can ask questions and have to draw conclusions to present to the class regarding aspects they used to take for granted as being unbiased culturally but in fact are not. Different cultural backgrounds may account for diverse perceptions of the same situation. This exercise also helps break the ice with police officers recently come from abroad.

Then, it is the moment to hand out the *Ethnocentrism scale*, which consists of the following 22 items:

1. Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.
2. My culture should be the role model for other cultures.
3. People from other cultures come strange when they come to my culture.
4. Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.
5. Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.
6. I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.
7. People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.
8. Most people from other cultures just do not know what is good for them.
9. I respect the values and customs of other cultures.
10. Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.
11. Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.
12. I have many friends from different cultures.
13. People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles everywhere.
14. Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.
15. I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.
16. I apply my values when judging people who are different.
17. I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.
18. I do not cooperate with people who are different.
19. Most people in my culture just do not know what is good for them.
20. I do not trust people who are different.
21. I dislike interacting with people from other cultures.
22. I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.

For each item, students have to mark 5 (strongly agree), 4 (agree), 3 (are undecided), 2 (disagree) or 1 (strongly disagree). After filling in the score, they have to follow four steps: a) add their responses to items 4, 7 and 9; b) add their responses to items 1, 2, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 18, 20, 21 and 22; c) subtract the sum from step 1 from 18; d) add results from step b and step c. The figure obtained in step d is the student's ethnocentrism score. The higher the figure in the result, the greater the student's ethnocentrism.

This initial stage is followed by a second stage consisting of a series of integrated skills tasks: 1. Receptive skills activities (reading and listening) based on authentic materials: analysis of items of news, extracts of films, TV commercials, video documents and text transcriptions of interviews dealing with culture clash, intercultural encounters and overlapping cultural situations; 2. Practice/guided communicative activities: cultural roleplays, simulation games and minidramas, and critical incidents; 3. Interaction/communication activities: visits of English-speaking immigrants living in the area to tell their experience, discussion, debate, reaching a consensus, written or spoken reports on a particular intercultural problem and possible solutions, analysing images; and 4. the final task, a team project work dossier of case studies based on POP (problem-oriented policing) connected with cultural differences of the people involved. As an ongoing activity throughout the year, trainee police officers bring to class more authentic materials they encounter dealing with intercultural issues and linked to police settings. Gaining a cross-cultural perspective increases empathy and adds appropriateness to multicultural social contexts. It also raises awareness of cross-cultural factors which may go unnoticed otherwise.

Finally, as a third and last stage, assessment of the students' intercultural competence relies on Byram's five factors in intercultural communication (1997, p. 34), presented to trainee law enforcers as assessment criteria: Knowledge of self and other, of interaction: individual and societal (*savoirs*); Skills: interpret and relate (*savoir comprendre*); Education: political education, critical cultural awareness (*savoir s'engager*); Attitudes: relativising self, valuing other (*savoir être*); and Skills: discover and/or interact (*savoir apprendre/faire*). Therefore, each of Byram's five *savoirs* are assessed by the trainer (with tests, continuous assessment of tasks and a portfolio with a selection of the trainee's work and materials), as well as by means of peer-assessment and self-assessment using checklists. Objective assessment is difficult when it comes to intercultural competence; some scholars even argue that objectivity is not possible when dealing with culture, because culture always is subjectively experienced and construed (Sercu, 2004).

4. Conclusions

An ESP (law enforcement) syllabus should acquaint students with the notions of culture underlying language. As a result, trainee officers develop both foreign language acquisition and intercultural competence.

A syllabus that includes intercultural competence is motivating for the National Police School ESP apprentices, who become aware of everyday intercultural situations, see their practical relevance in their police function, get more actively involved in their learning process and lose their fear of facing cultural barriers in real professional intercourses. It promotes critical thinking and interactive learning in pair and group work, and also fosters students' autonomy (a vital skill for a professional who will engage in lifelong learning and updating).

Intercultural awareness activities allow trainee officers to be sensitive to cultural difference, and have beneficial results in building up their linguistic and pragmatic proficiency addressed to their professional performance.

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Turismo de gastronomía: la relevancia de las entidades léxicas compuestas en el campo semántico de la restauración en lengua alemana

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Resumen
En un mundo tan globalizado como el nuestro, el aspecto de la multiculturalidad es fundamental en la disciplina de la lingüística aplicada y del lenguaje para fines específicos, más en concreto, en sectores tan especializados como el turismo que destacan, principalmente, por un léxico específico muy heterogéneo (Calvi, 2005). El sector turístico está ligado a disciplinas muy dispares de las cuales centraremos nuestra atención en el denominado "Turismo de gastronomía", ya que ha adquirido en los últimos tiempos una gran relevancia al aumentar el interés por la cultura culinaria.

Así pues, la terminología es una de las características principales del lenguaje especializado lo que implica que no solo es importante conocer el léxico de la propia cultura, sino también poder transmitirla a una cultura diferente. En concreto, en lengua alemana se generan nuevas formaciones de palabras tomando como punto de partida morfemas libres, lo cual implica un conocimiento más exhaustivo acerca de la estructura interna de las palabras complejas (Fleischer & Barz, 1995) y, más concretamente, en el campo semántico de la gastronomía, donde la gran mayoría de formaciones son compuestos determinativos.

Nuestro objetivo se centrará en analizar las entidades léxicas categorizadas como compuestos en alemán en el marco de la restauración, con especial atención al papel que juega el elemento de juntura en dichas entidades léxicas y las correspondencias que se generan en lengua española, ya que una de sus particularidades es que gran parte del acervo léxico gastronómico se ha obtenido mediante el proceso de composición, motivo por el cual el fenómeno de la formación de palabras ocupa siempre un importante lugar en la investigación lexicológica al generar modelos estables (Elsen, 2011).

Palabras clave: Terminología; turismo de gastronomía; morfología derivativa; lengua alemana con fines específicos.

1. Introducción

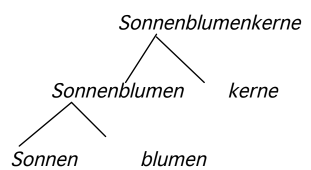
La entidad léxica, resultado de un proceso de formación de palabras, está constituida por diferentes elementos estructurales y el resultado de los constituyentes inmediatos, que son aquellos elementos que forman las palabras a un mismo nivel jerárquico, se convierte en la unidad básica de la formación de palabras. En la lengua alemana contemporánea se diferencian dos procedimientos principales de formación de palabras, según la clase de morfemas sobre los que se sustentan: uno de los mismos es la composición y el otro la derivación.

El primero de ellos, la composición, procedimiento en el cual centraremos nuestro análisis, se define como un proceso formado, al menos, por dos partes cuyos constituyentes son palabras o morfemas fundamentales que se unen para formar una nueva y única palabra, aunque debemos tener en cuenta que también pueden aparecer como palabras independientes fuera de esa unión. En el proceso de composición, la entidad léxica está formada como mínimo por dos constituyentes y se divide, principalmente, en dos clases: determinativa y copulativa. Esta división se basa en la relación que establecen entre sí sus miembros, ya que en la composición determinativa es de subordinación, es decir, un constituyente inmediato depende de otro matricial, mientras que en la copulativa se trata de una relación paratáctica, esto es, de coordinación entre ambos constituyentes[1].

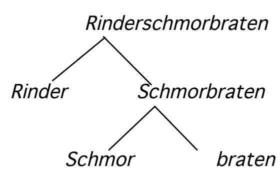
A este respecto, es importante señalar que, en el campo semántico de la gastronomía en lengua alemana, la gran mayoría de formaciones son compuestos determinativos formados por un sustantivo como palabra fundamental, como analizaremos a continuación, ya que son raras las ocasiones en las que la palabra base es de categoría adjetival como, por ejemplo, son los compuesto *Eigelb, Eiweiß* o *Hühnerklein*.

2. La composición determinativa en lengua alemana: definición y delimitación

Las composiciones muestran estructuras binarias y se pueden descomponer en sus constituyentes más inmediatos, de tal manera que estas formaciones complejas se pueden ramificar expandiéndose en ambos sentidos. Al tomar ejemplos del ámbito de la restauración, y a pesar de que la mayoría de los compuestos en este sector son simples, sus formaciones complejas formadas por más de dos constituyentes se ramifican tanto hacia la izquierda:



como hacia la derecha:



[1] Vater (2002) establece una diferencia fundamental entre los compuestos determinativos y los copulativos; ésta consiste en que en los compuestos determinativos el segundo miembro desempeña también el núcleo semántico, mientras que en los compuestos copulativos no se da esta característica porque el significado de los mismos es resultado de la suma de los significados de sus componentes.

Por otra parte, y en estrecha relación con el principio compositivo, Stepanova & Černyševa (1986: 101) definen el *Wortbildungsmodell* como una “stabile Struktur, die über eine verallgemeinerte lexikalisch-kategoriale Bedeutung verfügt und geeignet ist, mit verschiedenem lexikalischen Material ausgefüllt zu werden”; se trata de un modelo con cierto grado de generalización y abstracción. Este modelo comprende diferentes estructuras y, en concreto, las autoras distinguen 13 clases de formación de palabras de la lengua estándar, de las cuales destacamos el modelo número 10 que es el relativo a los compuestos determinativos, resaltando el importante papel que desempeñan en la lengua estándar. Así mismo, cabe matizar que, de las diferentes clases de composición, la determinativa es la más frecuente donde no se contabiliza un número específico de elementos que formen dicha composición, pero en el caso de que dicha formación sea excesivamente larga puede resultar complejo para su comprensión.

La composición determinativa es un proceso que se basa en la relación de subordinación con respecto al significado que mantienen ambos constituyentes, es decir, la palabra determinante en relación con la fundamental. La determinación, según Donalies (2002: 60), es “[ein] Wortbildungsvorgang, bei dem eine Worbildungseinheit von einer anderen Wortbildungseinheit semantisch näher bestimmt wird”. De tal manera que los compuestos determinativos son composiciones formadas por dos constituyentes obligatorios: la palabra fundamental, que se corresponde con el segundo constituyente, y la palabra determinante que se corresponde con el primero.

Las funciones de la palabra fundamental son específicamente gramaticales porque tienen como objetivo fijar la clase de palabra a la que pertenece dicho compuesto; se encargan de establecer las categorías gramaticales al tiempo que registran la flexión y el género de la nueva composición. El significado que aporta este segundo constituyente se especifica mediante el primer elemento que es el que determina el significado de esa palabra fundamental y por ello recibe precisamente el nombre de palabra determinante, como ya hemos mencionado anteriormente. Al mismo tiempo, es el miembro que aporta el acento, es decir, es en el primer constituyente de la composición donde recae el acento principal (en relación con el acento véase con más detenimiento Stepanova & Černyševa, 1986; Fleischer, 1971; Donalies, 2002; así como Eisenberg, 2004).

Como ya hemos descrito, se trata de una estructura binaria que se puede dividir en dos constituyentes inmediatos de los cuales es el segundo el que determina las características y, al mismo tiempo, especifica el uso sintáctico a través de la regla universal *Righthand Head Rule*, en alemán *Rechtsköpfigkeitsprinzip*, que según Olsen (cit. en Donalies, 2002: 57) “legt [...] in Form eines allgemeinen Prinzips fest, daß komplexe Wörter ihre morphologischen Eigenschaften vom rechten Bestandteil ererben”. Donalies considera esta regla de vital importancia en estructuras binarias como es el caso de la composición determinativa donde el núcleo sintáctico es equivalente al semántico[2], esto es, dicho núcleo se encuentra a la derecha, es el que aporta el signi-

[2] Aunque debemos destacar que, según Donalies, también se debe aplicar con respecto a la derivación explícita, pero de diferente manera ya que, mientras en los compuestos determinativos coinciden el núcleo sintáctico y semántico, este hecho se debe interpretar de manera distinta en la derivación explícita.

ficado de la palabra compleja y se convierte en la palabra base porque contiene tanto las características gramaticales como el significado léxico[3].

3. Análisis y clasificación de compuestos determinativos en el léxico gastronómico en lengua alemana con fines específicos

En el campo semántico de la restauración, los compuestos determinativos, por norma general, se componen de dos constituyentes, de los cuales tanto el término que actúa como determinante como el fundamental, son de categoría sustantiva, es decir, se trata de compuestos formados por dos sustantivos comunes que pueden generar series de palabras con el mismo término como palabra fundamental, como podemos observar a continuación[4], ya que son raras las ocasiones en las que estos compuestos están formados por una palabra determinante con categoría de nombre propio como es el caso de *Chinakohl*:

TABLA 1. LA COMPOSICIÓN DETERMINATIVA EN EL LÉXICO GASTRONÓMICO (I)

Palabra fundamental	Alemán	Español
Beere	Erdbeere Stachelbeere Wacholderbeere	fresa grosella espinosa enebrina
Nuss	Erdnuss Haselnuss	cacahuete avellana
Salat	Ackersalat/Feldsalat Bataviasalat Eisbergsalat/ Eissalat Kopfsalat Obstsalat	hierba de los canónigos lechuga Batavia lechuga iceberg lechuga ensalada de frutas
Zucker	Kristallzucker Rohrzucker Würfelzucker	azúcar granulado azúcar de caña azúcar en terrones
Zwiebel	Gemüsezwiebel Lauchzwiebel Silberzwiebel	cebolla cebollino cebollita blanca

Por lo tanto, se trata de una estructura binaria que se puede dividir en dos constituyentes inmediatos de los cuales es el segundo el que determina las características y, al mismo tiempo, especifica el uso sintáctico. En este sentido, el núcleo sintáctico es equivalente al semántico, esto es, dicho núcleo se encuentra a la derecha, es el que aporta el significado de la palabra compleja y se convierte en la palabra base porque

[3] Según Eisenberg (2004), el segundo constituyente puede ser tanto categoría gramatical como centro semántico, mientras que el primer miembro restringe o determina la extensión del segundo miembro y aporta el acento. Según Vater (2002), la función del segundo constituyente es determinar tanto la categoría como el género y denomina a los compuestos determinativos dependiendo de la categoría que ocupe el lugar de la palabra fundamental, de tal manera que si tenemos un nombre recibirá la denominación de *Nominalkomposita*, los que tienen un verbo *Verbalkomposita* y así hasta ofrecer una lista de todos los subtipos de compuestos determinativos en lengua alemana.

[4] A este respecto, hemos querido resaltar aquellos compuestos que generan series de palabras; sin embargo, son abundantes las formaciones que hemos encontrado en este grupo como los siguientes ejemplos: *Bärlauch, Barriquewein, Bauchspeck, Beinscheibe, Blattspinat, Blutwurst, Brunnenkresse, Fadennudeln, Fettgehalt, Fischsud, Gartenkresse, Gemüsebrühe, Grillgericht, Hefebrot, Jahrgang, Kartoffelkroketten, Käsekuchen, Kohlrübe, Konditoreiware, Kuchenboden, Kürbiskerne, Landwein, Leberpastete, Löffelbiskuit, Mandelcreme, Obstsalat, Paprikaschote, Reisbrei, Rückenspeck, Salzkartoffeln, Sandkuchen, Saubohne, Schaumwein, Schimmelkäse, Schinkenspeck, Spargelspitzen, Speckwürfel, Spiegelei, Steinpilz, Sternanis, Strandkrabbe, Tischwein, Toastbrot, Wassermelone, Weintraube*.

contiene tanto las características gramaticales como el significado léxico, mientras que el primer miembro es el que determina al segundo y aporta el acento principal.

Sin embargo, también es habitual una serie de compuestos donde el término común, al contrario que en los ejemplos anteriores, es la palabra determinante, como mostramos a continuación:

TABLA 2. LA COMPOSICIÓN DETERMINATIVA EN EL LÉXICO GASTRONÓMICO (II).

Palabra determinante	Alemán	Español
Apfel	Apfelmus Apfelwein	compota de mañana vino de manzana, sidra
Butter	Buttergebäck Butterkeks Buttermilch	pastel de mantequilla galletas de mantequilla suero de mantequilla
Eis	Eisbein Eiskaffee Eiswürfel	lacón, codillo de cerdo café helado cubito de hielo
Feld	Feldhase Feldsalat	liebre hierba de los canónigos
Frucht	Fruchteis Fruchtfleisch	helado de frutas pulpa
Gewürz	Gewürzgurke Gewürznelke	pepinillo en vinagre clavo
Kirsch	Kirschtomate Kirschwasser	tomate cherry aguardiente de cereza
Meer	Meerkohl Meerrettich	col de mar rábano picante
Milch	Milchkaffee Milchlamm Milchprodukt Milchpulver Milchreis	café con leche cordero lechal producto lácteo leche en polvo arroz con leche
Salat	Salatbüffet Salatsoße	buffet de ensaladas aliño
Soja	Sojabohnen Sojamilch Sojasoße Sojaspross(en)	habas de soja leche de soja salsa de soja brote(s) de soja
Wald	Waldfrüchte Waldpilz	frutas del bosque seta silvestre

Esta serie de compuestos determinativos sigue el principio de la *Righthand Head Rule*, pero si prestamos atención a los términos que acabamos de mencionar cuya palabra determinante es, por ejemplo, “Butter”, “Eis”, “Milch” o el extranjerismo “Soja”, observamos que estas formaciones generan compuestos que coinciden en el primer término. Este fenómeno también se evidencia en la denominación de los peces donde encontramos series de compuestos que se construyen con el mismo término como palabra fundamental como son los formados por el constituyente “Fisch”: *Kohlfisch*, *Haifisch*, *Lippfisch*, *Maifisch*, *Schwertfisch*, *Stockfisch* o *Thunfisch*; aunque también se generan otros compuestos teniendo en común la palabra determinante como es el caso de los que se componen por el término “See”: *Seeaal*, *Seebarsch*, *Seeigel*, *Seehecht*, *Seelachs*, *Seespinne*, *Seeteufel* o *Seezunge*.

Como se puede observar, la mayoría de los compuestos determinativos en el ámbito gastronómico se forman sin un elemento explícito de juntura a la hora de unir los diferentes constituyentes, los cuales tienen como palabra base un sustantivo; por otro lado, otros compuestos determinativos, también de categoría sustantiva, se forman con un adjetivo como primer término carentes, de nuevo, de un elemento de juntura como, por ejemplo, *Trockenfrüchte* (frutos secos) o las series de compuestos formadas por la palabra fundamental “Milch” y diferentes adjetivos como palabra determinante: *Dickmilch* (cuajada), *Magermilch* (leche desnatada), *Vollmilch* (leche entera); así como con la palabra base “Käse”: *Frischkäse* (queso fresco), *Hartkäse* (queso de pasta dura). A este respecto, en otros compuestos de este mismo grupo la palabra determinante forma parte de la gama cromática como, por ejemplo: *Grünkohl* (col rizada), *Rotkohl* (col lombarda), *Weißkohl* (repollo); o, también, en el caso particular de los peces, nos encontramos con series de compuestos donde, de nuevo, observamos una coincidencia en el primer elemento del compuesto y variación en la palabra fundamental como ocurre con los términos *Rotbarbe* (salmonete), *Rotbarsch* (gallineta) o *Rotbrasse* (pagel).

Sin embargo, la gran mayoría de compuestos en este campo formados por un adjetivo junto con un sustantivo, se generan con la misma palabra determinante y variando la palabra base, como en el grupo anterior formados por dos sustantivos. En este caso, se encuentran compuestos con el adjetivo "hart": *Hartkäse* (queso de pasta dura), *Hartweizen* (trigo duro); "jung": *Jungente* (patito), *Jungschwein* (lechón); "roh": *Rohkost* (verdura cruda), *Rohschinken* (jamón crudo); así como con "sauer": *Sauerkirsche* (guinda), *Sauerkraut* (col agria o fermentada), *Sauermilch* (leche agria, cuajada); con la palabra "süß": *Süßkartoffel* (batata, boniato), *Süßspeise* (plato dulce), *Süßstoff* (edulcorante) o especialmente productivo es el adjetivo "wild": *Wildente* (pato silvestre), *Wildkräuter* (hierbas silvestres), *Wildpfeffer/Wildragout* (guisado de caza), *Wildschwein* (jabalí).

En este mismo sentido, hay una serie de compuestos determinativos también de categoría sustantiva, pero, en esta ocasión, formados por un verbo como palabra determinante y cuya unión tiene lugar, al igual que en los grupos anteriormente descritos, sin ningún elemento explícito de juntura. A la hora de generar estos compuestos, el sustantivo que funciona como palabra fundamental se une a la raíz del verbo eliminando la terminación –en del infinitivo verbal y observamos que, al igual que en los anteriores compuestos, en esta ocasión también es la palabra determinante del compuesto la que genera una serie de términos como, por ejemplo, con el infinitivo "backen": *Backpflaume* (ciruela pasa), *Backschinken* (jamón braseado), *Backwerk* (productos de panadería y pastelería); mediante la forma verbal "braten": *Bratapfel* (manzana asada), *Brathähnchen* (pollo asado), *Bratkartoffeln* (patatas salteadas), *Bratwurst* (salchicha frita); así como mediante los verbos "dörren": *Dörrfleisch* (carne seca), *Dörrobst* (frutas secas), *Dörrpflaume* (ciruela pasa); "hacken": *Hackbraten* (asado de carne picada), *Hackfleisch* (carne picada) o el infinitivo "räuchern": *Räucherfisch* (pescado ahumado), *Räucherschinken* (jamón ahumado), *Räucherspeck* (tocino ahumado) o *Räuchertofu* (tofu ahumado)[5].

[5] En este grupo se encuentran otros ejemplos que, aunque no generan series de compuestos como los anteriores, están también formados por un infinitivo junto con un sustantivo como, por ejemplo, los siguientes: *Kochschinken, Masthuhn, Mischgemüse, Paniermehl, Pökelfleisch, Rollbraten, Rührei, Schlagsahne, Schmelzkäse, Sprudelwasser, Stopfleber, Wachsbohne.*

4. Conclusiones

En el campo semántico de la gastronomía en lengua alemana, la gran mayoría de formaciones son compuestos determinativos, generalmente, simples y formada por un sustantivo como palabra fundamental junto con otro sustantivo que actúa, por norma general, como palabra determinante. La función del segundo constituyente es determinar tanto la categoría gramatical como el género y funciona como centro semántico, mientras que el primer miembro restringe o determina la extensión del segundo y aporta el acento.

La mayoría de estos compuestos se forman sin un elemento explícito de juntura a la hora de unir sus diferentes constituyentes; sin embargo, en futuras líneas de investigación cabría analizar aquellos compuestos que se forman a través de diferentes elementos de unión como -s- o -n-, así como aquellos que se generan mediante un guion. Del mismo modo, cabría analizar el papel que juega la motivación semántica en estos compuestos, así como los modelos de formaciones de palabras que se generan en lengua española.

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The lexical and the corpus linguistic approaches in the study of metaphor in Geoscience: the case of PARENT and DAUGHTER conceptualizations

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Abstract
The study of scientific conventional metaphors may be carried out following the lexical method and/or the corpus-based approach. Corpus-based research has demonstrated that linguistic metaphors may appear independently or in groups of metaphorical concepts, reaffirming the force of the metaphor in language development and its role in scientific thought. However, for linguists, the identification of conventionalized metaphorical lexical units can be accomplished following the lexical approach mostly based on dictionary word inspection, provided the sources are properly selected. In this paper, both approaches are used on a complementary basis illustrating that linguistic metaphors may be used as key words in order to study a specific key domain, e.g. the 'family' schema in Geoscience. For demonstrative purposes, the case of PARENT and DAUGHTER conceptualizations are analysed within the context of Geoscience discourse. Using a representative principled collection of texts of over 133.000 words, a corpus-based methodology was applied using the AntConc tool for analysing frequencies and collocations. Although the analysis of metaphorical terms in dictionaries had confirmed the presence of the 'family' schema in academic Geology and Mineralogy discourse, the search for the corresponding lexical units by corpus-based methods rendered novel results, and a number of related metaphorical expressions, which supports the complementarity of both methods.

Keywords: Geoscience conceptual metaphors; lexical approach; corpus-based approach; humanizing metaphor; cognitive semantics

1. Introduction

The study of metaphors that are part of the scientific lexicon may be carried out following the lexical method (Kövecses 2015, 2017) and/or the corpus-based approach (Deignan 2015, 2016). While those who argue in favour of the corpus-based approach claim that it is superior to the lexical one, this paper aims to show that both approaches have their strengths and weaknesses, and that they complement each other, as Kövecses (2017) has already shown in his study of emotions. Corpus-based research has demonstrated that linguistic metaphors may appear independently or in groups of metaphorical concepts (Deignan, 2016, p. 107), thus enlightening the force of the metaphor in language development and their role in scientific thought (Fauconnier, 1997, p. 22). However, for linguists, the identification of conventionalized metaphorical lexical units can be accomplished following the lexical approach mostly based on dictionary word inspection, provided the sources are properly selected (Cuadrado et al, 2016; Durán & Argüelles, 2017). As Philip (2011, p. 156) puts it "Corpus query software is designed to retrieve specific words, but if those words cannot be identified before the data is analysed, how can they be extracted in the first place?" In the coming paragraphs both approaches will be described in order to show their complementarity in the study of metaphorical patterns found in knowledge representation in science and engineering, such as the 'family' schema in Geoscience, thus contributing novel results on figurative language use in science. For demonstrative purposes, the case of PARENT and DAUGHTER conceptualizations will be analysed. The lexical approach focuses on the centrality of lexis for creating meaning. It refers to the search of lexical units in monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and specific vocabularies to obtain their meaning within a specific area. Their metaphorical nature must be determined following a generally accepted procedure such as the "Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP)" developed by the Pragglejaz Group (2007), which compares metaphorical versus literal meanings of the lexical items. Then the source and the target domains are identified and their semantic correspondence determined. In many an occasion, the metaphorical patterns found reveal the underlying existence of a schema such as 'the family' to explain geological concepts and their relationship. This is the case with "parent rock", "daughter minerals", "family of rocks" and "related minerals", among others.

Moreover, according to Deignan, a dictionary written using corpus data gives "positive evidence" of the existence of linguistic and conceptual metaphors; however, "[i]f the dictionary does not attest other linguistic metaphors, this cannot be taken as evidence that they do not exist. They may not be frequent enough to warrant their own sense in a dictionary entry" (Deignan, 2015, p. 147). Hence, there is a need for searching in authorised scientific publications for new metaphorical lexical units other than those conventionalised ones found in dictionaries in order to unveil metaphorical patterns.

The corpus linguistics approach studies languages in their context based on corpora; that is, databases constructed with the aim of gathering a representative collection of texts of a given language –English in this case- in order to analyse it empirically by means of electronic tools (McEnery and Hardie, 2012). General language corpora usually contain large amounts of written and spoken texts from a wide range of sources and different contexts, for example the BNC with over 100 million words. However, specific corpora needn't be so large. Bowker and Pearson (2002, p. 9) describe a specific corpus as "a large collection of authentic texts that have been gathered in electronic form according to a specific set of criteria". Recent examples include the specific corpora gathered by Jaworska (2017) to analyse metaphor in tourism promotional discourse, and Caballero's (2017) corpus written by and for architects to study motion metaphors in architectural language, among others.

Previous studies on Earth Sciences' metaphorical language show that the family schema plays an important role in language development in Geology and Mineralogy, where the conceptual metaphor ROCKS AND MINERALS ARE HUMAN BEINGS is analysed in depth (Cuadrado and Durán 2013; Cuadrado et al, 2016; Durán and Argüelles, 2017). However, a detailed analysis of the methodologies used to obtain the metaphorical expressions involved has not been contrasted so far. Since the main aim of this paper is to compare both lexical and corpus-linguistic approaches to the study of metaphor in geoscience papers, in the following sections both methods will be applied to the analysis of the expressions related to PARENT and DAUGHTER conceptualisations. By comparing and contrasting the results obtained from both approaches, the complementarity of both methodologies will be highlighted.

2. Methodology

I have followed Bowker and Pearson' (2002, p. 28-29) criteria to design and compile a valid special purpose corpus that may yield reliable results, which are the following: *a) Size,* though not the main criterion if the corpus is well designed; it may go from 10,000 words to several hundred thousand. *b) Text samples* should be authentic and complete (vs fragments or adapted texts). *c) Broad range of sources and authors* in order to be representative. *d) Specific fields* with a declared provenance. *e) Target audience,* experts and/or the public. *f*) Preferably written by *English language authors.* g) *The date of publication,* in order to obtain updated language, depending on research purposes.

Following these principles, a representative collection of authentic texts of over 133.000 words was gathered. For the corpus-based methodology study, I used the AntConc tool (Anthony, 2014). Regarding native language authors, we have accepted any article written in English –British and American- since our goal is the usage of metaphorical language in professional publications. In addition, all Journals are high quality peer reviewed periodicals, which guarantee correct language use. Table 1 shows the application of the parameters selected to our corpus.

TABLE 1. CRITERIA FOR A GEOSCIENCE CORPUS COMPILATION	
Parameters	**Geoscience principled corpus**
Size	133.188 tokens
Text samples	24 Research articles, 13 abstracts, 6 reports, and 3 book chapters
Range of sources:	Journals: *American Journal of Science; Australian Journal of Earth Sciences; Arab Journal of Geoscience; American Mineralogist; Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology; Earth Surface Processes and Landforms; Earth and Planetary Science Letters; Geology Today; Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta; International Geology Review; International Journal of Materials Science and Applications; Journal of Asian Earth Sciences; Journal of Petrology; Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research; Lithos; Meteoritics and Planetary Science; Mineralogy and Petrology; Mineralogical Magazine; Nature -International Journal of Science; Palaios; Patent Application Publication; Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society: Biological Sciences; Precambrian Research.* Books: *The Principles of Petrology; Encyclopaedia Britannica: Igneous rocks.* Web pages: *Metamorphic rocks.org; National Parks Service/ rock outcrops.*
Specific fields	Geology; Petrology; Mineralogy; Planetary Science; Volcanology; Palaeontology; Geophysics; Geochemistry.
Target audience	Academics, Earth Science students.
Date of publication	From 2002 to 2017 (42 sources), and 1979 (1), 1984 (1), 1987 (1), 1994 (1)

3. Results

3.1. Lexical analysis of "PARENT"

The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) defines PARENT as 1. A person's father or mother (noun); 2. An ancestor (noun); 3. An animal or plant from which new ones are derived (noun); and 4. A source or origin of a smaller or less important part (modifier).

The Dictionary of Mining Terms (DMT) contains the following lexical units with 'parent' as modifier, and their definition:

- "Parent material" = the horizon of weathered rock or soil material from which the soil is formed.
- "Parent rock" = the original rock from which sediments were derived to form later rocks.
- "Parental magma" = that magma from which some other magma was derived.

The New Polytechnic Dictionary of Spanish and English Languages (NPD) registers two other entries with similar meaning:

- "Parent element", and
- "Parent magma".

In order to ensure the metaphorical use of PARENT in our corpus, we compared its literal meaning with its definitions in the DMT. From this, we concluded that the term 'parent' in Geoscience means source or origin (OED meaning 4) of other rocks and minerals used metaphorically.

3.2. The occurrence of PARENT in the corpus*

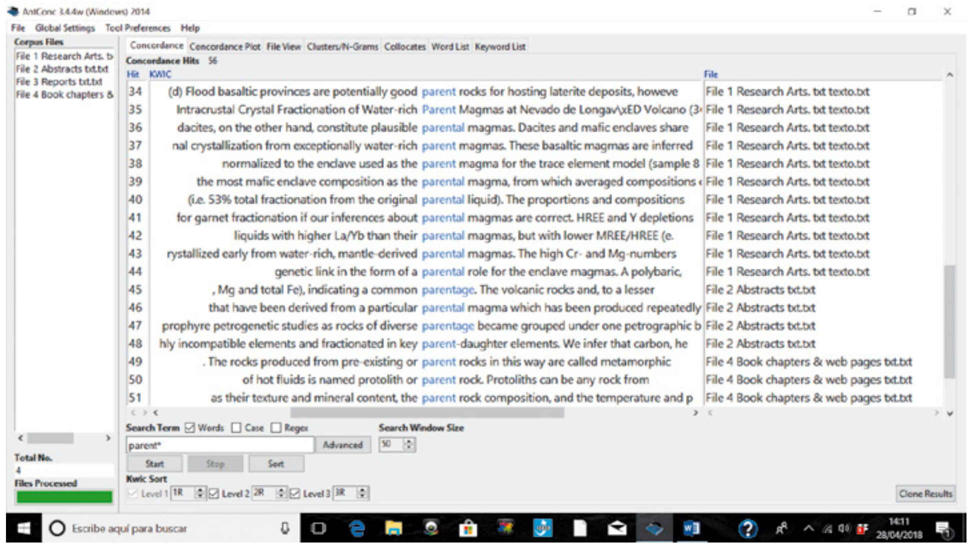

*Figure 1. Fragment of the concordances of PARENT**

A total of 55 concordances for PARENT* have been found: 39 for "parent", 13 for "parental", and 3 for "parentage", all of them meaning 'source' or 'origin', and used as modifiers. Regarding their collocations, the most frequent ones are "parent rock(s)" (33), "parent/al magmas" (6), "residual parental rocks" (5), "common parentage" (2) and "diverse parentage" (1). By collocations, we mean "pairings of two (or three) content words whose combined meaning is constant and institutionalised" (Philip, 2011, p. 41).

3.3. Lexical analysis of "DAUGHTER"

According to the OED, daughter means 1) A girl or woman in relation to either or both of her parents, a female descendant, 2) a woman considered as the product of a particular person, influence, or environment. 3) (Physics) A nuclide formed by the radioactive decay of another.

The DMT has two entries coincident with those in the NPD. In both cases, the key meaning is 'descendant' or 'the product' of something else, always used as modifier:

- "Daughter element" = the element formed when another element undergoes radioactive decay, called the parent.
- "Daughter products" = decay products of freshly purified and isolated uranium.

3.4. The occurrence of DAUGHTER in the corpus

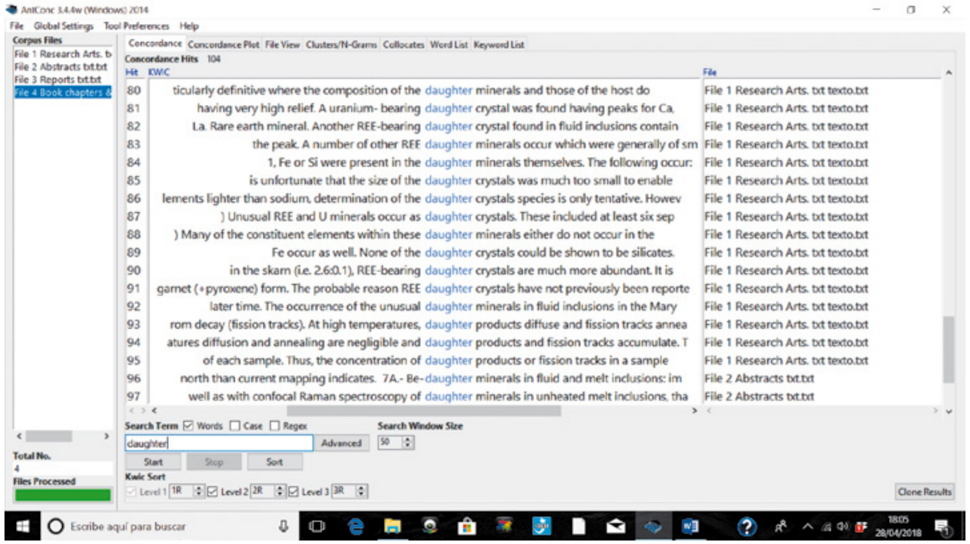

Figure 2. Fragment of the concordances of DAUGHTER

A total of 104 concordances for DAUGHTER have been found. Regarding collocations, 71 correspond to "daughter mineral(s)" and 26 to "daughter crystal(s)", two terms that had not been found in the dictionaries consulted; plus 5 to "daughter products", and 1 to "daughter elements".

4. Discussion

Summarising the results from the lexical and the corpus-based methodologies, we observe that all dictionary entries were located in the special corpus. In addition, two other metaphorical expressions were found for PARENT* and three for DAUGHTER in the corpus, as well as several collocations (see Tables 2 and 3).

TABLE 2. COMPARISON OF LEXICAL AND CORPUS STUDY RESULTS FOR PARENT

Results from dictionaries	Results from corpus	Lexical collocations
Parent material	Parent material	
Parent rock	Parent/al rock	Parent rock composition Parent rock alterations Residual parental rock Weathered/unweathered parental rock Weathering of parental rocks
Parent/al magma	Parent/al magma	Water-rich parent magma X-rich parent magma
	Parental components	
Parent element	Parent element	
	Parentage	Common/ diverse parentage

Lexical collocates further illustrate the meaning of the metaphorical use of PARENT as they occur in scientific communication, that is, origin or source of the resulting rocks and minerals. Regarding the use of DAUGHTER in this corpus, its frequency (104 hits) almost doubles that of PARENT (55).

TABLE 3. COMPARISON OF LEXICAL AND CORPUS STUDY RESULTS FOR DAUGHTER

Results from dictionaries	Results from corpus	Lexical collocations
Daughter element(s)	Daughter element(s)	Parent-daughter elements
Daughter products	Daughter products	
	Daughter mineral(s)	X-bearing daughter mineral(s) Common daughter mineral Individual daughter mineral Daughter mineral identification
	Daughter crystal(s)	X-bearing daughter crystal(s) Daughter crystal identification
	Daughter mineral assemblage(s)	

Most lexical and grammatical collocations relate to the mineral identification of the components of the "daughter elements", as in hits 63 (rare-earth-bearing daughter minerals), 81 (uranium-bearing crystal), and 82 and 90 (REE-bearing crystals). We have also found several other grammatical colligations, which have been left out of this paper for space limitations.

5. Conclusions

This paper has shown the complementarity of the lexical and the corpus analysis methods following the discussion of PARENT and DAUGHTER conceptualisations in Geoscience. For linguists, the lexical identification and analysis of metaphorical lexical items in scientific discourse may be a difficult endeavour unless key specific words have been previously identified. General language and specific dictionaries provide language specialists with the information about scientific terms that professionals from other special fields acquire along their academic and professional life, which linguists may not command. By the use of a principled corpus, metaphorical expressions are extracted and their meaning analysed in their co-textual environment and their contextual use within any branch of science.

Although the manual analysis of metaphorical terms in dictionaries had confirmed the presence of the 'family' schema in Geology and Mineralogy, the search for the corresponding lexical units by the corpus-based method has rendered new results, and a number of related metaphorical collocations that would have been very difficult to unveil otherwise. Furthermore, as teachers of English for Science and Technology (EST), these methodologies combined help us to comprehend and to teach lexical items in their typical syntactic and semantic contexts. Analysing collocations aids to determine which expressions are usually selected together by the competent speaker of English, thus providing EST students with authentic language input.

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Conceptual metaphors in Discourse Analysis. Metaphorical representations of Polish migrants in the British press

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Abstract
This study focuses on the discourse of migration in the media, specifically on the metaphorical representation of the Polish migrants in the British press in the context of the 2004 post-European enlargement when the number of Polish migrants started to attract media attention. The study is based on the combined framework of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff and Johnson 1980; 1987; 1989, Kövecses 2002) and Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough 1992, 1995, Fairclough – Wodak in Van Dijk 1997, Van Dijk 1997). It was particularly interesting to investigate to what extent the metaphors were negative or positive in comparison with the conventional, usually unfavourable, depiction of migrants in general through metaphors in the media, as for instance in the studies of Charteris – Black (2006), Santa Ana (1999) or Musolff (2004). A corpus of articles published between 2006-2008 was compiled from both broadsheets and tabloids and underwent a qualitative and quantitative analysis. The metaphors in this particular work were organised according to source domains with water metaphors proving to be the most productive ones, followed by animal metaphors, commodity metaphors, burden, army, plant, building and love metaphors, all of which were analysed and discussed in detail. The results of this work gave rise to a longer research project, currently in progress, on the subject of metaphors in the depiction of migration and migrants in the English language press – a question that remains valid especially nowadays, when the concept of migration crisis is prevalent in the press.

Keywords: metaphor; discourse analysis; migration; migrants; media; British press; European Union; globalisation

1. Introduction

Since May 1, 2004, when ten countries, also referred to as A10 countries, signed the accession act allowing them to join the EU and work there legally, the interest in migration, especially labour migration from populous Poland, has grown in strength generating increased media coverage.

The aim of the study was to investigate to what extent the metaphors of this 'new' migration and the migrants were positive or negative in comparison with the conventional, usually negatively loaded depiction of migrants through metaphors in the media as shown in the studies of Santa Ana (1999), Charteris – Black (2006) or Musolff (2004). From Critical Discourse Analysis perspective (Fairclough 1992, 1995, Fairclough & Wodak in Van Dijk 1997, Van Dijk 1997), which looks at the connection between language and the power of the media, it was also interesting to investigate what impact the language used had on the society, i.e. the newcomers and the host country's perception of them. Although previous research has demonstrated that metaphors in the representation of migrants have predominantly negative undertones leading to a negative social perception of migrants, this study argues that whether they have positive or negative polarity may depend on both the social and political context and the type of migration and migrants (labour migrants, refugees, asylum seekers, etc.). In the metaphorical representations for the period analysed, i.e. the years following Poland's EU accession (2006-2008), the research showed that the metaphorical description of Polish migrants had, overall, rather positive polarity.

This paper focuses on both tabloids and quality papers. The results of it coincide with a study, however not a detailed linguistic one, presented by the Polish Institute of Public Affairs (Fomina & Frelak, 2008) on the public perception of Polish labour migration in the British press. This convergence emphasises the fact that conceptual metaphors are, indeed, a powerful cognitive mechanism, which may reveal a finer-grained descriptions in discourse analysis.

2. Conceptual Metaphors in Discourse

Conceptual Metaphor Theory has proved to be crucial in language analysis as it is claimed to assist in revealing the ways human mind operates, how it perceives the elements of the surrounding world, which are reflected in the use of language.

Metaphor in Conceptual Metaphor Theory is defined as "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 5). For instance, the expression *I've never <u>won</u> an argument with him* is an instance of metaphor argument is war (Lakoff & Johnson. 1980, p. 4). It can be understood in terms of two domains, namely, the source domain and the target domain (Lee, 2001, p. 5). The source domain is a concrete domain (war), the one through which more abstract concept (argument) is comprehended. People tend to talk about arguments in terms of war, i.e., winning or losing arguments, interlocutors being opponents, etc. These correspondences are called mappings. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), three types of metaphor can be distinguished, i.e. structural metaphors like argument is war, orientation metaphors, focusing on spatial orientation, e.g. *I'm feeling up today* (happy is up, unhappy is down), and ontological metaphors, like *He <u>fell into</u> depression* (emotional state is a container), which have their roots in human bodily experience and view events, ideas, emotions in terms of entities and substances.

Following Charteris – Black (2006, p. 3) the role of the metaphor seems to be of a great importance as far as migration is concerned as it reflects "the range of conflicting representations in public discourse".

3. Metaphors of Polish migrants and migration. Results

The objectives of the study were to investigate how Polish migration and Polish migrants were conceptualised through metaphors in the British tabloid and quality press in the years following the EU accession (2006-2008) and whether they had positive or negative polarity. The study is based on the combined framework of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff & Johnson 1980; 1987; 1989, Kövecses 2002) and Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough 1992, 1995, Fairclough & Wodak in Van Dijk 1997, Van Dijk 1997).

A corpus of articles from the British national quality newspapers such as *The Economist, The Guardian, The Irish Independent, The Observer, and BBC news* website and tabloids (*The Daily Mail, The Daily Mirror, The Daily Express*) was compiled and underwent a qualitative and quantitative analysis.

With this criteria – qualitative and quantitative analysis – the metaphors are grouped according to the frequency of occurrence and source domains. This relation shows interesting results which are presented in Figure 1.

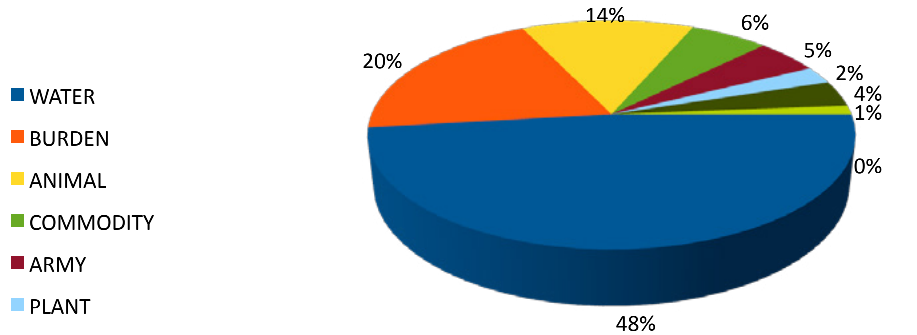

Figure 1. Distribution of metaphors in corpus

As it can be observed, water metaphors proved to be the most productive ones with 48.15%, followed by burden metaphors (19.75%) and animal metaphors (13.58%). Due to the fact that the instances of commodity (6.17%), army (4.94%), building (3.70%), plant (2.47%) and love (1.23%) metaphors were scarce, they were included in *Other metaphors* section at the end of the article.

In this paper, only the most representative examples of each metaphor category will be presented. Each main category contains subcategories, which will be shown in the corresponding tables for the main categories in each section.

3.1. WATER metaphors

Water is a common source domain in the conceptualisation of migration in discourse. Movements of people in the era of trans-nationalism and globalisation are complex phenomena which are more comprehensible when constructed through a more familiar concept driven from every-day experience. All of the metaphors gathered in this section stem from one dominant metaphor, i.e., migra tion is w ater (fl ow).

But if more Europeans knew the truth about the benefits of the current wave of immigration, such political precautions would not be necessary. (The Economist, 22 November 2007)

What can be implied is that migrants, being an inseparable part of the process of migration, are conceptualised in terms of water, too. Thus, the metaphor migrant s are w ater emerges.

The massive influx of foreigners, especially from Eastern European, has had a major impact on jobs, health, housing and the economy. (The Daily Mirror, 18 October 2007)

The following are the subcategories of wat er metaphor category.

TABLE 1. WATER METAPHOR SUBCATEGORIES

Subcategory	Example	%
Migrants are dangerous waters	The rapid influx of immigrants is placing a great pressure on health services. (The Daily Mail, 18 October 2007)	6.17
Migrants are waters being absorbed	With the tabloids horror-struck that Britain has absorbed 400,000 immigrants, Heather Stewart argues they have had a largely positive impact (...) (The Observer, 27 August 2006)	6.17
Migrants are water in a container/ metonymy: container for the thing contained	Employers fear that when more old EU members open their labour markets (...) the well of cheap, cheerful workers for Britain will dry up. (The Economist, 13 December 2006)	3.7
Economic and political changes are changes causing floods	There have been three waves of Polish migration to Britain since the second world war: (...) and now new EU immigrants. (The Guardian, 20 May 2006)	3.7

In sum, the dominant metaphor migrant s are water appears to be a migrant-affirming metaphor. Migrants being the main highlighted aspect of the metaphor are conceptualised as a valuable liquid. It has to be pointed out that in a number of cases when *influx* of migrants was characterised as the cause of *pressures* (migrant s are danger ous water s) the negative aspects of the metaphor were highlighted. Here, it can be observed that they overlap with burden metaphors. The fuzziness of the boundaries of these two metaphor categories will be explained in the following section.

3.2. BURDEN metaphors

Santa Ana (1999: 205) claims that migrant s are a burden is a metonym of the metaphor nation is body. Charteris-Black (2006: 1) on the other hand, interpret Britain as a container and conceptualise migrants as fluids exerting *pressure* on the container. burden metaphors are predominantly negative. They also overlap with migrant s are danger ous water s metaphor, in which the migrants exert *pressure* on social institutions, *strain* them and emphasise the problems the migrants cause rather than focus on the contribution to the host country. This category, together with the migrant s are water one, is the most frequently occurring metaphor (see Table 2) both in tabloids and in broadsheets.

TABLE 2. BURDEN METAPHOR SUBCATEGORIES

Subcategory	Example	%
Migrants are a burden	"If you get a sudden <u>influx not only will it strain or even break</u> the resources of the school, it will also change the culture of that school." (The Daily Mail, 26 Novemeber 2007)	19.04

Interestingly, overwhelming majority of this metaphor realised through lexemes such as *influx, waves, deluge, pouring, flooding, strain, pressures* or *stretching* was found in tabloid press rather than in broadsheets.

3.3. ANIMAL metaphors

Source domain including animals is also one of the most frequent domains partaking in the conceptualisation of humans. It originates from the existence of, as Lakoff and Turner (1989: 171) call it, the Great Chain of Being, which is a hierarchy of concepts in the world "structured from the top to the bottom" (as quoted in Kövecses, 2002, p. 97). It is claimed that the Great Chain of Being becomes a metaphorical system when one level of the chain is understood in terms of another level. The highest in the hierarchy, at least in the Jewish-Christian tradition, is God, then humans, animals, plants, complex objects and natural physical things respectively.

Migrant s are animals is the main category in animals metaphors section. It is identified by the verb *flock*, in numerous fragments, one of them demonstrated by the example below:

She might also have added the Poles, for <u>they have flocked to the Highlands</u> since May 2004 (...). (The Economist, 13 December 2007)

Other subcategories of the main metaphor category are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3. ANIMAL METAPHOR SUBCATEGORIES

Subcategory	Example	%
Cheap polish migrants are rare animals	The Polish plumber may be a <u>rarer breed</u> in future. (The Guardian, 21 October 2007)	1.23
Mobility patterns of the polish migrants are animal behavious patterns	Demographers identify two kinds of migrant - <u>the "hamsters"</u> who curl up and stay in their adopted country, and <u>the "storks"</u> who go abroad seasonally but eventually <u>fly home</u>. (The Guardian, 21 July 2006)	1.23

The conceptualisation of migrants as animals is noticeable in the collected articles. However, as it frequently happens in the US discourse, the language found in the British press articles is not as aggressive as, for instance, in the American *Los Angeles Times* (Santa Ana 1999), in which the metaphors were overtly negatively loaded. For the Polish immigrant community in Britain and Ireland those metaphors are not overtly derogatory, nevertheless, they still keep them lower than humans in the hierarchy of concepts represented in the Great Chain of Being.

3.4. Other metaphors

In the following section all the other metaphors were gathered, i.e. commodities , army, building, plant and l ove metaphors, with corresponding examples:

TABLE 5. OTHER METAPHORS		
Subcategory	**Example**	**%**
polish migrants arriving in britain are cargo delivered to britain	(...), but five times a week a coach load of Polish people make the journey (...). (BBC news, 15 December 2006)	6.17
Migrants are army	(...) he can understand why some of his colleagues speak badly of the Polish invasion. (The Guardian, 21 July 2006).	4.94
Polish migrants are pillars supporting scottish economy	"Businesses would have collapsed without the Poles," (...) (The Economist, 13 December 2006)	3.7
Polish community in britain is a plant	(...) immigrants are putting down roots in the UK, with many parents giving their children English names (...) (The Daily Mail, 2 December 2006)	2.47
british employers and polish workers are partners in a relationship	(...) recruitment firms report no cooling-off in the love affair between employers in the British Isles and the many skilled and motivated workers (...) (The Irish Independent, 14 May 2006)	1.23

4. Conclusions

The metaphorical construction of the Polish migrants which emerges from the linguistic analysis of the British newspapers for the period analysed (2006-2008) has predominantly positive polarity. Thus, it can be claimed that metaphors used in the depiction of migrants do not always tend to have overt, negative polarity. Notwithstanding, it has to be taken into account that it depends on the social and political context and the type of migration that comes into play. In the case of Polish labour migration after the EU accession, it was mainly the topos of usefulness that mitigated the negative metaphors that were found.

Newspapers such as *The Economist, The Guardian, The Observer*, which are considered to be independent and rather liberal, were preoccupied mainly with the economic contribution and problems caused by the newcomers. The following examples show that even negative metaphors were not overtly derogatory. They were frequently balanced by positive context or opinions, e.g. *absorbing* migrants having *a largely positive impact (The Observer, 27 August 2006)* and by positive predication like *cheap, cheerful workers (The Economist, 13 December 2006).* Consequently, in the majority of cases, the overall tone of a given article was relatively neutral. Nevertheless, it has to be remembered that according to the Great Chain of Being, the migrants were still kept at a lower than human level, i.e. animals, commodities, water (mass not individuals). In this respect, the metaphors found shared the characteristics of the conventional, well-entrenched ones used by the press. The same can be said about tabloids. Overwhelming majority of the instances found were the overlapping migrant s are danger ous water s and migrant s are a burden metaphors, however, they too, were mitigated by rather positive contexts.

Regarding language and power relations and an opinion-forming power of the media (Fairclough 1992, 1995, Fairclough & Wodak in Van Dijk 1997, Van Dijk 1997), it can be claimed that the picture of the Polish migrants presented by the British press is rather balanced, emphasising the ambiguous attitude of the British to the issue of migration in general. Standing in line with Fomina & Frelak (2008), it can also be said that the media admit that the Polish migration is appreciated but just as any mass migration it may threaten some aspects of the British life.

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A corpus-based approach to the pragmatics of –ly adverbs in history texts

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Abstract
This paper explores authorial stance as expressed by the use of diverse -ly adverbs in the *Corpus of History English Texts* (CHET), one of the subcorpora of the Coruña Corpus. There seems to be widespread agreement that adverbials stand as one of the grammatical categories that most clearly contribute to the expression of interpersonal meanings (Hoye, 1997; Biber and Finegan, 1988). The adverbs, object of this study, have been referred to as certainty adverbs (Aijmer, 2008; Koutsantoni, 2004), epistemic stance adverbs (Conrad and Biber, 1999) evidential modal adverbs (Alonso-Almeida, 2012; Simon-Vandenbergen and Aijmer, 2007) and boosters (Hyland, 2000). I will describe their use by eighteenth and nineteenth century writers of history texts in order to characterize them in terms of authorial presence. I will show that, depending on the context, they may fulfill several pragmatic functions. Some of these are indicating different degrees of authorial commitment or detachment towards the information presented, persuasion or politeness, among others. The paper is structured as follows: first section offers a description of the Corpus of History English Texts. After that, I present the theoretical framework of stance and also comment on earlier literature on adverbials. Then, I analyse the findings and comment on some relevant examples to illustrate how some -ly adverbs work in the corpus. Finally, the conclusions derived from this study are offered. Regarding methodology, I have used the *Coruña Corpus Tool* for quantification and text retrieval. Afterwards, manual analyses have been performed as well in order to check stance adverbs' functions in context. This tool simplifies the research to be done and the use of this tool combined with manual analysis is useful to obtain more accurate results.

Keywords: pragmatics; corpus linguistics; scientific register; adverbs; Modern English

1. Introduction

The present paper is a contribution to the study of pragmatics from a historical dimension. My intention is to describe the use and functions of adverbs ending in *–ly* in the *Corpus of History English Texts* (henceforth CHET), a subcorpus of the *Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing* (henceforth CC). CC comprises excerpts taken from technical and scientific texts in a time dimension of two centuries, i.e. 1700-1900. This corpus complements in many ways other historical corpora in the domain of the scientific register, e.g. *Middle English Medical Texts* (MEMT) and *Early Modern English Medical Texts* (EMEMT). My survey of *–ly* dialects is carried out within the context of corpus linguistics methodology, as I shall explain below, in order to retrieve and excerpt relevant data for analysis and categorization. The structure of the paper is as follows. First, I offer the theoretical framework for the analysis of the adverbs found in CHET; therefore, the concepts of stance and modality along with a definition of the adverb category are presented. In the next section, I describe the corpus and the method of inquiry. Subsequently, the discussion of findings is given, and this section is followed by the conclusions drawn from the present study.

2. Adverbs and stancetaking

Adverbs can be considered as a quite heterogeneous grammatical category, and this aspect contributes to the difficulty in providing a clear definition of the category. Van der Auwera (1998), Haspelmath (2001) and Eisenberg (2013), among others, have made explicit reference to this heterogeneity, and they consider the grammatical category of adverbs:

- as being the "most problematic major word class" (Haspelmath, 2001, p. 16543),
- as being an "elusive" (1998, p. 3) part of speech, and
- as being sometimes "confusing" (2013, p. 212).

This lack of conceptual unity and the absence of a clear definition of this grammatical category and of its scope have led to treatment of the adverb category as an umbrella term for many words which, apparently, do not fit in other grammatical categories.

This can be understood also due to the diverse morphological structures that adverbs present; the different positions they can occupy into any clause, and the various syntactic functions they can play. This situation concerning the misclassification of several words as adverbs has been already highlighted by some scholars (cf. Huddleston and Pullum, 2002). Thus, it is common to find some words which appear to be an adverb from a formal point of view. This is especially true when the adverb and the adjective share the same graphic form, e.g. *truly*.

Adverbs are used as stancetaking devices. Stance relates to the expression of the speakers and writers' "personal feelings, attitudes and value judgements, or assessments" (Biber et al., 1999, p.966). Some relevant works on the analysis of stance include Du Bois (2007) and Hyland and Tse (2005). Du Bois (2007, p. 163) refers to the "stance triangle" when analysing stancetaking in dialogic discourse. The author points out that any act of stancetaking comprises three elements, namely (i) evaluation, (ii) positioning and (iii) alignment, which means that whenever we take a stance, we evaluate a certain object, and, at the same time, we position ourselves in an evaluative dimension with respect to that object; and finally, we also align ourselves with others. In other words, the stance triangle proposed by Du Bois emphasizes the interactional nature of stancetaking as it necessarily involves specifying (i) where the stancetaker and the subject to whom the stancetaking is targeted stand in relation to the object being evaluated, and (ii) where the two subjects stand in relation to each other.

Biber et al. (1999) consider the term *stance* to be a superordinate, which covers not simply the senses speakers want to convey, but also the propositional content. The linguistic elements which can convey stance are numerous, but I only focus on adverbs in this paper. Biber et al. (1999) make a distinction between three main groups of adverbs: (i) circumstance adverbs, i.e. *here*, *now*; (ii) linking adverbs i.e. *nevertheless*, *moreover*, *additionally*; and (iii) stance adverbs, which are categorized as and defined, thus:

Epistemic stance adverbials and attitude stance adverbials both comment on the content of a proposition. Epistemic markers express the speaker's judgment about the certainty, reliability, and limitations of the proposition; they can also comment on the source of the information. Attitude stance adverbials convey the speaker's attitude or value judgment about the proposition's content.

Epistemic stance adverbials (Biber et al., 1999, p. 59-60) can entail a large number of meanings such as:

- Doubt and certainty, e.g. *perhaps, probably*.
- Actuality and reality, e.g. *actually, in fact, really*.
- Source of knowledge, e.g. *apparently, evidently, according to*.
- Limitation, e.g. *in most cases, typically, mainly*.
- Viewpoint or perspective, e.g. *in my opinion, from my perspective*.
- Imprecision, e.g. *kind of, roughly*.

Those stance adverbs can be used to indicate the authors' attitude and certainty towards their propositions. The adverbs object of the analysis carried out here fall within this category. Examples are *apparently*, *fairly* and *possibly*. The forms *fairly* and *possibly* indicate a low level of authorial commitment to text content by presenting information with doubts and hesitancy. On the other hand, adverbs such as *apparently* can be classified as perceptual evidential adverbs, as they indicate that the evidence the author has for the content he/she expresses has been obtained through the senses.

3. The corpus and the method

The Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing currently includes three subcorpora: the first subcorpus compiled was *The Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy* (CETA), the second one was *The Corpus of English Philosophy Texts* and *The Corpus of English History* is the third subcorpus, and it covers the late Modern English period. This last subcorpus is precisely the one I use for the purpose of this study. The first text in CHET dates back to 1704, and the last text in CHET dates back to 1895. New patterns of thought, and new methodological procedures based on observation started to be common practices after the seventeenth century, and all this is reflected in technical and scientific texts. As regards the genres represented in CHET, there are samples of articles, essays, lectures, textbooks and treatises written by both male and female authors. CHET includes ca. 400.000 words. Each of the texts compiled in this subcorpus covers around 10.000 words. The distribution of words per century is well balanced, 201,794 of the words compiled belong to the eighteenth century, and 202,823 belong to the nineteenth century.

My analysis of the texts has been done electronically by means of the *Coruña Corpus Tools*. I interrogate the corpus using the string *ly|ly* to obtain cases of adverbs ending in *–ly*, e.g. *amicably, beautifully, chiefly, impressively, legally, recently, sagaciously, unintentionally*. The examples retrieved from the corpus are organized according to the five broad adverbial groups: *circumstantial, stance, degree, focusing*, and *connective* (after Downing, 2015). In those cases where there is either graphemic or spelling variation, examples are conflated and counted together, as this variation has not proven distinctive from a semantic standpoint. Statistics are given in the form of raw material and percentages, as the present study does not seek to compare results from a gender or genre perspective.

4. Analysis and discussion of findings

The analysis of the corpus reveals 4237 cases of *–ly* adverbs, which I have grouped into Downing's big five adverb categories, as given in Table 1:

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTION OF –LY ADVERB CATEGORIES IN CHET; RAW NUMBERS.

circumstantial	stance	degree	focusing	connective
1727	991	617	764	138

Circumstantial adverbs comprise those forms expressing space, time, manner and domain. In other words, this group includes those adverbs indicating information concerning *where*, *when* and *how*. This group is characterized by its semantic heterogeneity, as pointed out in Aarts (2018, 44), and so it includes examples as varied as the following: *rarely, wonderfully* and *yearly*. CHET exhibits instances of this entire category, although forms are other than *–ly*. For this reason, the subcategory of *space* indicating *position, direction* and *distance* is not included in the present inventory of forms and discussion, as the analysis of data has not retrieved any single case showing *–ly*. Examples of this category are the following, indicating time, frequency, and duration:

(1) They agreed that the speaker should communicate the circumstance to a few members who might be confidentially entrusted: the result was, that committees were **immediately** sent by the assembly to many towns in the province, in a cautious, guarded manner, to require the stocks of powder on hand in their several magazines (hist 1805 Warren).

(2) Bad as the situation of the owners of the castle during their captivity appeared to be, it must be confessed it was in many respects far better than that of the town's people. The castle, being head-quarters, was **regularly** supplied with provisions, drawn from the plunder of the country; and the presence of the French officers, added to the large family always resident in it, left little room for intruders from the rebel army (hist 1800 Stock).

(3) The Generalife was a part of the town famous for its gardens, and as being the burial-place of the kings. The partisans of the two monarchs were **perpetually** skirmishing with each other, and much of the best blood in Grenada was shed in these unnatural combats, while the troops of Castile were ravaging the country up to the very gates (hist 1828 Callcott).

Stance adverbs are second in frequency in the texts collected in CHET after circumstantial adverbs. The subgroups of stance adverbs in this corpus are certainty/doubt, evidential, viewpoint, emphasis, judgement and attitude. Examples are the following:

(4) The treatise then goes on to explain **conjecturally** the etymological meanings of the word *Senchus* and afterwards the technical law terms used in the work (hist 1839 Petrie).

(5) They then moved for a *Cessation of Arms* but our Commissioners, having no power, replied, that if they went to *Boston* it might **probably** be granted (hist 1726 Penhallow).

(6) Everything that could **possibly** be spared was set on fire, and soon after the ten thousand Greeks proceeded on their retreat (hist 1857 Sewell).

Degree adverbs are used to indicate grading. In CHET, I have identified degree adverbs of comparison, intensification, attenuation, approximation and sufficiency, as in the examples below:

(7) Offers of peace were made, but they were rejected; for one of the points on which Lysander **mostly** insisted was, that the Long Walls, built by Themistocles, between Athens and Piræus, should be pulled down (hist 1857 Sewell).

(8) No appearance indicating vegetation, or the slightest variation of surface which can **fairly** be ascribed to change of season, can anywhere be discerned (hist Herschel, 1833).

(9) The motion was **slightly** objected to but carried without a division (hist 1802 Adolphus).

Focusing adverbs "are so called due to their association with another element in the clause, their focus, which is usually identified by means of prosodic prominence" (Cougil Álvarez, 2003, p. 301). In CHET, focusing adverbs of restriction are by far the most frequent. Examples of these adverbs in the corpus are *barely*, *exclusively*, *gradually*, *hardly*, *merely*, *nearly*, *only*, *partially*, *partly*, *scarcely*, *simply* and *singly*:

(10) It was the opinion of many, that Henry, by **barely** assuming the appearance of martial resolution, might have prevailed in supressing the whole vigour of the insurrections (hist 1775 Anderson).

(11) For in this Book, there's nothing has the least Tendency to Homage; **Only** there's a passing hint of a Rumor spread abroad by the Partisans of our Queen Mary (hist 1705 Anderson).

Connective adverbs ending in *–ly* in CHET are divided into sequence adverbs, conclusion adverbs and restating adverbs. Conclusion adverbs occur more often than the other two categories. Instances are given below:

(12) The enclosure was immediately commenced, and, in a few days, in its first design, completed. **Subsequently**, Madame de Bullion's endowment took the form of a stone building outside the pickets, which, as the Hotel Dieu, retained its identity to within the last twenty years (hist 1887 Kingsford).

(13) The ball passed into the cieling, where the mark of it is still apparent. **Lastly**, it was quite unsuitable to the spirit of these rustic warriors to keep their firelocks idle till they should come in sight of an enemy, when there were so many inferior animals on which they might be tried (hist 1800 Stock).

(14) The character of Nevers was too well known to permit a doubt respecting the reality of this menace. **Consequently**, the *cortége* defiled without obstacle; and Nevers, bitterly mortified, but only the more confirmed in his allegiance to Henri IV., quitted Rome, and passing through Ferrara and Florence, repaired to Venice (hist 1860 Freer).

5. Analysis and discussion of findings

The analysis has revealed that circumstantial adverbs appear more frequently than any other category in CHET. The presence of this type of adjuncts is explained in the descriptive nature of history texts, in which richness of details are essential to vividly develop historical events, thus facilitating understanding. Stance and focusing adverbs together almost equal the number of circumstantial adverbs in this corpus. The use of these classes of adverbs pursues perspectivization of knowledge either by signaling specific attitudes and opinions, or by guiding the inferential processes by forcing particular readings of the texts through, for example, focusing adverbs. Some of these adverbs may be considered as disjuncts, as they do not seem to substantially modify either the meaning of the proposition or the event described. Degree adverbs seem also to indicate certain interpretations of the text. Intensification degree adverbs, for instance, are used either to downtone or to reinforce particular events or propositions.

Connective adverbs ending in *–ly* are by far the least frequent type attested in CHET, and sequence, conclusion, restating and reason adverbs in this broad category have been identified. The main function of these adverbs is to guide the understanding of the texts by indicating the logical connections in the form of conjuncts between ideas in the argumentative process or in the description of events. As happens with the majority of adverbs in *–ly*, the main intention for hedging claims seems to lie at the core of the use of these adverbials in order to avoid future academic criticism; either through cognitive elaboration of meaning through a more accurate inspection of evidences, or, perhaps, through the availability of new material that may contradict current data.

Acknowledgements

This paper is written within the framework of research grant FFI2016-75599-P, Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad (MINECO).

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De la automatización de la traducción y otros asuntos

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Abstract
Los rápidos avances en la tecnologización de la actividad traductora a partir del desarrollo de herramientas TAO, de la traducción automática (TA) y de la inteligencia artificial (IA) son cada día más comunes. Estos elementos están, sin duda, propiciando una redefinición del concepto tradicional de "traducción" y del papel(es) del traductor. Y son, precisamente, los lenguajes especializados los que sirven de plataforma de ensayo en su desarrollo imparable. Detrás de todo ello participan traductores, lingüistas, ingenieros, terminólogos, neurólogos, diseñadores de páginas web, programadores, etc. Una lista interminable de profesionales cuyos límites de su actividad no están ya claros. Surgen así nuevos perfiles o adaptaciones de los ya existentes para cubrir las nuevas exigencias y necesidades de mercado. El objetivo de este artículo es analizar algunos de estos nuevos retos y sus consecuencias a partir de informes de expertos sobre el desarrollo de la TA y resultados de estudios de mercado.

Keywords: Traducción automática; inteligencia artificial; lenguajes especializados; estudios de mercado.

1. Introducción. La traducción en nuestras vidas

No podemos negar que la traducción forma parte de nuestra vida diaria. ¿Quién no ha utilizado *Google Translate* o algún traductor automático para saber de qué va un texto en otra lengua? Las posibilidades son cada vez más infinitas y el número de datos que obtenemos también.

Una muestra de la importancia de la traducción hoy en día son precisamente las datos que *Google* mismo nos da al realizar una búsqueda rápida de palabras clave como: "Translation", "Machine translation", "Terminology" o sus correspondientes palabras en español: "Traducción" "Traducción automática", "Terminología" como se ve en los datos que sigue: "Translation": 1.480.000.000 entradas, "Machine Translation": 15.100.000; "Specialised translation": 1.260.000; "Terminology": 15.800.000 o en español "Traducción": 26.200.000; "Traducción Automática": 2.170.000; "Traducción especializada": 700.000; "Terminología": 22.500.000; "Terminología y traducción": 852.000. Estas cifras nos dan una idea de la cantidad de materia disponible en Internet.

Y ¿qué une la traducción con los lenguajes específicos? Sin duda mucho, puesto que éstos son el alimento de la traducción especializada, campo en el que se está produciendo la mayor automatización de la traducción.

Si realizamos esa misma búsqueda en Google, los datos son significativamente menores. Así “English for Specific Purposes” da un resultado de 185.000 entradas; “Language for specific purposes” da 884.000; y en español, “Lenguas para fines específicos” da 533.000 y “Terminología y lenguajes específicos”, 60.400 lo cual es comprensible. Ahora bien, si realizamos esta misma búsqueda en los congresos o publicaciones de la asociación AELFE o de la revista *Ibérica* llama la atención el escaso número de estudios que incluyen el término “traducción” como palabra clave o que tratan específicamente de la traducción.

Una de las razones hay que buscarla, sin duda, en el pasado y su uso excesivo en la enseñanza de lenguas hasta bien entrado el siglo XX para luego caer en duras críticas y finalmente su destierro de las aulas con la llegada del método comunicativo allá por 1980.

Sin embargo, como muchos investigadores coinciden en señalar (Carreres 2006; Malmkjaer 1998; Popovic 2001), las reiteradas críticas a las que está sujeto este uso de la traducción se refieren no tanto a la traducción en general sino más bien al método específico de gramática y traducción utilizado.

Ahora bien, una vez hecha la distinción entre el método de gramática y traducción y la enseñanza de la traducción- junto a determinadas críticas hacia el uso exclusivo de método comunicativo, se va observando una creciente actitud positiva hacia la aplicación didáctica de la traducción en las últimas décadas. Autores como Duff (1998), Johnson y Johnson (1998) o Caballero (2009) entre otros, han defendido y defienden la necesidad de reevaluar el valor pedagógico de la traducción en el contexto de la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras o de lenguajes específicos.

2. De la automatización de la traducción

Más allá de la docencia, la traducción ha seguido evolucionando desde aquellos primeros ordenadores personales de 1980, la llegada de internet en la década de 1990 o de los buscadores como *Altavista* y *Google* hacia 1999. Parecía que los investigadores ya no tendríamos que visitar las bibliotecas. Y desde entonces no dejan de surgir herramientas aplicadas a la traducción: gestores de terminología como *Wordfisher*; programas de reconocimiento de voz como *Dragón*; herramientas para la traducción asistida por ordenador (TAO) como *Wordfast, Trados, Deja VU, MemoQ* o *Interbank* o numerosos traductores automáticos. *Google Translator* es uno de los más utilizado, sin duda, incluso por traductores profesionales para consultas breves o puntuales como manifestaban los traductores de la Dirección General de Traducción de la Comisión Europea en su encuentro con los alumnos de la red de Másteres Europeos de Traducción. Ya en el siglo XXI, se intensifica el discurso sobre la inteligencia artificial (IA).

En definitiva, estamos rodeados de traducción y de aparatos que invitan o que producen traducción. Y van evolucionando de modo que conviven distintos tipos de herramientas TAO con traductores automáticos que se sirven de ingentes cantidades de datos (los famosos *big data).*

La automatización de la traducción - como de otras muchas actividades realizadas hace unos años por los humanos – es un hecho más que real. En este punto podemos señalar brevemente cuatro tipos de traducción automática que, aunque desarrolladas de forma cronológica, en realidad conviven:

1. Traducción automática basada en información lingüística (tasa de reglas).
2. Traducción estadística
3. Traducción automática basada en redes neuronales
4. Traducción automática híbrida

Actualmente podría decirse que conviven principalmente tres tipos TA en el mercado: la que utiliza información lingüística (comúnmente denominada como TA basada en reglas (o RBMT por sus siglas en inglés: *Rule Based Machine Translation*), la estadística (o SMT por sus siglas en inglés: *Statistical Machine Translation*) y la basada en redes neuronales (o NMT por sus siglas en inglés: *Neural Machine Translation*). Según Parra (2018), a estos tres paradigmas principales habría que sumar otras iniciativas con menor proyección, como la propuesta por investigadores de la Universidad de Gotemburgo (Suecia) basada en el concepto de interlingua y llamada *Grammatical Framework*. El cuarto paradigma se refiere a una combinación de varios.

Dado el espacio limitado disponible, dedicaré las siguientes líneas a la última aparición en la familia de los paradigmas de TA que es la de los motores basados en redes neuronales en 2014 (Bahdanau, Cho y Bengio 2014, Cho et al. 2014). Son muchos los centros de investigación que ya cuentan con acceso a supercomputadores donde entrenar este tipo de motores de TA.

Los sistemas basados en redes neuronales necesitan enormes corpus paralelos para su entrenamiento, mayores que en el caso de la TA estadística. Como su nombre indica, estas redes pretenden emular la manera en la que funcionan las neuronas en nuestro cerebro. Parra (2018) lo explica de modo sencillo: “Del mismo modo en que nuestras neuronas reciben información y realizan conexiones entre sí, los componentes del lenguaje se asocian con otra información subyacente para formar asociaciones y generar traducciones”.

Y Parra continua: “Así, utilizando técnicas de aprendizaje automático, el ordenador aprende a traducir a partir de grandes cantidades de textos paralelos que además incluyen todo tipo de información lingüística y no lingüística”.

Su potencial es tal que ya se están entrenando motores que, además de textos, incorporan imágenes o incluso archivos multimedia con resultados muy prometedores (Calixto et al. 2017).

Para entender este desarrollo tan rápido basta con que prestemos atención a las noticias que aparecieron allá por septiembre de 2017 en *El País* con el título: "La tecnología que puede sustituir a los idiomas". Y siguieron otras noticias en la prensa: parece que la TA por fin superaba o igualaba ya a la traducción humana. Ya no había distancia entre la traducción humana y la TA. Básicamente venían a decir que una máquina era capaz de producir una traducción con la misma calidad que un traductor profesional. Y siguen apareciendo nuevas aplicaciones para móviles o materiales que nos indican que ya no es necesario aprender idiomas o que podemos hacer llamadas de video gratuitas para perfeccionar el conocimiento de la lengua extranjera o traducir desde el móvil.

Se intensifica así el gran debate sobre la inteligencia artificial. Traducción humana *versus* traducción automática. Ahora bien, según los expertos (Quiñones et al. 2018), hoy por hoy es todavía una utopía. Acciones como entrenar estos motores, alimentarlos, analizar los posibles errores que cometen, etc. están, sin duda, llevando a nuevos nichos de trabajo, nuevos perfiles y nuevas profesiones: ingenieros de la computación, analistas de datos, programadores, traductores, lingüistas, etc.

3. De la TA y estudios de mercado

Son varios los estudios de mercado llevados a cabo tanto por empresas de traducción como por las instituciones encargadas de la formación de los futuros profesionales que así lo demuestran (EUATC 2017, *Common Sense Advisory* 2017, Krause 2017, Valero Garcés 2017, Toudic & Valero 2014).

Los resultados de estos estudios indican que se buscan especialistas en lenguajes específicos y en campos específicos y también para realizar tareas específicas porque estos motores de traducción automática necesitan ser alimentados con mega datos de todo tipo: glosarios, reglas gramaticales, textos de todo tipo, etc. y hay que estar continuamente alimentando sus memorias: cuantos más datos, más fiable.

En definitiva, no se busca al traductor tradicional en el sentido del profesional que trasladar un texto de una lengua a otra. Se busca a un profesional al que se le exigen una serie de competencias generales junto a otras específicas y entre las que van ocupando un papel cada vez más relevante el uso de herramientas TAO y de actividades relacionadas con la traducción automática como puede ser la posedición o la localización.

Y en este sentido es interesante resaltar que en los planes de estudio de las universidades dedicadas a formar a traductores cada vez ocupa más espacio todo lo que tiene que ver con la automatización de la traducción en detrimento de la formación lingüística.

Fuera de la especialización lingüística no hay que olvidar la cultura. Parece una paradoja el que en un mundo tan globalizado en el que el inglés pretende erigirse como *lingua franca*, y, sin duda, lo es en ámbitos especializados y en el desarrollo de la tecnología y la TA, sin embargo, sigue siendo cada vez más necesaria la acción de lingüistas y expertos en el uso y aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras y sobre todo en lenguas de menor difusión y sus culturas.

Los lingüistas o especialistas de las lenguas somos también necesarios, en *Facebook,* o en *Twiter*, o en la UE, institución que está ahora mismo entrenando sus propios motores de traducción. La UE trabajan con lenguajes especializados, pero en sus relaciones también tratan con otras instituciones como el Tribunal de la Haya y con lenguas y temas como casos de genocidio en países africanos.

4. A modo de resumen

Para concluir: La traducción automática está aquí…. y es para quedarse y los especialistas del lenguaje siguen siendo pieza clave en su desarrollo.

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Subtitling slang from the LGBTQ culture into Spanish: the case of *Ru Paul's Drag Race* reality show

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Abstract
The main objectives of the work enforced the need of deserved recognition of and respect for the LGBTQ culture, the illustration and relevance of the queer slang in disciplines as philology. It was important to affirm the existence of a vocabulary bank and phraseology in the LGBTQ speech by introducing the concepts of the lavender lexicon together with a brief mention to extinct Polari language and to the black gay slang. In order to enhance the particularity of this (sub) language, it was relevant to stress the different handicaps found in a process of translation when dealing with gay language and the importance of their culture (in this case within Ru Paul's Drag Race Show). To this effect, not only the aforementioned theoretical framework was established, but also a data collection of real speech samples were analyzed. We could see how Netflix's translators showed solidarity with the gay community since they had the stablished equivalent in most cases. Thus, we discovered that there was a tendency to the domestication of the text. Nevertheless, there were also some cases of foreignization due to cultural gaps. Although there were not many, that lead us to the conclusion that gay slang is present in current times and must be considered a specialized language.

Keywords: queer; gay slang; audiovisual translation; linguistic variation; translation techniques; translation strategies.

1. Friends of Dorothy: the Q in Question

The term Queer alludes to sexual and gender identities which are not heterosexual or cisgender. It was originally used to refer to something strange being pejorative against same-sex desires in the late 19th century. As well as other marginalized by modern society, as the black lesbian woman, Queer has been defined as a subaltern identity-in-differential which is set apart from both the ideal and the elite, as mentioned by Spivak (1988, p. 28a). Other authors also refer to this social group with contempt as "the stigmatized people who, through various means, must contend with a spoiled identity" (Goffman, 1963, p. 263), or, more recently as "a unity [...] of shared dissent from the dominant organization of sex and gender, composed of lesbian, gay, and other lifestyles whose icons are heavily associated by cultural outsiders with the culture of gay life, politics and practices" (Whittle, 1994, p. 27). The Queer Theory comes like a wrecking ball towards the walls established by social roles and what is sexually accepted. Thus, being different is taken as a category of analysis to denounce the abuses that arise from science, run by the Christian heterosexual white men.

Moreover, and making reference to our analysis, Queers also integrate the drags. As we can see in the documentary *Paris is burning* (1990), being a drag queen is more than a show or a lifestyle, it is a culture that runs in the blood. The term would come from the English word 'drag' and refers to the long skirts and dresses worn by male actors who disguised themselves as women. In England, actors in Shakespearean plays, and Elizabethan theatre in general, were all male; female parts were played by young men in drag. Especially from the second half of the 20th century, these groups have won more recognition in cabarets and theatres: while a high drag (a professional drag) is the most commonly image of them, drag is also part of regular life and street culture for many gender-variants (and they do not consider themselves doing drag). We particularly chose this identity as being the one which clearly illustrates gay slang freely and the nucleus of potential (extra) linguistic information.

1.1. Language variation: Lavender language or language of the closet, the Polari and black gay slang

Linguistic variation (LV from now onwards) can be defined, in words from the precursor of the study of linguistic change, Labov (2004), as the evolution of the language because of its relation with society and its variables. Kiesling (2012) affirms that this variation happens at different levels: phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactic, pragmatic, and suprasegmental.

On the one hand, LV can be classified in user-related variations including diachronic variation and diatopic, diastratic and idiolectal variations which lead to dialects, sociolects and idiolects respectively. On the other hand, there are use-related or diaphasic variations consisting of three dimensions: field, mode and tenor (together with functional and interpersonal tenor). We considered gay slang a sociolect/idiolect since it is the watermark of a (not so small) community which by far depends on the individual and different factors (temporal, geographical and social). Of course, each and every member contributes to make this language richer, hindering the translation process. These variations often intermingle, reason why we can study gay language as a specialized language since, despite not being used in formal contexts, it is proper of a group one may not belong to. Because of that, as with legal jargon, speech accommodation may or may not take place. This study is focused on the diastratical/idiolectal variation and the diaphasical, from the perspective of the tenor considering idiomatic expressions, puns, form of address among gay people and taboo and swear words.

The concept of *Lavender linguistics* (and lavender lexicon) comes from the association of the colour lavender with the LGBTQ culture. Linguistically, it refers to specific speech patterns and pronunciation, the use of certain vocabulary or even an alternative/proper intelligible lexicon such as the case of the extinct Polari, defined as a mix of Romance (Italian or Mediterranean Lingua Franca), Romani, London slang, sailor and thieves' slang. Homosexuals used it to disguise their activities to strangers (including police). The Polari began to decline at the end of the 1960s due to the popularity of the radio show *Round the Horne*, featured by two queeny characters, Jules and Sand who declared themselves homosexuals and freely using Polari, made that this language became not so secret.

Lavender linguistics or *language of the closet*, was born with William Leap (1999), who has been openly gay since he became a professor at American University in Washington D.C. The following affirmation made by Leap is one of the most remarkable throughout time:

> We create or change identities in large part by speaking and by silence. Identities that are stigmatized, such as gay and lesbian identity, may have certain linguistic features associated with them. [...] Speaking the self may be the most powerful action in the creation of an identity, and gay and lesbian identities may illustrate this better than other mainstream identities. (Leap, 1999, p. 1)

William Leap even goes further by setting it as a language itself, rather than a jargon. This is a more than essential sentence for our work. The author explains that gay men look back to describe the "vast desert of nothing" felt when they were young. One of the experiences he recounted to justify this investigation is Wallace's (in Leap, 1999, p. 2), a gay white actor in his 30s, who grew up in the Washington, D.C.: "I spent my childhood listening to West Side Story and A Chorus Line. Those cast albums and movie musicals on TV were sort of secret messages from a world we didn't experience in our suburban, private school upbringing. That saved us".

Alexander Doty (1993) highlights the importance of the media nowadays so that gay adolescents can anticipate the linguistic skills (both of reception and of production) needed when being in gay contexts. Burgess (1949, p. 234) assured: "homosexual world has its own language, incomprehensible to outsiders". This particular language has not only been the subject of study for linguists: the anthropologist Kenneth Read (1980, p. 2) also mentioned the existence of a homosexual secret language. Already in 1927, one psychiatrist asserted that "the clannishness of homosexuals has led to the development of special slang expressions among them" (Rosanoff 1927, cited in Katz, 1983, pp. 438–440).

1.2. Look it up in the dictionary: Felix Rodríguez Gonzalez's Spanish lesbian–gay dictionary

A language is fully integrated and optimally working when having a vocabulary bank and a code of linguistic norms based on morphosyntax. In the case of gay slang, we cannot find such a written code but its relevance in fields like sociolinguistics or pragmatics as any other (sub) language, apart from the standard, is undeniable. In order to build the skeleton of this language, Rodríguez Gonzalez set a Spanish lesbian-gay dictionary which was published in 2008 with the aim to show specialists and public alike a lexicon in great part overlooked in the studies of lexicography.

1.3. YASS QUEEN! A brief mention to black queer slang

When we called into question the sexual identities in "1. Friends of Dorothy: the Q in Question", we discovered that the acronym LGBTQ involves more than one identity that must not be intermingled with another as all are different. The way each of them speaks presents even more differences. Women and the queers are two of the most affected in literature, considered as inferior (not to say the black lesbian woman). Koch sustains (2008, p. 7): "the deviant speakers are not women per se, but all speakers who are in some way disenfranchised from institutionalized male power". We have recently discovered many articles where people from the black group claimed that it has been a notable appropriation of their slang and culture (hair, fashion, music) from the whites. Once you state that something has been copied, you admit that it has existed for a long time. In the words of Durwood (2016, para. 2):

> [...] Because the internet has such a heavy influence on the pop culture slang of the moment, it has encouraged a tradition of pulling phrases or expressions into the limelight without acknowledging from whence they came. This happens to black culture, it happens to gay culture, honestly, it happens to all kinds of minority cultures. There's even an ongoing debate between black female and white gay culture clocking each other over who said what first, though I would argue queer people of color are statistically more likely to be cast out by society than either of the other two groups, so maybe everyone is right.

Nevertheless we are not going to debate whether it is appropriate for non-black people to use expressions from the black (gay) community. We will focus on translator's ethics when translating their language, but it is worth giving credit where credit is due.

2. Reading down the house: Translation of the variety in Netflix's Ru Paul's Drag Race

2.1. R.E.S.P.E.C.T: ethics and morality

In case of translators, as producers of language, they have the ethical responsibility when wording to be semantically accurate in relation to the source text as the result has an impact on how the target audience perceives the person whose statement has been translated (and the community she or he belongs to). We analyzed the possible features that attracted our attention when reading the subtitles or those that, otherwise, had been ignored in the translation. Of course, we took for granted that there was not any homophobic attitude from Netflix translators, but what we wanted to see is whether (American) English (black) gay community received a faithful equivalent in TL (with the meaning of the domestication of the text) or even if there was any case of censorship or euphemisms. Although it is not necessary to be gay to translate/watch this series, we can say that, although solved, the translator found difficult ethical issues when dealing with gay language. We made a comparative study visualizing four subtitled chapters (and a little mix of all seasons) from the Ru Paul's Drag Race reality show. 189 relevant samples from the speech of the contestants were taken and contrasted to their translation to discover the strategies and techniques used. The results and the information gathered let us answer the following hypothesis.

2.2. Answering hypothesis

1. **Do Netflix's translators tend to domestication or foreignization when dealing with LGBTQ language?**
   After this exhaustive study, we could affirm that Netflix translators mainly opted for the domestication strategy which makes it easier for Spanish audience to understand the series. Only 14 of the 189 samples were examples of foreignization. We could see from these 14 samples, calque was the preferred technique (5/14), followed by literal translation (4/14) and borrowing (3/14). Only one case of transposition and other of adaptation was found. The difficulty of the translation of these examples is based on cultural issues and not having an equivalent in Spanish, reason why some of the puns are not so effective in the target language.

TABLE 1. SOME OF THE MOST DIFFICULT TRANSLATIONS

Nº	Language sample	Translation	Strategy	Technique
51	Shakesqueer	Shakesmarica	Foreignization	Calque (the joke is not so effective in the target language)
66	But the cookie doesn't always crumble that way.	Las galletas tienden a romperse	Foreignization	Transposition/Modulation (We would have better preferred las cosas no siempre salen como queremos)
70	Coming to America	El Príncipe de Zamunda	Domestication	Adaptation (it is an original film starring Eddie Murphy; both titles are known in EE.UU and in Spain)
99	Mutton dressed as lamb	Vestida de oveja para ir de corderito	Foreignization	Literal translation (that expression does not sound natural in Spanish)

   We focused on idiomatic expressions but it is also important to mention that we saw some references to celebrities, trademarks or even films which do not have equivalence in Spanish, so translators opted to use the original, except the number 70 in the present chart (opting for adaptation). We noticed that, in other seasons, translators did not change the name of Liza Minnelli or Cher to, for example, Monica Naranjo who could have been a similar reference. Instead, they left the original and the information remained clear.

2. **Do Netflix's translators maintain style and register of the source text?**
   Of course yes. Translators opted for established equivalent, discursive creation and adaptation strategies, so the mood and uniqueness of the source text was kept in the target text. Humour is maintained so that there is not a significant loss of meaning in the translation process.

3. **How different is the language of the queers from the straights'?**
   They are like two different worlds. Many viewers of both languages agree that it is sometimes difficult to understand what the contestants are saying. Here we offer an example: Your pussy is once a month Boniva → Tener la menstruación.

Nevertheless, we saw that translators found the equivalent in Spanish gay language for the strangest/ most unknown expressions. The fact that domestication is the most used strategy proves the effort from Netflix's translators to adjust the translation.

4. **Is there any special feature which could hinder the process of translating?**
   If the translator does not know about gay culture, some of the expressions (and their equivalent) are hard to understand. It would have had happened the same with black/white (hetero) slang or other varieties which are from a culture different from theirs. However, something we have found is that although many expressions were not easy to translate/understand, there are some properly gay expressions which are being used (appropriated) by straights, something that could facilitate the recognition of the message not only by translators but also by the audience. We do not mean that appropriation of a culture is acceptable but that the power of media diffusion (see 1.1) which could be increased with the help of education, could solve the possible handicaps found in other series/situations.

5. **Is there any case of censorship?**
   We found little examples of censorship however, they are not exactly what we understand by censorship in the strict meaning of this word. Netflix's translators opted for euphemization rather than a complete omission (no beep sounded neither in the episodes nor it was reflected in the subtitles). Taking into consideration Fuente's Luque classification of the techniques used when dealing with taboo and swear words, we saw examples such as *bitch* translated as *pava* (instead of *puta* or *zorra*) which are not as severe as a complete omission of the word/expression but just a preference to soften. Moreover, the change of genre in pronouns from masculine to feminine when two men were talking to each other, has been respected. In spite of the fact that English does not have a genre variation in adjectives as we have in Spanish, Netflix's Spanish translators showed solidarity for the drag community by using the feminine adjectives and pronouns instead of the masculine ones.

3. Conclusions

The methodology based on a theoretical background together with a data and collection analysis, brought to the forefront the particularities of the gay language and how different it is from other language systems, not to say when comparing/translating (American) English (black) gay language into Spanish. Indeed, only 4 episodes (and a mix of all seasons) were sufficient to compile a rich vocabulary bank. Apart from the linguistic aspects, we have found how translators show support and solidarity to the gay identity. Of course there are some factors that hinder the translation but those may appear in any other specialized language. Throughout this research, we found a great number of works focused on this topic which is absolutely relevant in branches such as philology although we did not find much in Spanish. However, we discovered (Spanish) dictionaries which give a solid base for the language so that it does not go unnoticed. I wish my professional colleagues also gave their bit to the field so that LGBTQ group felt even more supported by the academic field.

4. Acknowledgements

Thanks to my tutor Ana Ibáñez who did not hesitate to support my idea of including gay language in the branch of philology and the impact it could have on the academic world in general. We cannot forget the LGBTQ community, who are the real warriors in a world that is still incomprehensible sometimes. I would like to mention the victims of the shooting in *Pulse Gay Nightclub* in Orlando (Florida), it being the deadliest incident of violence against LGBTQ people in U.S. history, (and the deadliest terrorist attack in the U.S. since the September 11 attacks in 2001).

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Panorama de la asignatura de Traducción chino-español en la fase de Grado en Filología Hispánica en China

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Resumen
A medida que avanza el proceso de la globalización, China participa cada vez más en los asuntos internacionales y se ha convertido en el país con mayor índice de crecimiento y potencia integral en vías de desarrollo. Por lo tanto, surge una mayor demanda de traductores profesionales, sobre todo con los países hispanohablantes. El grado en Filología Hispánica constituye el conducto principal de formar a los traductores cualificados chino-español. La asignatura de traducción chino-español forma una parte de este programa. Este trabajo consiste en facilitar la comprensión sobre el panorama de la dicha asignatura y llevarnos a reflexionar acerca de la didáctica de la traducción chino-español en China.

Palabras clave: Traducción chino-español; Formación en traducción; Didáctica de español.

1. Introducción

Los intercambios entre China y los países de habla española han producido una enorme demanda de los traductores profesionales chino-español. La curiosidad del aprendizaje del español en China también está aumentando. En cuanto a la formación de la traducción chino-español, cabe destacar la asignatura de traducción chino-español del grado en Filología Hispánica en China, que es la vía principal.

En comparación con otros idiomas extranjeros, tanto la enseñanza del español como la de la traducción chino-español se encuentran en un periodo inicial. Es relativamente un campo virgen en el que queda más espacio que explotar comparado con el inglés, por ejemplo. Para concretar, en China ya hay programas del grado en traducción chino-inglés, mientras que en el caso de chino-español, no existe un programa específico dedicado a este ámbito. El grado en Filología Hispánica sirve como un programa primordial a fin de suministrar a los profesionales de traducción chino-español. No es difícil darnos cuenta de que la asignatura de traducción chino-español desempeña un papel importante.

No se puede negar un fenómeno: la mayoría del profesorado y del alumnado chino, en general, no presta mucha atención a la asignatura de traducción chino-español a pesar de ser una asignatura obligatoria. No ocupa un puesto correspondiente a su importancia. Normalmente está al margen si la comparamos con el curso intensivo de español, que consiste en una asignatura "principal" para los alumnos chinos.

Personalmente he trabajado como profesora de español en la Facultad de Español, Italiano y Portugués de la Universidad de Estudios Extranjeros de Hebei en China, de junio de 2014 a julio de 2016. En el dicho periodo, impartí la asignatura de español intensivo y de traducción español-chino a los alumnos del grado en Filología Hispánica de segundo, tercer y cuarto curso. Tomando como referencia las experiencias laborales como profesora universitaria y traductora e intérprete de chino-español, me gustaría profundizar las investigaciones vinculadas con este tema.

Este trabajo está basado en los frutos científicos de los hispanistas tanto extranjeros como chinos, quienes han contribuido a las investigaciones de este campo. Al mismo tiempo, se llevó a cabo una serie de cuestionarios en línea al alumnado de tercer, cuarto curso y los graduados de 2017 de la Facultad de Español, Italiano y Portugués de la Universidad de Estudios Extranjeros de Hebei, y entrevistas a una profesora, que ha participado en la asignatura de traducción chino-español en dicha institución. Estas actividades se realizaron entre abril y mayo de 2017 y se ofrece una perspectiva práctica para todos los que quieran dedicarse a la reforma de la asignatura de traducción chino-español.

2. Referentes históricos del desarrollo del grado en Filología Hispánica en China

Después de la fundación de la República Popular China en 1949, el gobierno chino empezó a restaurar la educación superior e iba estableciendo las relaciones diplomáticas con varios países por todo el mundo. El Congreso de Paz de la Región de Asia y el Pacífico en Beijing en 1952 surgió la necesidad urgente de los traductores chino-español, ya que 11 países latinoamericanos participantes contaban con la lengua oficial-español. Teniendo en cuenta el procedimiento del congreso y el desarrollo futuro a largo plazo de China, el gobierno central concedió el mandato de la enseñanza de español en la hoy conocida Universidad de Estudios Extranjeros de Beijing. Con el establecimiento de la Filología Hispánica en China, la enseñanza de español, hasta ahora, se divide en cuatro fases primordiales en base de la formulación realizada por dos grandes hispanistas en la materia, Inmaculada (2012) y Lu (2014):

Fase inicial (1952-1959)

En 1953 se empezaron a impartir las asignaturas de la Carrera de Filología Hispánica en la Universidad de Estudios Extranjeros de Beijing. En 1954 se estableció el curso oficial de español en la hoy conocida como Universidad de Negocios y Economías Internacionales a fin de satisfacer la demanda del desarrollo económico entre China y los países de Latinoamérica. Con el propósito de cumplir con la urgente necesidad de traductores en las relaciones internacionales, empezaron a aparecer la asignatura de traducción de alto nivel de español en la Universidad de Estudios Extranjeros de Beijing.

Desarrollo próspero a corto plazo (1960-1979)

El establecimiento de relaciones diplomáticas entre China y Cuba y la fundación de la Asociación de Amistad Sino-Latinoamericana en 1960 estimularon el proceso de la docencia de español en el ámbito universitario. Se creó la carrera universitaria de Filología Hispánica en la Universidad de Estudios Internacionales de Shanghái, la Universidad de Pekín, la Universidad Normal de Capital, la Universidad de Lenguas y Culturas de Pekín, la Universidad de Estudios Internacionales de Pekín, la Universidad de Nanjing, la Universidad de Estudios Internacionales de Xi´an y la Universidad de Estudios Internacionales de Sichuan. Con la llegada de la Gran Revolución Cultural en 1966, se paralizaron todos los sectores de la educación superior en China. Pero cabe destacar que desde 1972 en la Universidad de Estudios Extranjeros de Beijing ya se comenzó el trabajo de recopilación del *Nuevo Diccionario Español-Chino*.

Época recesiva y recuperativa (1980-1992)

Gracias a la Reforma y Apertura al Exterior en 1978 por parte del gobierno chino, el desarrollo socioeconómico chino empezó a avanzar cada vez más. Sin embargo, a principios de este periodo, se enfocaron en las relaciones con los países de habla inglesa. Entonces hubo una recesión de la docencia de español en China e incluso una gran cantidad de profesores de español dejaron la enseñanza y se dedicaron a otras especialidades o al comercio. Sin embargo, los profesores universitarios emprendieron investigaciones laboriosas, para concretar: en 1985 se publicó *El Español* por parte de The Commercial Press y fue elaborado por Dong Yansheng. Este manual es un libro de suma importancia para los alumnos chinos, puesto que lo emplearon durante la carrera de Filología Hispánica. Unos años después, el autor lo modificó y cambió el nombre a *Español Moderno*, que fue publicado por la Editorial Enseñanza e Investigación de Lenguas Extranjeras entre los años 1999 y 2007 en diferentes tomos.

Periodo floreciente (a partir del siglo XXI)

La enseñanza de español seguía una velocidad gradual durante 1997 y 2007. Los alumnos graduados de la Filología Hispánica son capaces de conseguir un buen trabajo en comparación con los de otras carreras. Por ello, después de la selectividad china, una gran cantidad de alumnos chinos optaron por esta carrera. En 1999 había 12 universidades chinas en las que se impartía la carrera de Filología Hispánica y los alumnos matriculados eran 500. Ahora casi 70 universidades ya cuentan con esta carrera y el número del alumnado ha alcanzado aproximadamente 10,000 (Zheng, 2015).

3. La asignatura de traducción chino-español del grado en Filología Hispánica en China

Primero, en cuanto al profesorado, la mayoría ha realizado los estudios del máster relacionado con el español, pero faltan profesores capacitados y con rica experiencia, especialmente aquellos con la formación profesional de la traducción. En algunas universidades chinas solo hay algunos profesores mayores con experiencia docente de español, que se encargan de la asignatura de traducción chino-español.

Segundo, al hablar del plan curricular de la asignatura de traducción chino-español, faltan horas de clases. Según el programa de enseñanza del Ministerio de

Educación y *el Plan de estudios de enseñanza del español* elaborado por el Subcomité del Español del Comité Directivo de Enseñanza de Lenguas Extranjeras de Escuelas, cada Universidad establece su propio plan de enseñanza por su cuenta. Pueden tener algunos cambios en cuanto al diseño del plan de estudios de las asignaturas relacionadas, sobre todo en cuanto a la asignatura de traducción del español, pero la mayoría de ellos se concentran en el primer o el segundo cuatrimestre del tercer año académico; incluso algunos ofertan las asignaturas de traducción en el primer cuatrimestre del cuarto año. Las diferencias se atribuyen a que los alumnos han finalizado diferentes asignaturas relacionadas con español antes de llevar a cabo la traducción.

Respecto a los manuales de la docencia de esta asignatura, hay una gran variedad de libros relacionados, pero los especializados en este tema todavía no se han desarrollado muy bien. Para ejemplificar, *Curso de Traducción del Español al Chino (segunda versión)*. Este libro de traducción también tiene una versión más antigua, que se publicó en octubre de 2005, mientras que la que se utiliza actualmente, en septiembre de 2011. Diseñado para los estudiantes universitarios, se considera como un manual práctico para asignaturas de traducción, aunque también se puede utilizar como un libro de referencia para cualquier lector en general. Comparado con la primera edición, la nueva dispone de contenidos más novedosos como: más variedades de ejercicios y, una combinación de teoría y práctica. Se trata de un libro esencial en la asignatura de traducción, ya que integra más frutos de las investigaciones extranjeras, explica el estándar, las estrategias y la metodología de la traducción. Destaca la practicidad del contenido de enseñanza y el hecho de que los estudiantes puedan gozar de diversos tipos de la traducción.

4. Cuestionarios y encuestas realizados en la Universidad de Estudios Extranjeros de Hebei

Esta serie de cuestionario y encuestas se realizaron en 2017. Los cuestionarios al alumnado se dividen en dos grupos: por un lado, los estudiantes de tercer y cuarto curso del grado en Filología Hispánica, ya que empiezan la asignatura de traducción chino-español; por otro, los graduados de 2016, puesto que eran los primeros licenciados de esta Universidad.

La mayoría del alumnado dispone de un nivel del español B1-B2, de acuerdo con el Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas. Antes de empezar con el curso de traducción español-chino, ya han realizado algunas asignaturas, tales como Español Básico, Audio-Visual de Español Básico, etc. y, por lo tanto, ya cuentan con una base de conocimientos lingüísticos a fin de seguir con más eficiencia la asignatura de traducción. El alumnado cuestionado representa diferentes niveles de español en el grupo, y se puede afirmar que las encuestas pueden reflejar de manera comprensiva la situación real de las opiniones del alumnado de Filología Hispánica; y los estudiantes graduados en 2016 cuentan con un nivel del español B2-C1, cuyo trabajo se vincula mayoritariamente con el español en diferentes ámbitos, tales como comercio exterior, educación, agencias de viaje, etc.

El primer cuestionario se enfoca, en una primera parte, en obtener los datos principales y básicos de los alumnos que han cursado la asignatura de la traducción. La segunda parte hace hincapié en la asignatura de traducción español-chino. En general las encuestas muestran las ideas y opiniones del alumnado de la acción formativa.

El segundo cuestionario trata concretamente los criterios de la traducción entre el español y el chino utilizados por los estudiantes cuestionados. Consta de diez preguntas en total, que nos han permitido conocer ideas propias del alumnado con el propósito de perfeccionar la pedagogía del español y así poder orientarnos en la direccionalidad de la enseñanza futura.

El cuestionario de los alumnos egresados de 2016 sirve para averiguar la situación actual de los graduados. En general, los datos revelan que un gran número de los graduados del año pasado se dedican al trabajo vinculado con el español, aunque no se puede negar que en cada carrera pasa lo mismo: algunos graduados no pueden encontrar un trabajo correspondiente a su especialidad.

Tras analizar las informaciones extraídas de los cuestionarios y las encuestas, hemos encontrado que existe una insuficiencia de horas lectivas en la asignatura. Es común la baja utilización de materiales de enseñanza de la traducción y no hay muchos manuales específicos de traducción chino-español. La escasez del profesorado de traducción es evidente en sentido general. Los estudiantes de Filología Hispánica carecen de prácticas correspondientes de traducción. Hay que abandonar la idea antigua de "aprender bien la lengua significa aprender la traducción".

5. Conclusiones

Todavía existen varios problemas y obstáculos que quedan por mejorar la asignatura de traducción chino-español. Por lo tanto, se proponen unas medidas: modificar el plan de estudios para añadir más horas lectivas; animar al profesorado a elaborar materiales adecuados y ayudarles a realizar formación especializada para el profesorado; es necesario orientar a los estudiantes a involucrarse más en las prácticas de traducción; adaptar el contenido de la asignatura para tratar varios temas; cultivar la conciencia sobre los códigos éticos por parte de los alumnos.

Es un trabajo tentativo y queda abierto para ser discutido y mejorado. Espero sinceramente que esta investigación haga cierta contribución a las reflexiones y las reformas de la asignatura de traducción chino-español.

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Society is currently affected by two phenomena. New technologies are one of them; the other one is the globalization era, which brings a real and urgent need for cooperation between nations and societies in various fields. These phenomena present us with a new culture that implies the presence of new ways to observe and understand the world; likewise, it offers new modes and communication systems of universal significance and brings out new values. Education realises this and, consequently, there are now new training needs, with up to date technological tools technological tools that encourage effective training free of barriers and full of accomplishments.

This book attempts to provide a global view of the latest research and findings on different aspects of the Language for Specific Purposes, thus justifying the importance of innovation and research in the globalization era. Collection of articles cover five main areas, beginning with production of written texts; next, they mention resources for language learning; analyse ESP in specific fields such as medicine or law; touch upon pragmatics and lexis and finally, discuss translation.

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