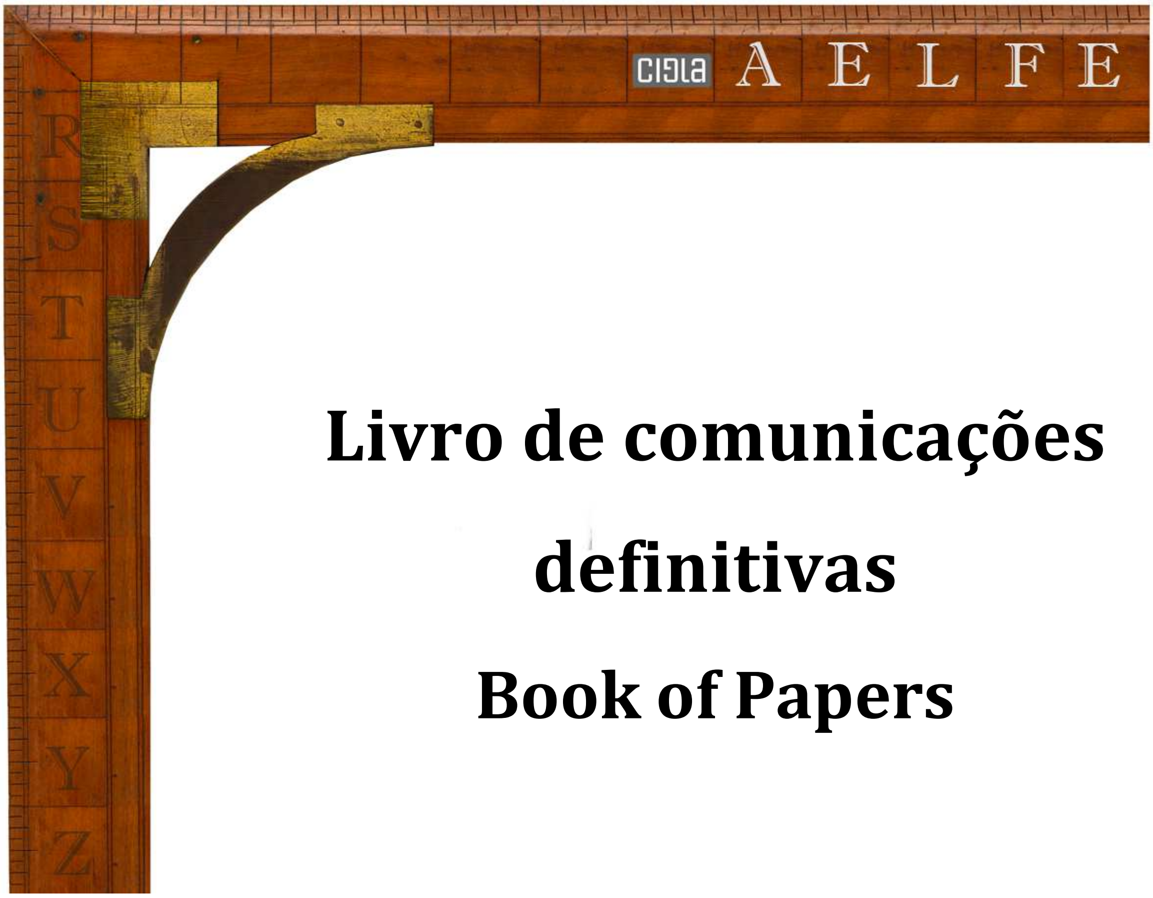

Livro de comunicações definitivas

Book of Papers

XI Congresso Internacional da AELFE

O papel das línguas aplicadas no cenário pós-Bolonha: fomento da autonomia e mobilidade num mundo globalizado?

Vila do Conde

Setembro, 2012

Eds

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1. Introdução

A organização do XI Congresso Internacional da AELFE foi levada a cabo pela Escola Superior de Engenharia Industrial e de Gestão, que teve a honra e o prazer de ser a anfitriã de especialistas nas áreas das Línguas Aplicadas às Ciências e às Tecnologias, provenientes de várias instituições, nacionais e estrangeiras.

Este Congresso realizou-se nos dias 20 a 22 de Setembro de 2012, contou com a participação de docentes-investigadores dos seguintes países: Alemanha, Bélgica, Checoslováquia, Colômbia, Espanha, Polónia, Portugal e Roménia. Constituiu, também, um renovado e simultâneo momento de debate e de reflexão sobre o ensino das línguas para fins específicos, depois de mais de 10 anos da era pós Bolonha, com todas as mudanças que essa reestruturação implicou para o Ensino Superior. Incidiu nos mais diversos aspectos relacionados com o ensino e aprendizagem de línguas em cursos científicos e tecnológicos, tendo sido uma mais-valia na valorização profissional e no enriquecimento do saber dos participantes. Assim o testemunham as *Actas* que constituem este *e-book*.

Os textos que constituem as Actas do XI Congresso Internacional da AELFE estão organizados em seis áreas e, dentro destas, por ordem alfabética do apelido do seu autor. Nos casos em que se tornou difícil definir a área para enquadramento da comunicação, tentámos inseri-la naquela que nos pareceu ser a mais aproximada.

As presentes *Actas* estão, pois, organizadas em:

1 - Análise do Discurso;
2 – Terminologia e Lexicografia;
3 – Tradução;
4 – Tecnologias da Informação e da Comunicação;
5 – Didáctica e Aquisição das Línguas;
6 – Linguística Cognitiva e Línguas para fins Específicos.

O XI Congresso Internacional da AELFE decorreu num ambiente de franco e caloroso convívio. Foi um momento de celebração do 20º aniversário da fundação da AELFE.

Daí fazer todo o sentido trazer, de novo, à ribalta os fundadores do Congresso Luso-Espanhol de Línguas Aplicadas às Ciências e às Tecnologias. Sem a sua inestimável contribuição nunca se poderia ter chegado ao patamar de internacionalização que a AELFE representa nos nossos dias.

De igual modo fizeram novas amizades, reforçaram-se as antigas, sem nunca subestimar o elevado profissionalismo e seriedade académica que sempre pautam este encontro anual que tanto contribui para a nossa valorização científica.

Antes de darmos por encerrada esta breve apresentação, gostaríamos de deixar uma palavra de agradecimento a todos os participantes, pela forma como possibilitaram e potenciaram, uma vez mais, o sucesso deste acontecimento:

- à Dra. Mónica Oliveira, pela extraordinária coordenação dos alunos do curso de Gestão e Administração Hoteleira que organizaram todo o secretariado e *catering* deste evento;
- Aos autarcas dos pelouros da Cultura das Câmaras Municipais de Vila do Conde e da Póvoa de Varzim que deram o seu inestimável apoio e trouxeram o bem-fazer com demonstrações de artesanato local;
- Às Profs. Doutoras Margaret Mcginity e Maria José Sá-Correia, Maria Kuteeva, Prof. Doutor Gomes da Torre e Eugénio Cortés respectivamente das Universidade da Extremadura, da Escola Superior de Educação de Viseu, do Instituto Superior de Contabilidade e Administração do Porto, Universidade de Estocolmo Faculdade de Letras que aceitaram participar neste Congresso.

A Comissão Organizadora
Ivone Cardoso
Gisela Soares
Teresa Pataco
Mónica Oliveira

2. Índice

3. 1º painel: Análise de discurso

Eurrutia Cavero, Mercedes & Sánchez Hernández, Purificación (Universidad de Murcia, España)

LADEX project: analysis of the language of Public Administrations in the field of immigration.

Resumen

El proyecto LADEX (Lenguaje de la Administración Pública en el ámbito de la extranjería: estudio multilingüe e implicaciones culturales) intenta llenar el vacío existente entre los estudios filológicos que combinan la caracterización del lenguaje legal y las implicaciones sociales y culturales de la inmigración, desde una óptica multilingüística (inglés, italiano, francés y español).

Para satisfacer dicha demanda social y lingüística, esta investigación analiza los aspectos sociolingüísticos y las implicaciones culturales derivadas de los usos del léxico y la fraseología en los textos legales y administrativos en el campo de la inmigración. Nos centraremos en las tipologías discursivas con frecuencias de uso más altas así como en las estrategias retóricas que las caracteriza. Nuestro punto de partida será la compilación, etiquetado y anotación de un corpus multilingüe compilado a partir de una colección de documentos representativos utilizados en inmigración (ciudadanos europeos y procedentes de otros países), emitidos por las diferentes administraciones públicas e instituciones de España, Reino Unido, Francia e Italia, desde 2007 a 2011.

Los objetivos primordiales de este estudio son los siguientes:

1. La compilación y organización de documentos legales-administrativos para inmigrantes en todos los países involucrados en el estudio
2. Análisis contrastivo de todos los aspectos terminológicos, fraseológicos y discursivos que puedan ayudarnos a perfilar la identidad cultura de administrados e inmigrantes.
3. Estudio multilingüe del lenguaje legal-administrativo analizado en la tipología textual del corpus objeto de investigación
4. Caracterización contrastiva del usuaria extranjero e implicaciones culturales

El proyecto pretende contribuir a la definición del inmigrante en cada sociedad, y favorecer el debate sobre la solidaridad desde una perspectiva lingüística.

Palabras clave: Administración pública, lenguaje, inmigración

Introducción

El lenguaje **administrativo** es la lengua empleada por los órganos de la Administración del Estado tanto en sus relaciones internas como en su relación con los administrados. Por lo general dicho lenguaje se manifiesta de forma escrita, a través de variadísimos documentos como actas, anuncios, circulares, citaciones, convocatorias, disposiciones, estatutos, formularios, notificaciones, oficios y otras muchas modalidades. La frontera entre lenguaje jurídico y administrativo no está, en todos los casos, bien delimitada.

La idea vertebral de este proyecto de investigación estriba en la compilación y el estudio pormenorizado de un importante corpus textual multilingüe (español, italiano, francés e inglés) constituido por una selección de los documentos más representativos utilizados por las Administraciones Públicas, entre 2007 y 2011, para uso de los extranjeros que deban realizar gestiones administrativas en España, Italia, Francia e Inglaterra. Estableceremos un vínculo entre el fenómeno social y cultural que suponen las migraciones profundizando en aspectos sociolingüísticos e implicaciones culturales implícitos en el léxico y en la fraseología así como en las tipologías discursivas y estrategias retóricas que caracterizan los usos lingüísticos específicos.

Las migraciones internacionales se han convertido en un fenómeno característico del mundo en que vivimos que nos afecta particularmente como españoles y europeos. La incorporación de nuevos Estados a la UE y los crecientes flujos migratorios internacionales muestran cómo en un lapso de tiempo corto, de modo que apenas hemos tenido tiempo suficiente para asimilar el propio fenómeno, analizarlo, debatirlo, prepararnos y preparar para una convivencia diferente a la que los españoles estábamos acostumbrados hace décadas. El resultado es un panorama confuso, en el que conceptos y procesos se suman, se intercambian, se presuponen... unido a la sensación de necesidad de intervención política y social. El día a día vuelve a desbordar el estudio, la previsión y la planificación y de ahí la necesidad de conocer mejor esta nueva realidad para atender los nuevos retos que plantea en todos los órdenes. El avance hacia una política europea de inmigración requiere pues el desarrollo de un lenguaje común susceptible de aportar respuestas conjuntas a cuestiones que afectan a la mayoría de los países implicados.

Tras el análisis de los antecedentes sobre inmigración en las diferentes lenguas objeto de estudio hemos llegado a las siguientes conclusiones:

- A pesar de que las migraciones son un tema de candente actualidad, no hemos encontrado publicaciones que conjuguen la caracterización del lenguaje jurídico administrativo con este hecho cultural y social.
- Tampoco existen trabajos que determinen la posible inferencia/interferencia cultural en la redacción y recepción de documentos jurídico-administrativos emitidos por las administraciones de España, Inglaterra, Francia e Italia concebidos para el uso de inmigrantes.
- Ningún estudio de investigación existente, basado en corpus lingüísticos en las lenguas abordadas, contempla el lenguaje jurídico administrativo y su recepción por parte de los inmigrantes.
- No hemos registrado ninguna recopilación de documentos multilingües referidos a extranjería en la que se proceda a un análisis de los mismos desde un enfoque lingüístico y sociocultural contrastivo.

Por todo ello, constatamos la necesidad de colmar ese vacío existente mediante un análisis conjunto elaborado por especialistas en lengua inglesa, francesa, italiana y española (lenguas oficiales de los principales países de origen) en coordinación con expertos en la materia que contemple las posibles conexiones entre las diferentes disciplinas implicadas (sociología, lingüística y derecho) y su expresión lingüística (terminología, fraseología o estructuras morfosintáctica).

Objetivos generales

El trabajo del grupo de investigación pretende desarrollar tres líneas fundamentales de actuación:

- Compilación y sistematización, a través de un corpus multilingüe (español – italiano – francés – inglés), de los documentos de extranjería que conforman la burocracia a la que se enfrenta obligatoriamente todo inmigrante que desea regularizar su situación atendiendo a diferentes parámetros.

- Estudio taxonómico multilingüe del lenguaje jurídico-administrativo.

- Caracterización comparada del usuario extranjero e implicaciones culturales.

El fenómeno de la migración ha transformado la sociedad actual y en particular, el espacio europeo, donde la libre movilidad de la población de los países miembros de la Unión y el auspiciable respeto por los derechos humanos de las personas que buscan asilo dentro de sus confines, convive con la inquietud por la seguridad y con la necesidad práctica de poner límites a las fronteras externas. Ambos aspectos contrapuestos se han convertido en las últimas décadas en el centro de los esfuerzos político-administrativos de la UE. Así pues, dentro del lenguaje jurídico, el lenguaje administrativo más que ningún otro se ha visto obligado a mantener un difícil equilibrio entre esta duplicidad de intenciones: por un lado, las administraciones emiten textos que reflejan un gran esfuerzo integrador, a fin de garantizar los derechos de los inmigrantes; por otro, dichos escritos denotan la preocupación de los gobiernos de los distintos Estados por limitar y restringir la inmigración, con la consecuente estratificación de derechos civiles (Haddad 2003; Morris 2001), además de esconder posibles incoherencias ideológicas.

Objetivos específicos

1 Recopilar un corpus multilingüe de documentos destinados a extranjeros, emitidos por los correspondientes ministerios del interior y las administraciones públicas entre 2007 y 2011, para ciudadanos comunitarios y extracomunitarios.

2 Realizar un análisis taxonómico del corpus: primero en la singularidad de cada lengua estudiada; y posteriormente en comparación con el español, con el fin de obtener resultados extrapolables a la didáctica de cada lengua, a los estudios de traducción y en general para los profesionales de la comunicación.

3 Comparar la terminología de los distintos módulos para determinar rasgos lingüísticos microtextuales.

4 Analizar el corpus seleccionado desde una perspectiva pragmática comparada, estudiando las estrategias persuasivas y sus consecuencias funcionales.

5 Estudiar los contextos culturales implicados, con el fin de evaluar las diferencias o equivalencias observadas en cada lengua.

6 Inferir las posibles consecuencias jurídicas y/o sociales de las dificultades de interpretación administrativa con el apoyo de encuestas o testimonios.

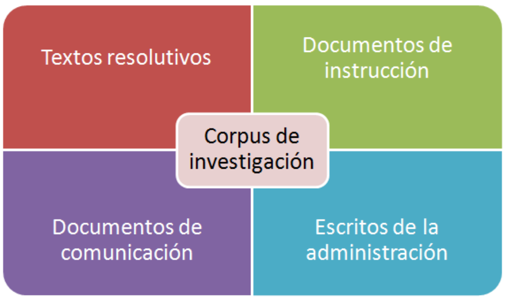
Metodología

En este apartado se abordan tanto las cuestiones de diseño metodológico general como su imbricación con la temporalización de los diferentes *work packages*, fases del trabajo, hitos y objetivos a conseguir. Hemos decidido adoptar un enfoque mixto que combina el análisis cuantitativo y el cualitativo. La metodología de recopilación y tratamiento de los datos estará basada en la experiencia previa en los proyectos "Estudio longitudinal y comparativo de la producción oral (*oralidad*) de aprendices de inglés como lengua extranjera a partir del análisis de un corpus lingüístico oral y mediante procedimientos de análisis multidimensional" (2004-07), "Extracción y búsqueda inteligente de patrones léxico-semánticos de textos oncológicos en inglés" (2001), ambos financiados por la Fundación Séneca (2001); "Sistema inteligente para la gestión flexible del conocimiento", proyecto PROFIT del Ministerio de Ciencia y Tecnología (2001), "System aided compilation and open distribution of European youth language" (2005-2008), y "Corpora for Content & Language Integrated Learning", ambos financiados por la Comisión Europa (2009-2010).

Para la recopilación de nuestro corpus de investigación, seguiremos las indicaciones de Reppen (2010) y Koester (2010), recogidas en *The Routledge Handbook of Corpus Linguistics.* En estos trabajos encontramos una revisión crítica y actualizada sobre los criterios y representatividad a considerar en el diseño del corpus de investigación.

La consulta de las obras especializadas en el campo publicadas dentro del marco legal español, a saber, Calvo Ramos (1980), MAE (1990), Aguirre & Hernando de Larramendi (1997), Álvarez (1997), Borja Albí (1998) y Alcaraz Varó & Hughes (2009) permitió la identificación de la tipología textual inicial a incluir en nuestro corpus. La mayoría de estos autores concluye que el lenguaje administrativo está compuesto por documentos resolutivos, documentos de instrucción, tanto de instancia interna como de constancia externa, documentos de comunicación y escritos de la administración:

Cada una de estas categorías incluye textos de diferente naturaleza que, además, en nuestro caso pueden variar al afrontar el análisis del lenguaje administrativo en cuatro culturas legales diferentes como la española, la francesa, la inglesa y la italiana, lo que añade una variable de análisis a nuestro trabajo de investigación:

Lenguaje administrativo español	**Lenguaje administrativo francés**
	
Lenguaje administrativo inglés	**Lenguaje administrativo italiano**
	

Dada la idiosincrasia de los diferentes sistemas legales y administrativos a considerar, esta primera fase de recopilación se dividirá en tres estadios:

En primer lugar, se procederá a la identificación de textos de naturaleza idiosincrásica, peculiares o únicos dentro del marco del sistema legal y administrativo correspondiente. En esta etapa se considerarán aspectos relacionados con la privacidad, la disponibilidad o la concesión de los permisos necesarios para poder acceder, digitalizar y utilizar los mencionados textos (Reppen, 2010). Por ello, la configuración de la tipología textual final estará mediatizada por aquellos textos que sea factible incluir en el corpus final. Los investigadores asociados en esta etapa aunque trabajarán de forma autónoma, lo harán en constante comunicación mediante la plataforma de comunicación digital MOODLE. En cuanto al tamaño del difiere notablemente según las investigaciones. En el caso particular del Inglés Jurídico encontramos estudios relacionados con el uso de corpus como el Cambridge Corpus of Legal English o el Corpus de US Constitutional Cases. En España, las iniciativas en este campo han empezado a aflorar en los últimos años. El GI The *European Parliamentary Comparable and Parallel Corpora* (ECPC) se marca como objetivo el análisis de corpus de discursos comparables; GENTT (*Textual Genres for Translation) Research Group)* ha desarrollado herramientas específicas para el estudio de corpus legales en el campo de la traducción y la interpretación. En general, no existe un corpus de referencia normativo para las lenguas y dominio de nuestro interés. Por lo tanto, siguiendo las observaciones de Koester (2010), el tamaño del corpus no debe estar mediatizado por concepciones apriorísticas basadas en los tamaños de corpus previos como el trabajo sobre registros profesionales del español (Parodi, 2010), donde no aparece el lenguaje jurídico o el administrativo, basado en un corpus de 64 millones de palabras. El diseño de nuestro corpus debe ser un instrumento útil en la representación de este lenguaje especializado en los contextos de uso relacionados con la inmigración donde se manifiesta la tipología textual descrita. Siempre que sea posible se recopilarán la totalidad de los documentos publicados en el período de tiempo establecido. Cuando las cuestiones éticas impongan algún tipo de restricción, sólo se recopilarán los documentos que se considere oportuno. Debido a su especificidad el tamaño de nuestro corpus estará determinado por la pertinencia de la tipología textual encontrada en el dominio de análisis, ya que el objetivo último de nuestra investigación no es, por ejemplo, el estudio lexicográfico (Koester, 2010: 66).

Dada la naturaleza sincrónica de nuestro trabajo, el corpus incluirá documentos pertenecientes a los años 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010 y 2011.

Se procederá posteriormente a la recopilación de los cuatro subcorpus nacionales procediendo en la siguiente etapa a su etiquetado morfológico (POS tagging). Para ello utilizaremos FreeLing. Al final de esta fase, los cuatros corpus digitalizados estarán listos para ser consultados desde una perspectiva morfológica.

Paralelamente a esta fase, el grupo de trabajo específico elaborará una propuesta de operatividad para el análisis de los constructos huella cultural/ideológica y caracterización del inmigrante. Esta operatividad se realizará en los niveles lingüístico y discursivo textual. Al final de esta etapa, los investigadores habrán identificado cómo los constructos objeto de nuestra investigación van a ser identificados, aislados y anotados. Para este proceso de anotación adaptaremos las herramientas *Backbone Annotator* y *Backbone CMT* a los constructos específicos a investigar. El desarrollo ulterior de dichas herramientas (*freeware* y *opensource*) aportará transferencia de conocimiento a nuestro equipo de trabajo.

La operatividad de los constructos huella cultural/ideológica y caracterización del inmigrante es una de las fases claves del proyecto. Para su correcta ejecución, se han diseñado diferentes estadios que implican la revisión y el análisis de trabajos similares en la literatura científica, el ajuste entre la propuesta de operatividad y los datos/corpus concretos recogidos hasta la fecha y, por último, la concreción final y explicitación del constructo a analizar.

El análisis y la anotación del corpus de investigación constituirán la siguiente fase de nuestro trabajo al final de la cual se habrán codificado rasgos léxicos, categorías gramaticales, eufemismos, lenguaje políticamente correcto, anfibologías, etc. determinando rasgos lingüísticos microtextuales de relevancia.
A continuación, procederemos al análisis de datos: extracción de los aspectos de mayor relevancia con la ayuda de la herramienta desarrollada *ad hoc*, análisis de los resultados de la extracción, primeras conclusiones sobre la interacción entre idiomas y tipos de texto, análisis cualitativo y cuantitativo de los resultados más significativos.

Al finalizar esta fase, habremos analizado los cuatro corpus desde una perspectiva pragmática comparada, estudiando sus consecuencias funcionales e incluyendo una discusión sobre los contextos socioculturales implicados, profundizando en la reflexión sobre las diferencias o equivalencias observadas en cada lengua, así como de las consecuencias jurídicas y/o sociales de las dificultades de interpretación administrativa. La sistematización de los datos obtenidos y la difusión de las conclusiones establecidas (dos artículos de investigación, tres comunicaciones en congresos internacionales y registro de la propiedad intelectual de las herramientas de anotación desarrolladas y difusión en *workshop* internacional) sobre la huella cultural del legislador o el técnico de la administración, según sea el caso en la tipología textual, y la presencia o caracterización cultural del inmigrante en el corpus de investigación, constituirán la última etapa de nuestro trabajo.

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The role of cultural values in business language teaching

Abstract

In the 21st century relevant social issues like the globalization process or the emergence of the European Union have paved the way to integrate the invisible dimensions of culture in business language teaching, that is, the identification of some basic social problems- cultural dimensions- affecting all societies equally but for which there are different answers- cultural orientations. This paper aims at studying the way in which the context cultural dimension (Hall, 1977/1976) influences on the discourse strategies of a professional genre like the sales letter in peninsular Spanish and British English. This cultural dimension examines the level of context that people, at the collective level of their respective cultures, use to communicate and convey meaning. A corpus of 50 Spanish sales letters written in Spanish and English coming from Spanish toy companies is chosen for the analysis. A qualitative analysis is carried out to examine if rhetorical strategies used in both languages should be the same or differ depending on the level of context that Spaniards and Britons use to commmunicate. The impact of cultural dimensions may offer students of business an approach to analyzing rhetorical choices they make in each professional genre of the international business context.

Keywords: intercultural communication, professional genre, discourse analysis, business language teaching

Introduction

Nowadays the globalization process, the emergence of the European Union and the convergence between member states encourage business language lecturers to integrate the invisible and hidden dimensions of culture in the business language teaching curriculum, that is, the awareness of basic social problems- cultural dimensions –affecting all societies in the same way but for which there are different answers –cultural orientations. In the post-Bologna scenario the study of cultural dimensions may offer students an important research tool to analyzing the rhetorical and discourse strategies they make in each intercultural business writing or oral situation in the international business context.

From an intercultural perspective the concept of culture has received too many definitions. This term was first defined as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habtis acquired by man as a member of society" (Tylor, E.. 1871: 1). Gibson (2000: 7) conceives this concept in "the sense of a shared system of attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviour". This term has also been defined as "the software of the mind or collective mental programming" (Hofstede, 1991: 4). These definitions refer to the way a particular group of people is trained from a very early age to internalise the behaviour and attitudes of the group.

These patterns of thinking that we have internalised since our childhood make up our cultural frame, which can be interpreted as "the perceptual lens through which an individual filters the information provided by our physical senses and comes to grips with the world" (Guillén, 2005: 99). In other words, our physical senses provide us with information, and we can make any meaningful sense of it "only by passing it through the selective filters derived from our cultural beliefs, attitudes and values embedded in our cultural frame" (Walker et al., 2003: 206).

The most relevant cultural dimensions studied by psychologists, anthropologists, sociologists and linguists interested in the field of intercultural communication are, on the one hand, *time* (the effect of time on cross-cultural communication), *space* (the effect of interpersonal space on cross-cultural communication) and *context* (the effect of contextual elements on cross-cultural communication). These three cultural dimensions were originally identified by the well-known North American anthropologist and pioneer in the studies of intercultural communication Edward T. Hall, in his seminal trilogy: *The Silent Language* (1973/1959), *The Hidden Dimension* (1969/1966) and *Beyond Culture* (1977/1976). The aforementioned anthropologist payed special attention to the effect of context in meaning. His research was mainly based on observations of interpersonal transactions across a wide variety of cultural interfaces that took account of how information was handled. According to Hall (1998: 61):

A high-context communication or message is one in which most of the information is already in the person, while very little is in the coded, explicit, transmitted part of the message. By contrast, a low-context communication is one in which the mass of information is vested in the explicit code.

Generally speaking, one can say that high-context speakers rely on the context rather than on words to convey meaning. On the contrary, low-context speakers pay more attention to the literal meaning of words rather than to the context sorrounding them. In relation to the countries under study, Spaniards have been found to operate moderately high on the context *continuum* (Walker et al., 2003: 130). As fairly high-context communicators, Spaniards observe their business interlocutors and do business with them not so much for what they say but for the good impression they give. Hence, they will rely on nonverbal, symbolic, and situational cues more than on spoken or written cues (Walker et al., 2003: 223). In contrast, as Britons are low-context communicators, they value in a greater scale written messages and detailed communication. In this way, they ask for and provide explicit confirmation of their understanding of interactions and situations (Lewis, 1996: 184).

The theoretical models of the cultural dimensions proposed by Hall as well as the ones identified by the renowned Dutch anthropologist and social psychologist Geert Hofstede (2001)1 have made it possible the opening of new lines of interdisciplinary research about the influence of culture on a wide range of specialized languages: (a) the influence of cultural values on the protocol and social etiquette in the international business arena (Salacuse, 1991; Leaptrott, 1996; Lewis, 1996; Jandt, 2001; Walker, et al. 2003; García, 2004; Guillén, 2007); (b) the impact of cultural values on written or oral business genres like negotiations (Guillén, 2006a; 2006b) or sales letters (Guillén, 2009a; 2009b); (c) the manifestation of cultural values in marketing and advertising messages in international negotiations (Mueller, 1992; Lin, 1993; Zandpour, et al. 1994; Zhang & Gelb, 1996; Grande, 2004; De Mooij, 2004); (d) the extent to which cultural values are reflected in the discourse of digital genres like business websites (Singh & Baack, 2004; Singh & Boughton, 2004; Singh & Matsuo, 2004; Singh, Zhao & Hu, 2003; Ivorra, 2009, 2011; 2012); and finally, (e) the importance of cultural values in the consumer behaviour (De Mooij, 2004).

The study we propose in this paper brings new insights to the research field of the influence of culture on communication since the impact of the cultural dimension of context on the rhetorical strategies of Spanish and English sales letters is analyzed.

Methodology

In this research we followed four methodological steps. Firstly, we reviewed previous literature on how the cultural dimension of context influences on the discourse and rhetorical strategies of professional genres coming from different countries. Secondly, a sample of 50 sales letters in Spanish and English was collected from 20 Spanish toy companies. Thirdly, a qualitative analysis was carried out to determine the type of discourse strategies that Spaniards use more frequently in their sales letters written in Spanish as well as those written in the English version to convey information about their companies and products. Fourthly, we analyzed whether there should be a correlation between the discourse strategies used and the level of context that Spaniards and Britons use to commmunicate in their daily life. Finally, we focused on analyzing whether the rhetorical strategies used by Spaniards in their English translation of sales letters could be considered appropriate to communicate effectively with the British, considering the low-context cultural orientation of the latter.

Objectives and Hypothesis

The aim of this research is threefold: (a) to analyze how Spaniards' moderately high-context cultural orientation influence on the discourse strategies used in their sales letters; (b) to examine if the discourse strategies used in English as a lingua franca by the Spanish are acceptable taking into account the low-context cultural orientation of Britons; (c) to determine what kind of rhetorical strategies could be effective to improve Spanish business correspondence in English, so that Spanish manufacturers can achieve intercultural competence in English.

After examining the different cultural orientations that Spanish and British speakers have towards the effect of context in meaning, according to the observational data obtained by Hall (1977/1976), we raised the following two hypothesis:

If Spaniards are considered as moderately high-context speakers while Britons tend to value a low-context communication, it was expected that: (a) the moderate high-context communication of Spaniards would influence the discourse and rhetorical patterns of their sales letters written in Spanish and (b) Spaniards' unawareness of the low-context cultural orientation of Britons would lead to the use of inappropriate discourse strategies in the latter's business correspondence in English.

Results and Discussion

After carrying out a qualitative analysis of the Spanish manufacturer's sales letters, we have selected from the corpus analyzed one sales letter written in Spanish as well as its translation into English 2. Example 1 shows an original draft of a sales letter in Spanish whereas example 2 reflects the translation into English. The author is a manager of a Spanish toy company. The letter is addressed to a British audience and its main aim is to sell Spanish toys in the British market:

Estimado señor o señora: X nace en 1977. En 1984 la iniciativa se fortaleció y comenzó a dar sus frutos. Poco a poco el pequeño taller artesano fue creciendo y ofreciendo cada vez más productos a sus clientes. Con los años la capacidad de reacción y compromiso con nuestros clientes se ha visto reforzada gracias a nuestra seriedad y creatividad. Comenzamos creando nuestros propios diseños y hoy en día contamos con un departamento de diseño interno, el cual parte de la idea inicial para finalmente encontrar los mejores colores y materiales que darán luz verde a un nuevo muñeco, una nueva creación. Actualmente y gracias a la experiencia que va desde nuestro famoso *Pepeillo* hasta el *Puppy del Museo Guggenheim* de Bilbao, pasando por el *Pelegrín* en X hemos logrado forjarnos la experiencia suficiente, como para poder alcanzar compromisos y conseguir productos de primera calidad a precios muy competitivos y dar servicio inmediato a todo tipo de clientes. Nuestra filosofía se centra en ofrecer a nuestros clientes un producto de calidad, artesano y diferente. Actualmente, la empresa X dirige sus productos básicamente al sector del regalo informal y del muñeco juvenil. A punto de cumplir sus primeros 30 años de vida, X cuenta con la experiencia y la capacidad suficientes como para poder alcanzar compromisos con diversos tipos de clientes, a los que ofrece una perfecta conjugación de calidad, servicio y precio competitivo.

Example 1. Original draft of a sales letter in Spanish.

Dear Sir or Madam: X was born in 1977. In 1984 the initiative was strenghened and began to give good results. Gradually the small artisan workshop grew and increasingly begun to offer more products to their customers. Over the years responsiveness and commitment to our customers has been strenghened thanks to our seriousness and creativity. We started creating our own designs, today we have an international design department, this department parts from the initial idea to finally find the best colors and materials that match a new toy, a new creation. Today, thanks to our experience that goes from our famous *Pepeillo* to the *Puppy of the Guggenheim* Museum in Bilbao, through the *Pelegrín*, in X we have achieved sufficient experience, as to be able to reach commitments and get top-quality products, at prices far competitive, and provide immediate service to all kind of customers. Our philosophy is centred in offering to our clients a product of quality, different and artisan. At the moment, X basically directs its products to the sector of the informal gift and juvenil toy.

Example 2. Translation of the Spanish sales letter into English.

If we examine the written text in example 1 through the perspective of the cultural dimension of context, we can find out that the letter can be considered a fairly high-context text since the aim and meaning are implied rather than explicitly conveyed through the written word. Although the main purpose of the letter is to sell the products of the company, one can notice that this is never explicitly mentioned in the text. Consequently, we agree with Guillén (2009b: 52) when she claims that " the rhetorical and discourse strategies of the Spanish sales letter are suggestive rather than persuasive". In the same way, if we have a look at the English version of this similar letter, one may realize that, apart from the inappropriate use is made of the macrostructure and microstructure as well as the grammatical and vocabulary mistakes they contain, the linguistic features and rhetorical patterns of the sales letter in Spanish are transferred to English by the translator.

We can see that the manager of the Spanish company prefers to provide enough background information and context, e.g. "X was born in 1977 [...]", "Over the years [...]", "We started creating [...]", "X is provided with the sufficient experience and aptitudes [...]", etc. Apart from that, the manager of this firm seems to aim at relationship building and rapport management before getting to the point of making a business decission, e.g. "responsiveness and commitment to our customers [...]", "Our philosophy is centred in offering to our clients [...]", "to create personalized products tailored to their customers [...]", etc.

Circumlocutions is another linguistic strategy that can be seen throughout the text. For instance, similar linguistic structures are repeated in different paragraphs, eg. "X was born [...]", "in X we have achieved [...]", "X basically directs [...]", "X is provided with [...]", etc. Finally, we cannot overlook the fact that some parts of the text seem to contain expressiveness, as shown in the repetition of some adjectives that contribute to make the text a bit poetic, e.g. "to finally find the best colors and materials that match a *new* toy, a *new* creation", or the personification of the company, which is repeated too many times in the text, that is, the firm appears to adopt human qualities whilst the name of the person who is actually writing the letter is hardly mentioned, except in the final farewell, e.g. "X was born [...]", "the company is able provide [...]", etc.

All in all, we can observe a pragmatic transfer of rhetorical strategies from Spanish into English, like the importance that Spaniards attribute to the contextual elements when conveying information. For the manager of this company, it is more important to talk about the history of the company, how it has grown throughout the years, its experience or the way products are manufactured. However, the main purpose of the letter which is to persuade the British customer to purchase the products of the company is never accomplished in the text. This pragmatic transfer may produce misunderstandings and communicative barriers with Britons since, as it was mentioned at the beginning of this paper, the latter do not share the same cultural orientation towards the cultural dimension of context.

As low-context communicators, British will place more value in the explicit information that is transmitted through the written word. In that case, British manufacturers will expect to find a type of sales letter that goes more to the point and be briefer. In other words, when the British reader goes to the end of this letter he or she could be confused and think why the letter was written. British manufacturers might guess that probably the purpose of the letter is to establish a future interview with the British company to try to get it to buy the products. Nevertheless, this is never explicitly stated. The main problem with this letter is that it is mistranslated. As Loukianenko (2008: 93) states "as a result of such mistranslation, the L2 version of the same text may fail to maintain its rhetorical force, and thus the communicative purpose of the L2 text may never be achieved".

With the purpose of contrasting a Spanish sales letter with an English one, we find relevant to illustrate a real example of a sales letter coming from a British toy company:

Child's Play, Ltd. 48 Commercial Street Poole Dorset BH149QW UK	Your Ref: Our Ref: PL/AC

Dear Sir or Madam,

I am writing to introduce X to you, as I feel sure that you will find our products of interest to your firm.

As you may know, we are one of the official exporters of toys maufactured by various well-known British companies.

We have pleasure in enclosing a copy of our autumn catalogue, which includes details and prices of our complete range of toys.

We would particularly like to draw your attention to our new range of toys for babies, which you will find on pages 28-32 of the catalogue. We are offering a special discount of 2% on all toys ordered before 1 October.

Example 3. Sales letter from a British company written in British English (*Cif*. Guillén, V. & Williams, J. 2004: 28)

In contrast with the Spanish sales letters observed in examples 1 and 2, in this one we can perceive how the sales manager focuses on transmitting the essential topic of the letter, that is, to sale the products that the company offers. The content of the first paragraph is based on introducing the name of the company to a prospective customer. In this way, the reader can know from the very beginning what the letter is about. In the second paragraph the author seems to provide few contextal information like the recognition of the firm. The third one is devoted to mention the enclosing of the catalogue and the fourth one aims at focusing attention in the reader about some particular items that the company includes in its catalogue as well as some special discounts. Finally, in the fifth paragraph the sales manager requests, in a polite way, some action by part of the receiver, or what is the same, would like the customer to buy the products offered by the firm.

The results of our analysis have revealed that in the sales letter coming from a Spanish toy company, it is made use of more implicit linguistic strategies to express the main purpose of the letter. In this sense, more contextual information, repetition of syntactic and linguistic structures, as well as expressiveness is provided in the different paragraphs to convey implicitly that the company would like a potential British customer to know and purchase its products. Nevertheless, this aim is never explicitly transmitted in the text.

Regarding the English version of the Spanish sales letter, one can notice that the translator only focuses on doing a literal translation from Spanish into English. This means that the low-context comunication that British use to convey meaning in the communication process and the discourse strategies that are normally used have not been taking into account.

In low-context cultures like Great Britain, the communication activity focuses on transmitting a specific, rational and pragmatic issue (Lewis, 1996: 108; Walker, et al. 2003: 71). In the same line, Singh and Pereira (2005: 42) explain that speakers from low-context cultures tend to be logical, lineal and action-oriented, which is one of the reasons why information is explicitly conveyed. Say it in other words, speakers from these cultures value the cognitive and rational aspects of communication since a special attention is paid to detail and accuracy in their messages.

In moderate high-context cultures like Spain the general tendency of its speakers, at their colective level of their culture, focuses on giving more importance to the establishment of social relationships in communication (Walker, et al., 2003: 70-71; Guillén, 2009b: 52). Therefore, in high-context cultures more value is placed on the social aspects of communication rather than on the cognitive ones when transmitting information.

Conclusions

The results obtained in our research confirm the main hypothesis raised at the beginning of this paper. The different cultural orientations by means of which Spaniards and Britons face the cultural dimension of context in communication are reflected in the discourse and rhetorical strategies frequently used in their sales letters. Whereas in the Spanish letter the discourse strategies used to convey information are more implicit due to the moderately high-context communication of Spaniards, in the British one more explicitness can be found as a result of the low-context orientation handled by British speakers to express information. However, one can realize that Spanish manufaturers' unawareness of the low-context communication of Britons may lead to the literal translation into English of the main strategies used in Spanish. This fact can produce misunderstandings and communication barriers in international negotiations with the British market.

Anthropological culture has traditionally been isolated from business language teaching. Although efforts have been made to include the visible aspects of culture in the language curriculum, namely, the country's history, food or customs and traditions (Sercu et al., 2005), we absolutely agree with Guillén (2009: 57) when she states that "at the current stage, we need to take a step forward in order to try integrate the invisible and hidden dimensions of culture". Everybody knows that business language teaching has traditionally been focused on including specific terminology, grammar, the four skills and translation. However, the globalization that characterizes the post-Bologna scenario in tertiary education requires that students can have an approach to analysing rhetorical choices they make in each particular intercultural writing situation. If students do not understand the connection between the value orientations that are the core of the culture and the speech community's patterns of linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour, second language acquisition will not be completely achieved.

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Anwendungspotentiale der Kritischen Interdiskursanalyse bei Tourismuswebsites

Abstract

Die LSP-Didaktik ist explorativ im Falle von Toursimuswebsites mit einigen speziellen Problemen konfrontiert : 1. Es gibt keine allgemein akzeptierte Definition des Begriffes der Globalisierung. 2. Es gibt verschiedene theoretische Ansätze und Denkschulen bezüglich einer Standardisierungs-, Differenzialisierungs- und Kontingenz-Strategie. 3. Es gibt methodologisch verschiedene Forschungsmethoden. 4. Rahmenbedingungen wie Glokalisierung, Transkulturalität und Hybridität sind sehr problematisch. 5. Der Wechsel von Web 2.0- auf Web 3.0-Anwendungen (semantisches Netz) werden für Datenbanken Probleme hervorrufen (inkompetentes tagging). Trotz all dieser Probleme muß eine Möglichkeit in transdisziplinärer und transkultureller Art und Weise geschaffen werden, um die Nutzerfreundlichkeit wie bspw. im Falle von Trans-Kreationen durch better wording zu verbessern. Einige Forschungslücken wie bspw. der Bedarf von lokalen, sozio-kulturellen Aspekten bei der Mensch-Maschinen-Kommunikation sind evident geworden. Die LSP-Didaktik kann in einem Post-Bolognia-Szenario für die Erwachsenenbildung (Zielgruppen: Lerner & User) mit Hilfe ihres Theorie-Fundus und methodischen Instrumentariums (Potentiale der Kritischen Inter-Diskurs-Analyse (KIDA) helfen, diese problematische Situation zu entschärfen.

Schlagwörter

Internet-Linguistik, LSP-Didaktik, Tourismuswebsites, Globalisierung, Kritische Inter-Diskurs-Analyse

Einleitung

Globalisierung ist ein Prozess, im Zuge dessen Staaten, Wirtschaften und Menschen durch wachsende ökonomische Integration und kommunikativen Austausch, kulturelle Durchdringung und Reisen global immer enger verbunden und abhängig werden.

Zu den Triebkräften der Globalisierung gehören u.a. aktuelle Entwicklungen in der Informations- und Kommunikationstechnologie. Zu diesen zählt das Internet und gehören die Tourismuswebsites mitsamt Web 2.0, Web 3.0&Social-Semantic-Web-Software, welche(s) eine immer größere Bedeutung in der Tourismusindustrie mitsamt Implikationen auf User & Produser -TouristInnen und deren höheren Mobilität und Autonomie in einer immer mehr globalisierten Welt hat & haben.
Die 1.These, dass Tendenzen der Globalisierung reale Auswirkungen mit Spezial-Fokus primär auf das lokale bzw. regionale sekundär internationale, europäische und globale Kommunikationsverhalten von Individuen haben und daraus resultierende Phänomene in ihrer jeweiligen Sprache als wichtiger Kulturträger und -vermittler gespiegelt werden, führt zur 2.These, wonach das Lokale ein Aspekt des Globalen (Robertson 1998: 206) ist.

Die zentrale Forschungsfrage lautet: welchen Einfluss üben verbale bzw. nonverbale lokale Kommunikationscodes auf das (fach-)schriftsprachig kommunikative Verhalten von Internet-Usern am Beispiel der Werbesprache von Tourismuswebsites unter den Bedingungen von Social Networking (Weblog-Netzwerke, Blogs, RSS-Feeds, Tweets) (Porter 2008: 24-40; Ebersbach et al., 2008: 33-143; Qualman 2010: 91-117) aus und wie lassen sich diese mit Hilfe der Kritischen Interdiskursanalyse empirisch erforschen?
Als Sub-Fragen sind zu stellen: Welche Kategorien, Aspekte, Phänomene und Charakteristika der Globalisierung im Unterschied zur Lokalisierung und Glokalisierung lassen sich identifizieren? Wie reagiert strategisches interkulturelles Marketing auf diese Phänomene? Wann und warum wird die Standardisierungs-, Differenzierungs- und differenzierte Standardisierungs-Strategie (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 458-547) angewandt? Worin bestehen ihre Stärken und Schwächen? Wie wirkt sich Globalisierung (werbe)sprachlich bei Usern in ihrer jeweilig individuellen Lebenswelt aus? Wie reagieren User in Zeiten der Glokalisierung in ihrer lokalen bzw. regionalen Welt (Müller 2001: 82-92)? Passen sich die Menschen in der Lokalität & Region total an das Neue im Sinne von Homogenisierung (= McDonaldisierung (Ritzer, 1997) bzw. McWorld (Barber, 1995) bzw. im Sinne der Konvergenz-These (Webber 1969: 75-83) an? Oder kommt es zu einer Synthese aus Neuem und Alt-Traditionellem im Sinne einer bewusst zielgerichtet gewählten Brücke zwischen zwei oder mehreren Kulturen im Sinne von Heterogenisierung (Frank 2004: 8), einem neuen

Identitätsverständnis also hybrider Identität (Villányi & Witte 2007: 153), Bedingungen der Glokaliserung (Robertson 1995: 25-44) bzw. im Sinne des Kontingenzansatzes (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 478-488)?

Im Zuge wachsender Konkurrenz in der Tourismusbranche ist bei den Anbietern eine höhere Professionalität im Sinne kapitalistischer Logik und ein großer Anteil von gering ausgeprägter Semi- bzw. Pseudo-Professionalität bei touristischen Konsumenten & UserInnen im Internet zu beobachten. Es ist daher relevant, Diskurse und Spezial- &Inter-Diskurse von Tourismuswebsites zu untersuchen.

Probleme der LSP- Didaktik mit Paradoxien globaler Marketingkommunikation

Das Definitionsproblem mit dem Globalisierungsbegriff

Bis jetzt existiert in der Fachwelt kein Kompromiss über eine allgemein akzeptierte Bedeutung des Begriffs Globalisierung[1] (Kessler & Steiner 2009: 35). Die unscharfe, undifferenzierte Verwendung des Begriffes als „catch-all-term“ (Kessler & Steiner 2009: 35) mit „Sündenbockfunktion“ (Kessler & Steiner 2009: 17) ist für wissenschaftliche Zwecke nicht befriedigend. Einerseits sind die ungeheure, bis jetzt nur teilweise verstandene Komplexität des Begriffes und andererseits das noch eher frühe Forschungsstadium an dieser Problematik schuld (Fässler 2007: 29). So gilt es einen Bedeutungsinhalt zu identifizieren, welcher auf weite Akzeptanz und Konsensfähigkeit angelegt ist. Globalisierung lässt sich nicht nur auf ökonomische und politische Aspekte reduzieren. Vielmehr besitzt dieses Phänomen stets auch eine kulturelle, soziale und historische Dimension (Brock 2008: 11). Daher muss von einer ökonomischen, politischen, kulturellen und sozialen Globalisierung (Brock 2008: 23-238) gesprochen werden.

Eine auf das Internet hinzielende Definition stammt von Tetzlaff (2006: 86), welcher Globalisierung generell als Produkt beschleunigter weltweiter Vernetzung von Märkten, Unternehmen, Staaten und Personen auf der Basis neuer ICTs versteht. Giddens (1990: 64) definiert weiters Globalisierung als Anwachsen sozialer Interaktionen hinweg über wachsende Entfernungen gleichsam eine „ intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa“. Nach Giddens (2001: 24) gibt es bei

Globalisierung einen Sog von oben und einen Druck von unten, was einerseits einen Bedeutungszuwachs übergeordneter Zusammenhänge, wie z. B. im Sinne einer Globalisierung als sich selbst verstärkender Prozess[2] (= die Verknüpfung der Konvergenz-, Standardisierungs-, Zentralisations- und Preis-&Kostenvorteil-These als Argumentationskette in Kreisform bei Unterstellung, dass die Weitergabe des Preisvorteils an die Kundschaft die Homogenisierung der Nachfrage der Nachfrage tatsächlich beschleunigt) (Meffert 1986: 195; Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 464-466), andererseits ein Postulat nach lokaler Autonomie und weltweit neuen Formen von kulturellen Differenzierungen bedeutet. Auf das menschliche Individuum in seiner lokalen Lebenswelt bezogen bedeutet dies, dass Globalisierung das Leben des Einzelnen verändert, weil sich nunmehr „Gegensätze und Widersprüche von Kontinenten, Kulturen und Religionen … im unabschlieβbar gewordenen eigenen Leben“ (Beck 1997: 129) abspielen. Paradoxerweise scheint es ertragreicher zu sein mit der Erforschung globaler Zusammenhänge auf der Ebene individuellen Handelns zu beginnen als holistisch gesehen auf globaler Ebene (Osterhammel & Peterson 2003: 20). Nach Kühberger (2007: 27) lässt sich Globalisierung nur im Lokalen beobachten. Das Global-Lokal-Verhältnis ist aber kein duales, sondern eine paradoxe Proportion, wobei dieses wechselseitige Konstitutionsverhältnis komplexer ist, als es identitätslogisch erfasst werden kann (Drechsel et al. 2000: 33).

Kulturelle Globalisierung

Kühberger (2007: 32) definiert kulturelle Globalisierung in Anlehnung an Brock (2008: 7-11) und Giddens (1990: 64) als Teil jenes umfassenden wirtschaftlichen, politischen, ökologischen, technologischen, kommunikationstechnischen Prozesses, welcher im Rahmen der globalen Vernetzung kulturelle Entwicklungen auf diversen räumlichen Ebenen erfasst und durch Interaktion beeinflusst. Appadurai (1990: 295) präzisiert mit Fokus auf kulturelle Globaliserung: „The central problem of today´s global interactions is the tension between cultural homogenization and cultural heterogenization .“ Das Paradigma der kulturellen Homogenisierung[3] bezeichnet jene Prozesse, welche durch die globale Distribution von Gütern entstehen. So werden kulturelle Differenzen immer geringer, wenn der historisch gewachsene Gebrauch lokal verwendeter Produkte rückläufig ist und diese durch global vermarktete Produkte ersetzt werden. Als homogenisierender Mechanismus führt kulturelle Globalisierung zur weltweiten

Verbreitung gleicher bzw. ähnlicher institutionalisierter Organisationsformen, Einrichtungen, Identitäten und Strukturen (Zoll 2007: 56). Ritzer[4] (1997) verwendet dafür den Begriff der McDonaldisierung der Gesellschaft, welcher als Synonym für vorherrschende Standardisierung[5] und Rationalisierung letztere mit den Grundbausteinen Effizienz, Berechenbarkeit, Vorhersagbarkeit und Kontrolle (Ritzer 1997: 67,109,143, 171) fungiert. Mittlerweile geht man in der sozialwissenschaftlichen Forschung davon aus, dass Globalisierung und Massenproduktion kultureller Symbole keine kulturelle Homogenisierung erzwingen und eine total globale Kultur[6] nicht im Entstehen begriffen ist (Beck 1997: 100; Rathje 2008: 38-56). Robertson (1998: 192-194) tritt ebenso der These von der globalen kulturellen Homogenisierung (bspw. Barber 2001: 87) entgegen, indem er betont, dass sich das Globale und Lokale nicht ausschließen. Universalismus und Partikularismus, Kosmopolitismus und Förderung des Lokalen sind für ihn zwei Seiten ein und derselben Medaille. Er sagt im Gegenteil, dass das Lokale als Aspekt des Globalen verstanden werden muss (Robertson 1998: 206). Drechsel et al. (2000: 140) verstehen die Dialektik kultureller Globalisierung auch so, dass Globalisierung ohne Lokalisierung nicht denkbar ist. Dabei handelt es sich um paradoxe Prozesse, in denen gleichzeitig Entgegengesetztes möglich und wirklich wird. Globalisierung bedeutet nicht nur De-Lokaliserung, sondern auch Re-Lokalisierung. Appadurai (1998: 11ff.) fordert, dass bei einer ethnographischen Darstellung zunehmend imaginierter, massenmedial vermittelter Lebenswelten die fortdauernde Bedeutung des Lokalen trotz oder gerade wegen des Spannungsverhältnisses zur entgrenzten Moderne nicht zu vernachlässigen ist. Dabei geht es um eine nicht-traditionalistische Renaissance des Lokalen. Nämlich dann, wenn es gelingt, lokale Besonderheiten global zu verorten und in diesem Rahmen konfliktuell zu erneuern. Marshall Sahlins konstatiert, dass im Kontext global-kultureller Verflechtungen lokal-kulturelle Revitaliserungsbewegungen wesentlich mehr Bedeutung gewinnen (Kumoll 2007: 17). Andres (2004: 120) hält den Gedanken einer gleichzeitig stattfindenden Homo- und Heterogenisierung für fruchtbarer.

Glokalisierung als Synthese von Globalisierung und Lokalisierung

Robertson (1994: 33, definitiv 1995: 25) prägte den Begriff der Glocalization (dt.: Glokalisierung[7]) also ein Kunstwort bzw. eine Verbalhornung von Globalisierung und Lokalisierung, wobei er eine Anpassung einer globalen Perspektive an lokale Umstände

(Robertson 1998: 197) meint. Robertson (1998: 208) formuliert punktgenau: „In dieser Hinsicht beinhaltet die auf allgemeinste Weise als Verdichtung der Welt als ganzer definierte Globalisierung die Verknüpfung von Lokalitäten.“ Lokale Gesellschaften sind – was kulturelle Globalisierung anbelangt – im Prozess kultureller Annäherungen und kulturellen Austausches gerade nicht zur Passivität verurteilt; - sondern können Veränderungen aktiv mitgestalten (Kühberger 2007: 28; Spittler 2002: 18). Gemäβ Urteil einer wachsenden Zahl von Kultur-Theoretikern wird es künftig zu keiner McDonaldisierung (Ritzer, 1997) kommen. Vielmehr werden im lokalen Bereich Aneignungsprozesse angebotener regionaler, nationaler, kontinentaler und globaler Einflüsse entstehen, welche eine Pluralität von Kombinationsmöglichkeiten gestatten (Kühberger 2007: 27).

Unternehmen, die international bzw. global tätig sind, müssen eine Antwort auf ihr strategisches Vorgehen finden: soll man diverse Auslandsmärkte standardisiert (= mit den im heimatlich-national-kulturellen Markt bewährten Strategien und Instrumenten) oder differenziert (= angepasst an die jeweiligen von der Landeskultur geprägten Marktkonditionen) angehen? Diese erste Schlüsselfrage bezeichnet de Mooij (2009: 11) als „Global-Local Dilemma in Global Marketing“. Die zweite Schlüsselfrage lautet: Woran soll man sich wie anpassen (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: VII)? Landeskulturen sind immer dann ein bedeutsamer Entscheidungsparameter für Marketing, wenn kultursensible Leistungen und Produkte in kulturell heterogenen Umwelten zu vermarkten sind (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: VIII). Allerdings gilt was Hofstede (2009: XIII) so kurz und treffend formuliert: „…people´s rationality as a producer differs from their rationality as a consumer.” Im Kalkül von Marketing und Management klingt es gut, wenn durch globale Standardisierung des Marketing-Mix Kosteneinsparungen und Preisvorteile ermöglicht werden (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 461).

Dieser Denkweise liegt die Konvergenz-These (Webber 1969:75-83) zugrunde, nach der sich Interessen und Bedürfnisse der Konsumenten bzw. die „Ubiquität der Wünsche“ (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 465) global immer mehr angleichen (Levitt[8] 1983) (s.o. Vermutung v. Hall 2002: 213). Global Brands bzw. Players wie McDonalds, Coca Cola, Pepsi Cola, Levis Jeans, Revlon Kosmetik, Sony Fernseher (Levitt 1983: 93; de Mooij 2009: 11) scheinen diese These zu bestätigen (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 464).

Die Differenzierungsthese als Gegenthese besagt aber, dass die zeitweilig faktisch beobachtbare Angleichung nur oberflächlicher Natur ist und sich bloβ auf wenige aufmerksamkeitsstarke Lebens- und Konsumbereiche (bspw. Sportsachen als Alltagskleidung, fast Food) beschränkt. Die Bedürfnisse der KonsumentInnen unterscheiden sich aber nach wie vor interkulturell, weswegen die Differenzierungsstrategie weiterverfolgt werden müsse (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 463; de Mooij & Hofstede 2010: 85).

Nachdem sowohl die Standardisierungsstrategie wie auch die Differenzierungsstrategie unter unsystematischer Argumentation auf differenten Ebenen, unzureichender theoretischer Fundierung, methodologischen Schwachstellen und widersprüchlichen Befunden (Müller/Gelbrich 2004: 471-477) leiden, plädieren viele Experten wie bspw. de Mooij (2009: 11) mittlerweile für die Kontingenzstrategie (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 477). Für diese gilt das Motto[9]: „ So viel Standardisierung wie möglich, so viel Differenzierung wie nötig“ (Müller & Kornmeier 1995: 340). Usunier &Walliser (1993: 128) setzen dabei den Akzent auf Kultur: ,,So global wie kulturell möglich, so lokal wie kulturell nötig.“ Diese Strategie der differenzierten Standardisierung berücksichtigt einerseits Spezifika diverser nationaler Märkte und versucht andererseits, durch selektive Homogenisierung von Leistungsprozessen Kosten soweit wie möglich zu reduzieren (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 479). Die SD-Diskussion ist als Grundsatz-Debatte im Sinne von ,,Entweder-oder“ eher eine akademische Angelegenheit. Real gibt es in der Unternehmenspraxis Mischstrategien (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 472). Andres (2004: 120) sieht Glokaliserung eher als eine Art Trend, welchen international aktive Unternehmen aus ökonomischen Interessen verfolgen. Sie schlägt daher eine analytische Trennung zwischen Glokalisierung (= ökonomische Schiene) und Hybridisierung (= kulturelle Schiene) vor.

Facetten des glokalen Marketings im Tourismus

Eine Einordnung der Tourismusindustrie in die Branchen-Globalisierungs-Matrix (Welge & Holtbrügge 1998: 84), bei der auf der horizontal-waagrechten x-Achse ein niedriges bis hohes Lokalisierungserfordernis (= Differenzierung) und auf der vertikal-rechtwinklig wegstrebenden y-Achse niedrige bis hohe Globalisierungsvorteile (= Integration) aufscheinen ist nach Lieb (2002: 17) schwierig, weil sich bei

Reiseveranstaltern situativ Funktionen mit einem hohen Internationalisierungsgrad sowie Funktionen mit einem hohen Regionalisierungs- oder Lokalisierungsgrad ergeben. Lieb (2002: 20) stellt folgende Hypothese auf: ,, Je kultursensitiver ein Produkt oder eine Dienstleistung ist, desto mehr müssen spezielle Probleme in der internationalen Unternehmenstätigkeit beachtet werden.“

Zur globalen und glokalen Dimension des Internet&Web 2.0

Das Internet im Sinne eines ,,Glocal Village“ (Wellmann 2004: 26) wird von de Mooij (2009: 2) als ,,ultimate example of global communication” betrachtet, weil es kulturelle Barrieren überbrücken kann (de Mooij 2009: 2). Das Internet ist der entscheidende Hebel für die Glokalisierung, was die Kommunikation bzw. Distribution glokaler Produkte anbelangt, weil es mehrere Vorteile bietet: es gestattet eine hochgradig-individuelle Ansprache, es ist community-orientiert und unabhängig. Somit erlaubt es die gesamte Spannbreite von eng begrenzter lokaler Aktion[10] bis hin zur globalen Kommunikation. Es nivelliert Gröβenunterschiede und ist daher ein bestens geeignetes Sprungbrett für kleine und mittlere Betriebe (Horx et al. 2009: 11). Die Bedeutung sozialer Onlinenetzwerke&Social Network Sites (SNS) wird für das Internet weiter steigen. Allerdings sind weitere Forschungen zwecks klarer Definitionen des Forschungsgegenstands erforderlich (Weissensteiner & Leiner 2011: 538). Das Internet ermöglicht 24 Stunden pro Tag Buchungen durchzuführen. Was die Aspekte der sprachlichen Kommunikation in Zeiten der Globalisierung anbelangt, so können trotz Dominanz der Lingua Franca Englisch immer mehr User in ihren lokalen Sprachen global kommunizieren. Empirische Studien deuten auf einen Rückgang von Englisch und auf einen Zuwachs von anderen Sprachen im Internet hin, wobei sogar ganz kleine Sprachen Teil der globalen Kommunikation werden (Ammon 2006: 46). So pflegen vor Ort global operierende Unternehmen Standortsprachen zu benutzen (Ammon 2008: 6).

Angesichts zukünftiger Trends im Tourismus wie bspw. fortschreitende Globalisierung, höhere Ansprüche an die Tourismus-Information (Internet), steigender Druck zur Produktinnovation und verstärktes Marketing in allen touristischen Bereichen sind Tourismuswebsites im Spannungsfeld einer Konstruktion touristischer Räume von lokaler Verortung (Meethan 2001: 5) und globaler Imagination (Appadurai, 1996) ein äuβerst anspruchvolles Arbeitsfeld geworden. Dies auch deswegen, weil der Web

Content verschiedene digitale Assets (Zschau et al. 2002), wie Community-Assets, die Social Networking&Sharing (s.o.) beinhalten. Hinter der explosiv steigenden Nutzung von Weblogs, Social Software, Social Web, RSS, Podcasting, Peer-to-Peer-Netzwerken, Word-of-Mouth-Marketing, Chat-Foren, Weblog-Marketing, User-generated Advertising verbirgt sich ein essentieller Wandel, nämlich die digitale Individualisierung (Haderlein 2006: 2-3). Mit Stand 2009 beteiligten sich 42 Prozent der Internet-User in den USA am Aufbau von Web-Inhalten, bei Blogging, an Foren, Video- und Foto-Webseiten, sozialen Netzwerken, etc. 2012 sollte es schon um die Hälfte aller User sein. Nach Resultaten der ARD/ZDF-Onlinestudie 2011 verbleibt bei Web 2.0 die aktive Mitwirkung der UserInnen wie bei Wikipedia und Videoportalen auf niedrigem Niveau, währenddessen die aktive Nutzung in privaten Communitys stattfindet (Busemann & Gscheidle 2011: 369). Touristisch relevant kreieren Internet-User bei Mitmach-Web-2.0-Portalen ihre Reisen selbst: sie nutzen von anderen Usern erhaltene Bezugspunkte und speisen ihre Erfahrungen ebenso wieder ins Netz ein (= Peer-to-Peer-Netzwerke, Word-of-Mouth-Marketing A.K.) (Gatterer et al. 2009: 66). Für Touristik-Unternehmen beinhalten solche Weblogs ein hohes innovatives Potential.

Bei touristischen Websites sind Vorstellungen vom Authentischen und Traditionellem (s.o. Kap. 2.3.1) eng mit Malerischen und Pittoreskem verknüpft. Romantische Darstellungscodes inkludieren aber nicht nur Vorgaben für eine typische Landschaft, sondern auch den Blick auf typische oder charakteristische Kulturelemente (Hirsch 1995: 11). Es kommt zu einer Standardisierung bzw. Selektion des Sehenswerten. Die Konstruktion touristischer Räume baut einerseits auf der lokalen Kulturlandschaft auf und wird andererseits von globalen Bildern, Träumen und Codes wie Entspannung, Abenteuer, Wellness, Alltagsentlastung und Aussteigen determiniert, welche Touristen in ihrem geistigen Gepäck mitbringen. Aber Vorsicht! Internet-User glauben nicht mehr so ohne weiteres Informationen, die sie via Tourismus-Websites kriegen: mit Hilfe von Google-Earth oder Microsoft Virtual Earth können sie Vorab-Reisen machen. Sie machen sich schon vor Reiseantritt ein Bild von ihrer Destination und posten ihre Erfahrungen direkt in Weblogs ein (Gatterer et al. 2009: 65). Ehrlichkeit, Authentizität und Originalität sind daher gefragt! Jedenfalls ist es nötig, den potentiellen Gast bzw. Kunden stärker-interaktiv einzubeziehen. Das erfordert ganztägiges Bereit-Sein für

Kundenkontakte z. B. über Call-Centers. Das spielerische Moment beim Menschen – speziell bei der jüngeren Generation - ist durch Gewinn-Spiele über SMS zu fördern.
Bei der Entwicklung von Community Websites als eine Serviceerweiterung der Destinationsplattform zu einem Anbieter und Kundenportal plus einer Erweiterung um einen Community-, MySite- und MyGroup-Bereich zwecks Verbesserung der Schnittstelle zwischen Leistungsträger und Zielgruppe (Geser et al. 2007: 181 ff) sollten daher nicht nur globale sondern auch aus holistischer Perspektive lokale Aspekte berücksichtigt werden. Diese neuen Formen von mehrsprachigen, globalen und transkulturellen Kommunikationsmustern, welche bspw. Hepp (2012: 19-39) als kommunikative Figurationen in einer globalisierten Welt beschreibt und analysiert, erfordern ggf. glokales besser transkulturelles Lernen, transkulturelle Kompetenz und transdisziplinäres Forschen. Weiters sind viele Probleme der Viabilität und Nutzung des Web als linguistische Ressource noch ungelöst. Dies betrifft speziell drei Aspekte: 1. die Nutzerfreundlichkeit , nachdem das Web nicht original für die linguistische Forschung konstruiert worden war, 2. die Repräsentativität, weil das Web sich eben nicht aus einem ausgewogen homogenen Korpus zusammensetzt und 3. die Komposition, nachdem es sehr wenig Meta-Information zwecks Kategorisierung ihrer Inhalte in Bezug auf traditionelle Parameter der Korpus Linguistik gibt (Bergh & Zanchetta 2008: 325).

Standardisierung vs. Lokalisierung bzw. Glokalisierung von Tourismus-Websites

Linkel (2007: 102) klingt einleuchtend, dass die Werbewirkung in lokal produzierten Werbeumfeldern deutlich höher ist als auf solchen Sites, welche lediglich aus anderen Sprachen adaptiert und nicht auf die lokalen Bedürfnisse der Internet-Nutzer zugeschnitten sind. Nun ist aber Lokalisierung im Sinne der Definition von Yunker (2002: 17) als ein „process of modifying a website for a specific locale" ein aufwändiges Verfahren, welches erhebliche Kosten (Europäische Kommission 2001: 14) verursacht und ökonomisch nur dann erfolgreich ist wenn entsprechende Vorteile gegenüberstehen.
Gander (2006: 2) führt ebenfalls an, dass die „Web-Globalisierung eine sehr hohe Anfangsinvestition voraussetzt." So ist es kein Wunder, dass es eine Tendenz fehlender kulturell adaptierter (Singh & Pereira, 2005) und hoch lokalisierter Webauftritte gibt (Sandrini 2009: 246). Website-Lokalisierung ist eine fordernde Angelegenheit: sie ist

zunächst nicht nur als bloβes Übersetzen, sondern bedeutet vielmehr die Übertragung des kompletten Inhalts in Sprache und Kultur der Zielgruppe. Technisch darf aber Struktur und Funktionalität existenter Websites nicht durch zusätzliche Sprachen beeinträchtigt werden. Die Lokalisierung von animierten Graphiken, Sounddateien bzw. anderer Multimedia-Komponenten und im Falle dynamischer Websites die Datenbankanbindung kann zu einer komplexen Aufgabe werden (Gander 2005: 3). Der Grad und die Strategie der Lokalisierung hängen entscheidend von Art und Funktion des Webauftrittes (Sandrini 2009: 237-238) ab. Jeweils situativ ist eine der sieben Strategien der Sprachenwahl verknüpft mit der dahinter stehenden Marketing-Politik des Unternehmens (Schewe 2001: 195-209) anzuwenden. Jedenfalls erfordert Lokalisierung von Websites engen Kontakt mit dem Auftraggeber, Informationen über die Produktart bzw. Dienstleistungsart, Marketingstrategie des Unternehmens, Adressaten neuer Sprachversionen im Web und über die Funktion des Webauftrittes (Schewe 2001: 208).

Zur Problematik der Fachsprachlichkeit bei Tourismuswebsites

Mekis (1999: 74) definiert die Fachsprache des Tourismus als die ,,Summe der im Tourismus bzw. in der tourismusbedingten Kommunikation benutzten Fachsprachen." Lombardi et al. (2010: 4) halten aufgrund der vorigen Definition einen terminologischen Ansatz für begründet. Sie erweitern den Begriff der Terminologiearbeit um die systematische und strukturierte Sammlung wiederkehrender und prototypischer Züge der im Korpus vorhandenen Fachsprache. Ihre Arbeitsmethode beschränkt sich aber nicht nur auf die rein terminologische Ebene. Es werden vielmehr auch die lexikalische, textuelle und pragmatische Ebene mitberücksichtigt. Vorausgesetzt sei zunächst der ikonische Text-Charakter bei Tourismuswebsites, wobei auf Informations- bzw. Text-Design und vorherrschende kommunikative, mediale Bedingungen aus Platzgründen nur sehr kursorisch eingegangen werden kann. Inhaltlich-kommunikativ geht es zunächst bei Tourismuswebsites um Zimmerreservierung, Gastempfang, Infos über Hoteleinrichtungen, Dienstleistungen, Unterhaltungsmöglichkeiten, Wetterverhältnisse, Telefon- &Zimmer-Service, Abrechnung, Verabschiedung, Reiseauskunft-&buchung etc.. Die Bestimmung des Grades der Fachsprachlichkeit bei Tourismuswebsites ist schwierig; - weil variabel. Prinzipiell ist aber der Fachsprachlichkeitsgrad als nicht sonderlich hoch bzw. eher gering einzuschätzen. So unterscheidet sich zunächst beispielsweise Tourismusdeutsch von anderen Lernervarietäten nur durch ihre charakteristischen Fachterminologien wie diejenigen der Wirtschaftssprache, Tourismussprache und ökologischer Sprache (wissenschaftliche und technische Sprache) usw. (Martí Marco 2006: 94). Damit hat längst die gegenständliche Problematik angefangen: so besitzen die relevanten Fachsprachen im Falle von Tourismuswebsites einerseits keinen komplett eigenen und von daher aufzuzeichnenden und isolierbaren Wortschatz, sondern sind sowohl durch die Verwendung von speziellen Fachtermini als auch der Standardsprache gekennzeichnet (Martí Marco 2006: 93). Erschwerend kommt hinzu, dass es auch hier keine absolute Trennlinie zwischen Gemein- und Fachsprache, sondern eine stufenlose Skala unterschiedlicher Fachlichkeitsgrade gibt (Schubert 2007: 147; Rinke 2010: 235-260). Bei der Terminologisierung wird einer bekannten, oft gemeinsprachlichen Wortform – häufig durch Metaphorik – ein neuer Begriffsinhalt zugeordnet (Drozd & Seibicke 1973: 50). Sobald aber die Fachsprache komplexer wird, dann benötigt sie spezielle Termini, für die allerdings der gemeinsprachliche Wortschatz nicht mehr ausreichend ist. Denn nur so kann der touristische Fachbereich eindeutig und korrekt dargestellt werden. Diese Fachtermini werden aber oft von Laien nicht mehr verstanden. Dies kann bei Tourismuswebsites bereits ein Problem sein. Es empfiehlt sich daher ein Glossar zur Verfügung zu stellen, um dem Laien/Tourismuskunden diese Fachtermini gemeinsprachig zu erklären. Bei der Kommunikation zwischen Tourismus-Experten wird die relevante Fachterminologie und die aktuell-vertraute Kenntnis ihrer Fachtermini vorausgesetzt, um einen eindeutigen und nicht weiter interpretationsbedürftigen kommunikativen Prozess zu gewährleisten. Wenn es nun aber zu Kommunikationsproblemen mit Fachtermini kommt, weil diese zwar global verwendet aber lokal fallweise etwas abweichend interpretiert bzw. verstanden werden, dann kann dies potentiell auf eine De- bzw. Re-Lokalisierung rückführbar sein. Hier könnte nun durch eine transkulturelle, transdisziplinäre LDP-Didaktik im Sinne der vier Rezepte für eine transkulturelle Pädagogik (1. Differenzieren, 2. Entschematisieren, 3. Historisieren und 4. Kontextualisieren (Takeda 2010: o.S.) eine Kommunikationsoptimierung[11] als Problemlösung angeboten werden. Im Zuge des Ausverhandelns von Tourismusexperten unter Moderation&Mediation von Linguisten&LSP-Didaktikern könnte bereits bei der Software-Erstellung von Tourismuswebsites ein Glossar von Fachtermini entwickelt werden, mit dem Anspruch, dass Kommunikationprobleme bestenfalls vermieden oder zumindest gemildert werden können (Strohner 2002: 81). Die Pro-Argumente sind evident: ,,Optimierte Kommunikation ist verständlicher, instruktiver und überzeugender“ (Strohner & Brose 2002: 4). Im Sinne von Usability von Tourismuswebsites ist klar, dass eine gute Gliederung des Textes bzw. kurze Textsegmente allein nicht ausreichend sind. Vielmehr kommt es darauf an, mehrsprachig jeweils zielgruppengerecht die richtigen, globalen Fachtermini (mitsamt Glossar), eine klare Sprache, kurze Sätze und ansprechende, auf das Lokalkolorit passende Formulierungen zu verwenden (vgl. vertiefend Göpferich 1998; Göpferich & Engberg, 2004).

Anwendungspotentiale der Kritischen Interdiskursanalyse

Interdiskurs-Studien in professioneller Kommunikation sind bei anderen Genres etwa von Bhatia (2008a, b, 2010) mittels kritischer Diskursanalyse durchgeführt worden. Eine passende Methodik hat Brunnett (2009: 175-196) ausgearbeitet und angewendet, welche sie als Kritische Interdiskursanalyse (KIDA) bezeichnet. Bartel & Ullrich (2008: 69) beschreiben ebenfalls sehr anschaulich die empirischen Phasen der KIDA. Krückels (2003) konstatiert, dass Texte als Repräsentanz von Zeichenformationen begriffen – wenn man Internetanalyse als Interdiskursanalyse betreibt – prinzipiell aus diskursanalytischer Sicht im Internet keine neuen Probleme verursachen. Die Modellierung des (Inter-)Diskurses als Hypertext funktioniert, wenn man den Diskurskorpus als Hypertext operationalisiert. Meier-Schuegraf (2005) demonstriert sehr schön, wie man die KIDA als (Online)Diskursanalyse durchexerziert. Die soziale Netzwerkanalyse (Neubarth & Nuernbergk 2011: 4-15) könnte im Verbund mit der KIDA weitere wichtige Erkenntnisse beitragen.

Es ist somit möglich , in diesem Spezialgebiet angewandter Internetlinguistik nicht nur hinsichtlich Erwachsenenbildung in einem Post-Bologna-Szenarium Antworten auf die Frage zu finden, warum (mehr oder weniger) professionelle UserInnen die Sprache in der Art und Weise benutzen, wie sie es tun? Die KIDA geht über die Inhaltsanalyse hinaus und reflektiert die Koppelung von Sprache, Macht und Wissen, wobei sie sich bewusst sein muss, dass es sich bei der diskursiven Reproduktion von Herrschaftsverhältnissen nicht rein um top down-Phänomene handelt (van Dijk 1993:

249-283). Vor diesem Hintergrund bietet die KIDA sich geradezu an, um wesentliche Defizite in der Sprachaufmerksamkeit und im Umgang mit Online-Medien zu beheben.

Fazit und Ausblick

In aller Kürze ist versucht worden, zu zeigen, wie komplex und kompliziert das Thema Tourismuswebsites mitsamt Rahmenbedingungen aus Sicht einer transkulturellen LSP-Didaktik (Wildemann 2011: 1-11) ist. Es bestehen viele Desiderata, weswegen noch viel Forschungsarbeit zu leisten ist, um Internet-Usern von Tourismuswebsites möglichst Missverständnisse oder kulturelle Kommunikationsbarrieren (Sandrini 2009: 240) zu ersparen. Wenn es gilt, zu zeigen, dass Standardisierung etwa durch Fachtermini bzw. Fachsprachlichkeit Unsicherheit reduzieren kann (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010: 103), zeit-&Kosten-sparend ist und damit Preisvorteile ermöglicht (Müller & Gelbrich 2004: 460), dann ist sicherlich die LSP-Didaktik gefordert bei der Standardisierung von touristischen Websites mitzuhelfen. Andererseits ist die Fremdsprachendidaktik mit ihrem theoretischen und methodologischem Fundus befähigt, bei der Lokalisierung&Glokalisierung von Tourismus-Websites wenn nötig transdisziplinär Unterstützung zu leisten. Nach dem Motto: „Soviel Standardisierung wie nötig, soviel Glokalisierung wie möglich!“ Die KIDA als empirische Forschungsmethode vermag in diesem Forschungsfeld durchaus wichtige Resultate erzielen, um Defizite in language awareness und im praktischen Umgang mit Online-Medien zu minimieren.

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4. 2º painel: Terminologia e Lexicologia

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Enseñanza y aprendizaje de la terminología informática en lengua catalana en el contexto universitario

Resumen
En este artículo se pretende mostrar los diferentes aspectos que actualmente forman la base de la didáctica de la terminología especializada en lengua catalana, entendida dentro de un contexto específico como es el marco universitario de la Ingeniería informática en la Universitat Politècnica de València. Así pues, se trata en primer lugar el entorno, los participantes y los objetivos específicos del hecho didáctico, ya que el entorno de la enseñanza-aprendizaje es una comunidad lingüística bilingüe, donde el catalán es una lengua minorizada. Este hecho conlleva unas características determinadas en los participantes-aprendices, las cuales son un reflejo de la realidad social. Por otro lado, la terminología informática, que se genera en la lengua inglesa, se difunde principalmente en la lengua mayoritaria que es el español. De esta manera, el aprendizaje de la terminología en catalán supone una necesidad dentro de los estudios de la Ingeniería y, a su vez, presenta una problemática muy específica. Asimismo, se desarrollan los aspectos diferenciales y característicos de la terminología informática en lengua catalana y, finalmente, se plantea la propuesta a llevar a cabo en el aula universitaria.
Palabras clave: terminología, enseñanza-aprendizaje en educación superior, discurso de especialidad, informática.

- **Introducción**

En este artículo se exponen las características que determinan la enseñanza-aprendizaje de la terminología informática en lengua catalana en el contexto de la enseñanza superior, para así posteriormente plantear las mejores soluciones didácticas de aprendizaje terminológico. Este proceso didáctico se lleva a cabo dentro de un contexto lingüístico y social determinado, que es la Universitat Politècnica de València, situada en una sociedad bilingüe. El contexto, entre otros factores comunicativos importantes, se estudia en el primer apartado. A continuación, se define el objeto de estudio dentro del proceso de la enseñanza-aprendizaje: la terminología del campo de la informática en lengua catalana y el uso que los aprendices hacen de ésta. En un tercer apartado, y como consecuencia de los dos apartados tratados anteriormente se plantea cómo llevar a cabo de la manera más eficaz la didáctica de la terminología en el aula. Finalmente, se expondrán las conclusiones de este estudio, fruto de la observación y la reflexión del profesorado, por un lado, y del análisis de los test que el alumnado ha ido realizando durante quince años en distintos momentos del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje, por otro lado.

- **Factores comunicativos de la enseñanza-aprendizaje de la terminología informática en catalán**

En este apartado se trata tanto el contexto como los participantes y los objetivos del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de la terminología en lengua catalana, dejando para el apartado siguiente, debido a su importancia, el repertorio terminológico a estudiar en el proceso. El entorno inmediato donde se lleva a cabo el acto comunicativo es el de la enseñanza universitaria, y más concretamente en la Escola Tècnica Superior d’Enginyeria Informàtica. El interés de los participantes es alto, puesto que se trata de los futuros profesionales de la Ingeniería Informática. Así, el contexto es específico y, por lo tanto, no general, así como los participantes del hecho didáctico están en el camino de convertirse en expertos y no se trata del público en general. Por lo tanto, los participantes son conocedores tanto de los conceptos como de los términos correspondientes de su especialidad. Las unidades terminológicas constituyen un elemento de producción del conocimiento y un recurso de expresión lingüística que favorece la transmisión del conocimiento en el contexto especializado (Vargas, 2007: 43). La cuestión que aquí se plantea es en qué lenguas los alumnos han conocido los términos y en cuales son competentes.

Aquí, pues, necesitamos considerar un entorno más amplio: por un lado, la comunicación especializada de la informática y, por otro, la sociedad de la cual se forma parte. En primer lugar, la difusión y la comunicación de la ciencia informática se realiza principalmente en la lengua inglesa. Así se puede ver la influencia de ésta en diversos fenómenos lingüísticos en catalán y en castellano, por ejemplo el uso sistemático de las mayúsculas en los términos sintagmáticos (*Xarxa d'Àrea Local / Red de Área Local*), en la realización del plural de las siglas ajena a estas lenguas (*CDs, CD's, CD'S*) o en la inestabilidad del género correspondiente a determinados términos (*interfície / interfaz*).

En segundo lugar, en la comunidad lingüística catalana es una comunidad bilingüe, ya que tanto el catalán como el castellano son lenguas oficiales y conocidas por sus hablantes, aunque no de la misma manera. De acuerdo con Cabré (2000: 85), el castellano está mucho más consolidado social y políticamente que el catalán, mientras que éste es socialmente más débil por falta de una autonomía plena. Por lo tanto, la lengua catalana es una lengua minorizada, que no dispone de fuentes de divulgación de la ciencia informática comparables a las de la lengua inglesa y tampoco la española. Esto es así porque no dispone de revistas de divulgación, manuales de uso de hardware, etc. y, en cambio, tiene unos usos restringidos dentro del campo de la informática como algunos manuales de uso de software, manuales académicos, páginas web, foros electrónicos, etc. Con esta situación lingüística, el estudiantado generalmente conoce sobre todo los términos en lengua inglesa, que es la que genera el conocimiento informático y los términos correspondientes, y en castellano, como lengua preponderante, mientras que en catalán desconocen mayormente las soluciones terminológicas, a causa de las restricciones citadas más arriba. Además, las competencias, los usos, las prácticas y las actitudes lingüísticas del alumnado es comparable a la que hay en otros sectores o del conjunto de la población valenciana (Aparici & Castelló, 2011: 10).

Es por todo esto que el alumnado realiza numerosas interferencias y calcos entre el catalán y el castellano, especialmente castellanismos dentro del catalán. No obstante, se producen tanto castellanismos terminológicos en catalán como anglicismos terminológicos en esta lengua. El primer caso se debe a que los alumnos identifican el castellano como lengua más cercana al catalán que la lengua inglesa, y por analogía adoptan soluciones idénticas o parecidas. Por ejemplo: *formatejar*, aunque forma no normativa en catalán, es más parecida al término *formatear* del castellano, que el término normativo *formatar*. En el segundo caso, también se detectan anglicismos espontáneos en catalán, espacialmente con escritura fonética, como *ruter, búfer, aplet, hab*, etc. La lengua catalana se encuentra en medio de dos presiones, la del inglés en los ámbitos científicos, técnicos y culturales, y la del castellano en los usos coloquiales; y esta presión se materializa en una interferencia gramatical generalizada del castellano sobre el catalán y en una interferencia básicamente léxica del inglés sobre el catalán en los ámbitos de uso restringido temáticamente (Cabré, 2004b: 192).

Por otro lado, un factor que no se debe olvidar es la parte emotiva i afectiva por el objeto de estudio que presentan algunos estudiantes. De esta manera, los alumnos y las alumnas más motivados son los que conocen mejor la terminología en lengua catalana y los que producen menos errores y número menor de calcos y de transferencias terminológicas del castellano en la lengua catalana. A su vez, son los alumnos que más conocimiento tienen de la terminología planificada y dan soluciones terminológicas espontáneas en lengua catalana, mientras que los alumnos menos motivados o con poca afectividad por la lengua catalana o por su estudio presentan un mayor desconocimiento de la terminología planificada y producen soluciones terminológicas espontáneas en lengua castellana o inglesa. En catalán, a diferencia de lo que sucede en otras lenguas socialmente más fuertes, los hablantes actúan con mucha más prudencia y vacilan mucho antes de usar un neologismo espontáneo en un contexto público y formal (Cabré, 2004a: 17).

Por último, el principal objetivo de la enseñanza-aprendizaje de la terminología informática en lengua catalana forma parte de un objetivo superior, que es la formación de la competencia comunicativa (competencias lingüística, textual y pragmática), de las destrezas lingüísticas y de la competencia estratégica (Alcón, 2007: 260), en lengua catalana en el ámbito específico de la informática.

Por este motivo, existe desde el curso 1995-1996 una asignatura de lenguaje de especialidad en lengua catalana en la Ingeniería Informática de la Universitat Politècnica de València, en cuya programación hay una parte importante dedicada a la terminología, que es la que aquí nos ocupa.

- **La terminología informática en lengua catalana**

La popularización de la informática ha dado lugar a la informática de consumo y a un discurso que traspasa las fronteras de la especialidad, puesto que la informática ya no es sólo materia de expertos y ha entrado en todos los ámbitos profesionales y al gran público. Así, en la informática el proceso de creación de términos es muy abundante y éstos se divulgan de forma acelerada a diversos ámbitos comunicativos porque es la propia tecnología informática la que permite la rápida difusión de la terminología del campo de la informática. Este hecho produce cambios terminológicos como el envejecimiento y la desaparición de términos, la creación de éstos, la variación de conceptos, la adopción de términos ingleses, etc., todos estos cambios debidos tanto a la obsolescencia tecnológica como a las modificaciones y evoluciones tecnológicas sucesivas en poco tiempo.

Una de las características más destacadas de la terminología informática es que se produce una cierta inestabilidad terminológica formal y conceptual, ya que a menudo no hay un único término para un concepto, incluso entre expertos, y, por lo tanto, conviven términos con formas diversas para un mismo concepto. Por ejemplo: en inglés se generan diversos términos *conference group, discussion group, discussion forum, forum, interest group* y *newsgroup* para un mismo concepto y la terminología catalana tiene dos términos correspondientes que son *fòrum* y *grup de discussió*. Puesto que el castellano adopta diversas soluciones (*foro, foro de discusión, grupo de discusión, grupo de interés, grupo de noticias*), el alumnado a menudo produce calcos terminológicos en catalán tanto del inglés como del castellano. Un ejemplo contrario en el que el inglés propone un solo término y el catalán tiene más de uno, lo vemos en *upload*, con los correspondientes *penjar* y *pujar* del catalán. Como el castellano adopta las soluciones *cargar, colgar* y *subir,* se producen de nuevo calcos del castellano en catalán entre el alumnado, en este caso a partir del término castellano *cargar*, mostrándose el calco *carregar*.

Para una mejor comprensión y a causa del contacto lingüístico que hay entre las lenguas catalana y española, trataré la terminología catalana en contraste con la española. En catalán, los mecanismos de formación más importantes en la creación de terminología informática son la neología de significado y la neología de préstamo (Montesinos, 2009:

304-306). En la neología de significado destacan los términos formados por derivación, por combinación sintagmática y por metaforización. En los términos formados por derivación, mayormente, hay una clara coincidencia entre el catalán y el castellano, como se puede ver en el uso de los prefijos: *ciber-* (*cibernauta*), *hiper-* (*hipertextual*), *inter-* (*internet*), *meta-* (*metaetiqueta*), *micro-* (*microprocessador, microprocesador*), *multi-* (*multitasca*, *multitarea*), *tele-* (*teleensenyament, teleenseñanza*), hecho que generalmente facilita el buen uso terminológico del alumnado en las dos lenguas.

En el caso de la combinación sintagmática se producen menos casos paralelos entre las dos lenguas, dando lugar a un mayor número de calcos por parte del alumnado. Por ejemplo: *memòria flaix / memoria flash, memòria només de lectura / memòria sólo de lectura, algorisme de branca i límit / algoritmo de ramificación y delimitación*, etc.
Finalmente, en el caso de los términos metafóricos construidos en inglés, tanto el catalán como el castellano los adoptan manteniendo la forma metafórica en las lenguas de llegada, como se ve en los términos *file/fitxer/fichero, trash/paperera/papelera, net/xarxa/red, spider/aranya/araña, cookie/galeta/galleta, firewall/tallafoc/cortafuego, web site/lloc web/sitio web*, etc.

En cuanto a la neología de préstamo, hay que destacar que la terminología informática inglesa se asimila rápidamente, como lengua de referencia, modificando los términos o sin modificar. Generalmente, en catalán los términos ingleses se incorporan con algunos cambios gráficos y fonéticos, con un claro interés integrador en la lengua de llegada. En este sentido, en catalán, como en castellano, se detectan dos mecanismos espontáneos de tratamiento de los términos ingleses. El primero supone la adopción del término o préstamo sin ninguna modificación; el segundo es la adopción precipitada del término con adaptaciones ortográficas y fonéticas a la lengua de llegada. Este último mecanismo es el que sucede en la terminología planificada, aunque la adopción del término sin modificar también es habitual de la terminología planificada en un caso determinado que vemos a continuación. En catalán, los préstamos sin modificar se corresponden con las siglas como por ejemplo *PC (personal computer, ordinador personal), FTP (file transfer protocol, protocol de transferència de fitxers), GIF (graphics interchange format, format d'intercanvi de gràfics)* o *WAP* (*wireless application protocol, protocol d'aplicació sense fil),* que se toman tal y como son en inglés aunque tengan el término desarrollado correspondiente en catalán, llegando a tener entidad terminológica propia i independiente del sintagma que las ha originado. Incluso, hay siglas que son la única denominación terminológica posible en catalán, como en *HTML (hyper text markup language), HTTP (hyper text transmission protocol), USB (universal serial bus), URL (uniform resource locator)* o *IRC (internet relay xat).*

Por otra parte, los calcos o traducciones literales son un recurso de creación léxica muy frecuente en la neología de la sociedad de la información y, especialmente, de Internet. Los calcos paronímicos (con similitud formal) tienen más posibilidades de éxito que los calcos no paronímicos, por ejemplo, *domain* es fácilmente sustituible por *domini / dominio* y *access* por *accés / acceso*; aunque también hay calcos no paronímicos muy afortunados, como *motor de cerca /motor de búsqueda* para el término inglés *search engine* o *adjuntar /adjuntar* para *attach* (Mas, 2004: 33).

En comparación con el castellano, el catalán es más prudente en la creación de neologismos y sus hablantes también muestran una mayor prudencia en las situaciones formales. Por esto, la importancia de la neología planificada se ve reflejada en una menor incertidumbre terminológica y en un uso menor de préstamos puros y con adaptación fonética o morfológica (Montesinos, 2009: 311). Aquí hay que recordar que la terminología catalana ha tenido una atención especial porque está directamente relacionada con el proceso de normalización de esta lengua (Cassany & Lorente, 1996: 5).

- **La didáctica de la terminología informática en lengua catalana**

La terminología especializada se adquiere gradualmente al mismo ritmo que el aprendizaje conceptual, y pasa a ser el instrumento didáctico para secuenciar el aprendizaje y para establecer las progresiones curriculares en los programas; además, si la presencia de la terminología en la vida cotidiana es relevante, en el ámbito de la enseñanza es transcendental, ya que los alumnos de cualquier nivel están sometidos a una cantidad y a una calidad de *input* terminológico muy superior al que mantienen los hablantes corrientes de una lengua (Cassany & Lorente, 1996: 6).

Según Morell (1996: 39), el proceso de adquisición o de aprendizaje de un lenguaje de especialidad es de base cognitiva, i no innatista, y se han de tener en cuenta tanto factores internos como externos. Los primeros están unidos al individuo (aptitud, motivación, instrumentalidad, etc.) y los segundos están unidos principalmente, aunque no únicamente, a la naturaleza de cada especialidad.

Siguiendo Alcón (2007: 260) tanto el objetivo de aprendizaje como la metodología didáctica dan cuenta de la razón de ser de las lenguas específicas; en otras palabras, resulta conveniente que la actuación didáctica vaya precedida de la identificación de las necesidades comunicativas que determina la disciplina de especialidad, así como de la concreción en forma de objetivos de las intenciones educativas. Como ya se ha mencionado, con este objetivo, en un primer momento, se analizan los contenidos que estudian los futuros informáticos y se extraen los campos semánticos necesarios para la formación de la competencia comunicativa en la lengua de especialidad en catalán. Además, para conseguir un aprendizaje motivador y significativo se utilizan textos genuinos de la Ingeniería. Por otro lado, a pesar de las actuaciones terminológicas que se han tratado en los apartados anteriores, en el tratamiento de la terminología en el aula se debe tener en cuenta que las actuaciones particulares de los estudiantes suelen ser divergentes. Por esto, resulta necesario y de gran utilidad para el hecho didáctico la realización de un análisis de necesidades al principio del proceso mediante un cuestionario en el que se realizan preguntas de diferente índole. Por una parte, están las preguntas metacognitivas y de autoreflexión lingüística del tipo:

– ¿En qué lenguas eres un hablante competente?
– ¿En qué lenguas tienes competencia terminológica informática?
– ¿Utilizas la lengua catalana en contextos formales y académicos?

Por otra parte, están las preguntas relacionadas con el comportamiento lingüístico, y más concretamente terminológico, en la lengua catalana del alumnado, como las que siguen:

– ¿Qué términos se corresponden con los ingleses *hardware* y *software*?
– El término inglés *buffer*, en catalán ¿tiene traducción o adaptación?
– ¿Conoces los símbolos correspondientes a megabit y a megabyte en catalán?

Además, se incorporan al cuestionario algunas preguntas sobre cómo piensan los alumnos que aprenden mejor y más fácilmente la terminología. En este sentido, la mayoría de aprendices coinciden en remarcar el aprendizaje lúdico, a través de juegos léxicos.

Comenta Alcón (2007: 260), siguiendo Chamot (1987), que dentro de las estrategias de aprendizaje, se incluyen las metacognitivas, o reguladoras del proceso de aprendizaje (que incluyen técnicas encaminadas a la planificación, organización y autoevaluación del proceso de aprendizaje); las cognitivas, cuya finalidad es el aprendizaje de la lengua; y las sociales y afectivas encaminadas a buscar ayuda o a controlar los posibles factores afectivos que inciden en el proceso de aprendizaje. Todas estas estrategias se tienen en cuenta en todo el proceso. Así, en cuanto a las primeras, los alumnos realizan un diario a lo largo del aprendizaje, que dará lugar posteriormente a la memoria del aprendizaje terminológico (problemas planteados, soluciones posibles, términos no normativos o pendientes de normativizar, etc.); las estrategias cognitivas se trabajan a lo largo de los textos de la especialidad y las actividades correspondientes y como resultado el alumnado elabora un pequeño vocabulario trilingüe con la terminología adquirida; finalmente, en el aula se busca el interés del alumnado en los beneficios que aporta la formación en la lengua catalana y el conocimiento de la terminología profesional.

Así pues, se proponen tres etapas diferenciadas, en las que, inicialmente, resulta imprescindible realizar un sondeo para saber el nivel y el conocimiento terminológico y lingüístico en general, así como los posibles errores, para posteriormente aprender de éstos y subsanarlos. La siguiente fase se produce durante el proceso, que es cuando se presentan actividades en las que se consideran aquellos elementos terminológicos que se deben mejorar y aprender. Partiendo generalmente de textos de la especialidad informática, siendo de diferente género y tipología textual, los tipos de actividades que se plantean son los siguientes:

– completar espacios en blanco en textos, párrafos, frases.
– completar textos y frases con respuesta de opción múltiple.
– elegir soluciones terminológicas para una situación concreta.
– relacionar términos (términos y palabras origen, términos y derivados, términos y definiciones, términos e imágenes…).
– actividades con diccionarios electrónicos, además de las ya citadas anteriormente.
– redactar textos incluyendo términos determinados de antemano.

A lo largo de la asignatura, también se plantean actividades lúdicas, especialmente para el final de las sesiones en el aula, con pasatiempos (autodefinidos, sopas de letras…),

adivinanzas, etc., todas ellas relacionadas con la terminología informática en lengua catalana.
Finalmente, en la última fase del proceso, se plantea una prueba de contenidos terminológicos, mediante textos y preguntas cortas, elaboración, traducción y corrección de textos, con el objetivo de que cada alumno ponga a prueba los conocimientos adquiridos, teniendo el mismo peso en la evaluación que el diario y el vocabulario informático del alumno.

La mayoría de actividades están enfocadas en la lengua escrita, teniendo en cuenta que las actuaciones orales profesionales son planificadas con antelación y, por lo tanto, son escritas en un principio. No obstante, la expresión oral se trabaja en el aula a lo largo del proceso tanto de forma espontánea como con diversas actividades como una breve exposición oral sobre un tema específico o intercambio de información entre diversos alumnos.

- **Conclusiones**

En el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de la terminología informática en lengua catalana es necesario tener en cuenta la situación social de la lengua catalana, así como las características propias de la terminología de la especialidad informática. Por un lado, la situación social y académica del catalán genera numerosas interferencias lingüísticas de las lenguas inglesa y castellana en la lengua catalana. Éstas deben considerarse al principio, durante y al final del proceso educativo. Sólo así se podrá atender las vacilaciones e inseguridades que presentan los alumnos respecto de la terminología en catalán. Por otro lado, se unen a este fenómeno las continuas innovaciones y los sucesivos cambios que sufre la terminología informática en cualquier lengua. Por lo tanto, además de conseguir la formación en la competencia terminológica, dentro de la competencia comunicativa especializada, es vital dotar al alumnado de la capacidad necesaria para afrontar la evolución incesante que experimenta la informática y por lo tanto el lenguaje y la terminología que se genera de ello. Esto comporta desarrollar en el alumnado tanto el conocimiento de las fuentes fiables donde buscar y encontrar la terminología como la reflexión lingüística sobre las soluciones más adecuadas para los nuevos términos.

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5. 3º painel: Tradução

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Los contenidos metafóricos en la terminología económica

Resumen

La adquisición de las lenguas de especialidad con objetivos traduccionales exige una profunda competencia lingüística. El traductor e intérprete ha de desarrollar las técnicas adecuadas para poder reexpresar con eficacia los contenidos especialiados y metafóricos asociados al evento específico en el texto de origen.

La crisis económica mundial iniciada en 2007 constituye un buen banco de pruebas para enseñar la traducción de metáforas y la nueva terminología asociada a este evento. Partimos de la pregunta ¿cómo traducir *subprime crisis* o *subprime loan* a las lenguas meta? En la búsqueda de soluciones reparamos en que los hablantes de nuestras lenguas de trabajo (francés, español, portugués e italiano) utilizan, ante un término cultural americano, varias estrategias traductivas muchas de ellas de tipo metafórico, tanto en el plano discursivo como en el terminológico. Por ello, nuestra hipótesis es: ¿comparten la lengua de origen y las lenguas meta las mismas imágenes metafóricas para la crisis? o ¿la crisis económica, que se ha convertido en un fenómeno global, ha globalizado también su expresión en otras lenguas?

Palabras clave: Traducción, terminología, estrategias traductivas

- **Introducción**

Desde los últimos años del siglo XX vivimos importantes cambios de tendencias en todos los ámbitos de la política, economía y tecnología. Estos cambios han modificado a su vez nuestra forma de relacionarnos y de comunicarnos. Si nos ceñimos únicamente al ámbito de la economía comprobamos que se ha modificado también el comportamiento de los individuos y el lenguaje. De hecho la economía y las finanzas se han convertido en el centro de atención de todas las miradas y la noticia obligada en todos los medios de comunicación. Otros campos influyentes como la política y el deporte hacen suya la terminología económica[1]

Gobernanza y economía se entremezclan, si bien esta profusión de términos económicos no siempre se muestra con toda su carga semántica. Sirvan de ejemplo los múltiples eufemismos económicos con los que se pretenden representar un mismo concepto: préstamo, *línea de crédito, rescate suave, rescate*, etc. El ex presidente de España, D. José Luís Zapatero para evitar el término crisis hablaba de *desaceleración acelerada del crecimiento*; el actual presidente, D. Mariano Rajoy en vez de rescate emplea *línea de crédito, inyección de liquidez y préstamo*. Y es que en la política se acude con mucha facilidad al mecanismo del eufemismo*: regulación de empleo* por paro; *racionalización del gasto público* por recorte, etc. Así *crecimiento negativo*, *pequeña etapa de recesión económica*, etc. son otros términos para referirse a la crisis que padecemos desde el año 2007.

Por su parte, los medios de comunicación que informan sobre la situación, también aluden, aunque de otro modo, a los conceptos económicos que además contribuyen a divulgar. Para su explicación utilizan distintas estrategias, junto a la utilización de préstamos, anglicismos, calcos morfológicos o sintácticos del inglés (en nombre de la puridad), podemos ver variantes nacionales propias que trasladan a la lengua meta los conceptos especializados, entre los que también encontramos metáforas. El lenguaje, especialmente el lenguaje económico, resulta extraordinariamente amplio y dinámico. Ha tomado de la medicina o sanidad términos como: *resfriado, inyección*, *diagnóstico, banco malo* o *entidad saneada* y se ve al sistema financiero y económico actual como un *paciente, enfermo*; de la meteorología encontramos: *turbulencias* o *tsunami*; del medio ambiente: *hipoteca basura, activos tóxicos*, etc. En realidad el valor de las palabras depende de cada hablante y de los que manipulan la lengua para imponer su punto de vista.

Las necesidades de comunicación impuestas por el contexto profesional imponen a su vez un incremento en la atención a la enseñanza de las lenguas de especialidad y a metodologías que conceden mayor importancia a la actividad comunicativa de los futuros profesionales en situaciones reales. Por ello tomamos como base el estudio de los conceptos especializados en la prensa, para mostrar a nuestros estudiantes las múltiples estrategias expresivas que deben incorporar a su práctica traductiva.

- **El concepto crisis subprime**

Desde que la burbuja de los tulipanes explotó en 1637 hasta nuestros días la historia ha conocido diferentes crisis económicas que han generado cambios de mayor o menor calado. Una de las que más se ha hablado es el desplome de los precios y la caida de la Bolsa en 1929 que condujo a lo que se ha denominado la Gran Depresión y que duró más de 10 años. El siglo XX ha conocido otras crisis y los mercados han conseguido autorregularse. Sin embargo la crisis de las hipotecas de alto riesgo que ha generado la crisis económica y financiera que estamos viviendo en la actualidad se ha iniciado en el verano 2007 y todavía nadie sabe cómo salir de ella. En España, uno de los mejores divulgadores del fenómeno es el economista Leopoldo Abadia[2] cuya explicación se puede seguir en su blog.

- **Corpus**

La crisis de las hipotecas de alto riesgo cumple los requisitos básicos que nos hemos marcado para llevar a buen puerto esta investigación. Pues se trata de un fenómeno universal, de gran actualidad y además se presenta como una amplia base de datos en la que cada día desde que saltó a la luz pública en los medios de comunicación en 2007 hasta la actualidad aparecen nuevos términos y/o nuevas variantes. El seguimiento de las noticia nos permite analizar el comportamiento de los divulgadores de la información pertenecientes a distintas culturas en un periodo de tiempo suficientemente largo que nos permitirá llevar a cabo un estudio cronológico y la gradual introducción de los mismos.

Consideramos que el lenguaje periodístico se adapta perfectamente a nuestro estudio por lo que hemos constituido un corpus formado, a su vez, por cuatro subcorpus de dos diarios, uno especializado y otro de divulgación para cada cultura objeto de análisis (España, Francia, Portugal e Italia).

	Español (ES)	Francés (FR)	Italiano (IT)	Portugués (PT)
Prensa generalista	EP: *El País*	LF: *Le Figaro*	ICS: *Il Corriere della sera*	P: *Público*

Prensa especializada	EX: *Expansión*	LE : *Les Échos*	IS024O : *Il Sole 24 ore*	JN: *Jornal de Negócios*

Figura 1: Corpus de extracción

Con el propósito de explotar de forma eficaz nuestros textos hemos tratado de trabajar con un corpus que nos permita desarrollar un enfoque diacrónico capaz de responder a las exigencias de recopilación que proponen Pascaline Dury et Aurélie Picton es decir: « homogénéité, diachronicité et contrastivité » (2009: 37).

- **Metodología**

Se analizarán las variantes lingüísticas y las expresiones metafóricas referidas a los conceptos mencionados en su contexto. En los documentos analizados hemos constatado que el concepto de *crisis subprime* y *crédito subprime* reviste distintas denominaciones en las lenguas románicas tratadas. Con el objetivo de elaborar una traducción especializada de calidad en las distintas combinaciones lingüísticas conviene analizar de forma detallada las diferentes denominaciones utilizadas para el mismo concepto. Para ello hemos seguido el modelo de la Socioterminología, especialmente los estudios sobre la variación de la profesora brasileña Enilde Faulstich a cuyas reflexiones añadimos las aportaciones de Freixa. En los dos esquemas siguientes resumimos las causas de la variación lingüística (Freixa 2002) y a continuación el modelo teórico que propone Faulstich (2002 : 70 y siguientes):

Tipo	Causa y subtipos
0. Causas previas	Redundancia lingüística Arbitrariedad del signo lingüístico Posibilidades de variación de la lengua
I. Causas dialectales	Diferentes orígenes de los autores: • Variación geográfica • Variación cronológica • Variación social
II. Causas funcionales	Diferentes registros comunicativos: • Adecuación al nivel de lengua • Adecuación al nivel de especialización
III. Causas discursivas	Diferentes necesidades estilísticas y expresivas de los autores: • Evitar la repetición • Economía lingüística • Creatividad, énfasis y expresividad
IV. Causas interlingüísticas	Contacto entre lenguas: • Convivencia del término "local" con el préstamo • Diversidad de propuestas alternativas
V. Causas cognitivas	Diferentes conceptualizaciones y motivaciones: • Imprecisión conceptual • Distanciación ideológica • Diferencias en la conceptualización

Figura 2: Causas de variación denominativa según Freixa (2002)

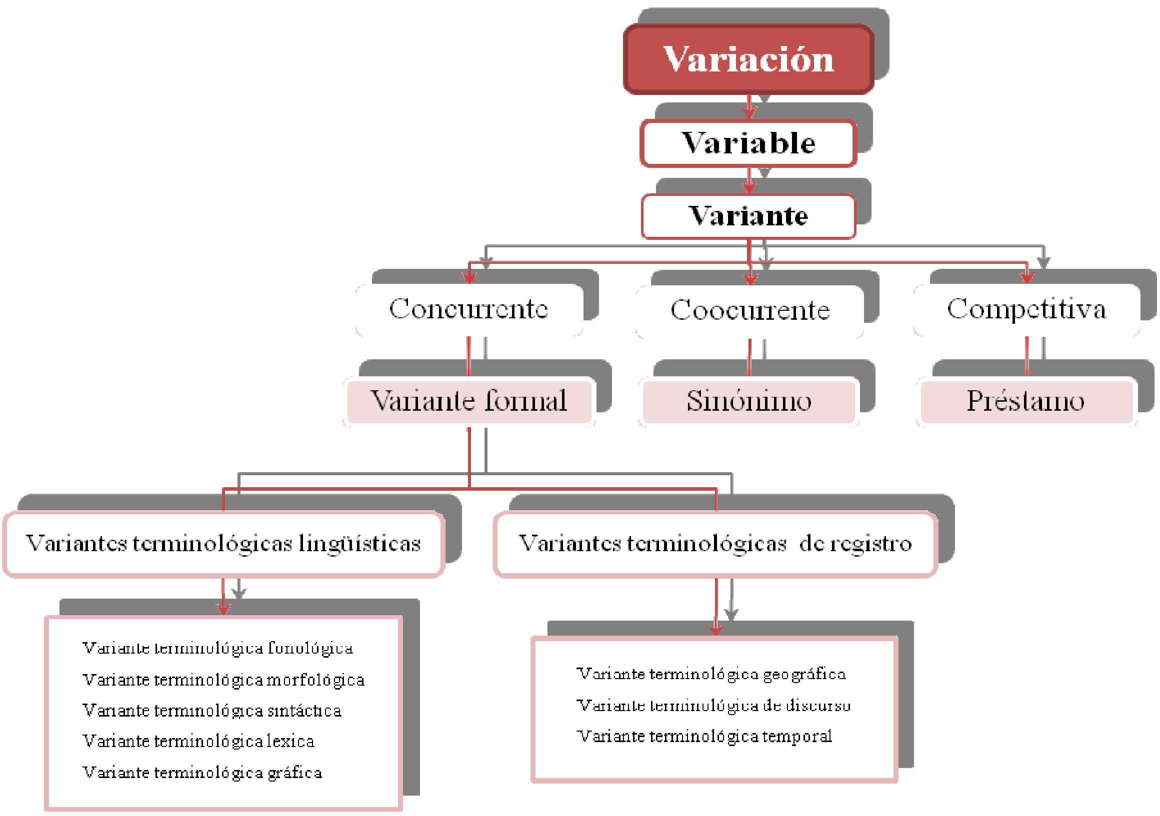

Figura 3: Tipos de variación. Adaptado de Faulstich (2002)

La propuesta de las causas de la variación de Freixa resulta especialmente interesante para nuestro estudio en lo referido a las causas funcionales, discursivas e interlingüísticas. El modelo de Faustich nos permite clasificar las variantes en base a tres criterios fundamentales para el traductor que ha de saber cuál es el motivo de la variación y el uso antes de decidirse por una u otra variante en un determinado texto.

Distingue tres tipos de variantes:

- Las variantes formales cuya variación puede ser de tipo lingüístico (variantes terminológicas lingüísticas) o extralingüísticas aunque vinculadas al texto, es decir a la terminología en contexto como sucede con las variantes de registro, variantes geográficas, del discurso o cronológicas.
- Las variantes sinonímicas o variantes co-ocurrentes en un mismo discurso.
- Las variantes competitivas, es decir, concurrentes en el sistema lingüístico: los préstamos lingüísticos.

Coincidimos con Faulstich (2002: 77) en que, dado el carácter dinámico de los fenómenos lingüísticos y concretamente la integración de un concepto extranjero en la lengua, cabe la posibilidad de identificar diferentes escenarios denominativos para un nuevo concepto en diferentes momentos: presencia del préstamo y/o de la formación neológica nacional, creación de compuestos o de derivados híbridos, creación de unidades terminológicas complejas híbridas en las lenguas meta, creación de un calco y utilización del término extranjero y del término con la ortografía adaptada a la lengua meta. Además, llamamos la atención sobre el uso de la metáfora en algunos de las creaciones nacionales pues en la lengua de la economía y las finanzas se acude con frecuencia a expresiones metafóricas como estrategia eficaz para explicar conceptos desconocidos. El traductor ha de escoger en qué medida y cuál es la mejor manera de trasladar el contenido del texto de origen a la lengua meta. Por ello, se hace necesario un conocimiento sobre las causas y sobre la variación denominativa registrada para ese concepto en lengua meta para poder decidir cuál es el término más adecuado para designarlo.

- **Análisis de la denominación de *subprime* en la prensa europea**

Variantes formales

Constatamos que las variantes formales de tipo lingüístico son muy frecuentes en la introducción de préstamos. Así encontramos en la prensa europea **variantes gráficas** como en los ejemplos siguientes en portugués (de ahora en adelante PT): crise do 'subprime' (Figueiredo Silva 19/07/2012 *Diario Económico),* crise do "subprime" (Melo, Eduardo-Ferreira, Cristina 25/10/2007 *Público)* o crise do *subprime* (Faria, Ana Rita 27/01/2011 *Público*); en español (ES): crisis 'subprime', crisis subprime (*Expansión* 21/05/2009), crisis *subprime* (*Expansión* 21/05/2009), la crisis de las hipotecas 'basura' (*El País* 13/08/2007, la crisis de las 'hipotecas basura' (*El País* 03/11/2007). En italiano (IT) y en francés (FR) los signos tipográficos también varían, unas veces los términos aparecen entre comillas y otras en cursiva. La introducción del préstamo se registra en prensa especializada y en prensa general.

En el caso de las **variantes morfológicas** el elemento de variación radica en la estructura morfológica. Señalemos un ejemplo en expresiones metafóricas en PT y en IT donde la variación se encuentra en el orden de los constituyentes: *verdes rebentos / rebentos verdes* o en *banco mau / mau banco* (PT), en *buona banca / banca buona* y en *verdi germogli /germogli verdi* (IT). En estos ejemplos interfiere la formación propia de la lengua inglesa cuya estructura habitual es adjetivo+sustantivo (*green shoots, bad banks*) que provoca el calco morfológico. En portugués dichos calcos alternan con las variantes que respectan el orden normal de las palabras, esto es, sustantivo+adjetivo, propio de la lengua portuguesa. Se trata pues de variantes morfológicas en las que también interviene el préstamo morfológico, por cuanto se toma prestado un modo foráneo de construir el término.

En cuanto a las **variantes sintácticas** se refiere, es decir aquellas en las que la variación se produce en la composición de los sintagmas con distintas estructuras que se presentan como [sustantivo+adjetivo] o como la variante [sustantivo+complemento nominal] podemos destacar los ejemplos siguientes: *crise hipotécaria/ crise das hipotecas de alto risco; crédito à habitação/ crédito à habitação de alto risco, crédito hipotecário/ crédito hipotecário de alto risco, crédito mal parado/crédito malparado das imobiliárias* (PT). En español: *crisis hipotecaria/ crisis de las hipotecas basura, crisis crediticia/ crisis del mercado de crédito* (ES), etc. y en francés destacamos: *crédit à* *risque/crédit risqué, actif à risque/actif risqué* (FR) En estos casos el complemento del nombre se une al substantivo mediante la preposición "à" o "de" con la finalidad de completar o ampliar el sentido.

La unidad terminológica, en l**as variantes léxicas,** presenta variaciones provocadas por la economía de elementos lingüísticos: *crisi dei subprime* ou *crisi subprime* (IT); *crise do subprime/crise subprime; mercado de crédito à habitação de alto risco* (PT)**.** Señalemos igualmente en francés las formas concurrentes: *prêts subprime américains, prêts subprime à risque* y *prêts subprime*. La explicación del préstamo suele ser frecuente en unidades terminológicas complejas como *crédit immobilier à risque, crédit hypothécaire à risque* que coexisten con la forma reducida *crédit à risque*. Las formas *prêt immobilier à risque*, *prêt hypothécaire à risque* alternan con *prêt à risque*. *Crédit hypothécaire à haut risque* y *prêt hypothécaire à haut risque* también aparecen junto a formas reducidas. *Crédit à haut risque* y *prêt à haut risque* pasan a *prêts à risque* o a *crédits à risque* (FR) donde hay que notar la ausencia de los adjetivos « immobilier » y « haut » ante el substantivo « risque ». En italiano, español y en portugués encontramos la misma tendencia: *crisi dei mutui subprime* o *crisi dei mutui ad alto rischio/crisi dei mutui; mutuo ipotecario di qualità non primaria / mutuo di qualità non primaria* (IT). En portugués: *crédito hipotecário de alto risco/crédito de alto risco; empréstimos imobiliários de alto risco, empréstimos de risco; crise do crédito subprime/crise do subprime* (PT). En español: *créditos subprime, préstamos subprime, préstamos de alto riesgo, créditos de alto riesgo, créditos hipotecarios de alto riesgo, préstamos hipotecarios de alto riesgo, créditos hipotecarios (subprime), hipotecas de mala calidad, préstamos hipotecarios (subprime)* (ES).

No trataremos aquí las variantes formales de registro que se circunscriben a lo que otros autores denominan variación dialectal, que se establece según las variables temporales, geográficas o situacionales. Un contraste de textos emitidos en un período temporal más extenso, en diferentes países con la misma lengua o con finalidades diferentes —en este momento está aún en curso— comienzan a revelarnos estas variaciones que trataremos en futuros trabajos. Sirvan de ejemplo: os *bancos ruins* do portugués do Brasil para el concepto *bad bank* o *verdes rebentos* para os *Green shoots*.

- **Variantes sinonímicas**

Las variantes sinonímicas son muy frecuentes en la prensa en general y en los diarios que hemos seleccionado en particular. Debido al carácter divulgador, género y destinatario al que va dirigido el texto estas variantes resultan más transparentes al lector no especialista en la materia. A la hora de decidir el traductor también ha de tener en cuenta la claridad y la precisión que ofrece el término. Sirva de ejemplo la variación que registramos entre los términos que designa el instrumento económico en que se materializa: *préstamo, mutui, prêt* y el instrumento jurídico que lo sustenta: *hipoteca* (ES), *titoli* (IT), *título* (PT). Que agrupamos por orden de aparición en cada lengua: *crédit* (FR) ; *hipoteca* (ES) ; *mutuo, titoli* (IT) y *crédito* (PT). Si bien, son estas las formas preferidas en cada una de las comunidades meta, también conviene explicar que figuran las otras variantes. De lo que deducimos la tendencia en España a aludir preferentemente al instrumento jurídico. También conviene saber que en el caso del portugués es la fórmula *crédito à habitação* la fórmula más habitual.

- **Variantes competitivas**

Las variantes competitivas nos dan una muestra de la dinamicidad denominativa en cada una de las lenguas. En el estudio del recorrido de la crisis y su expresión en la prensa detectamos la convivencia entre el préstamo *subprime* y las múltiples variantes nacionales que han intentado expresar el concepto. Ahora bien, conviene indicar que esta no se produce del mismo modo en cada período ni de la misma manera para la denominación de la crisis, como de los productos que la causan.

Si en un primer momento el término *subprime* estaba presente en todas las noticias, casi siempre marcado gráficamente como hemos indicado en el apartado dedicado a las variantes formales gráficas (cursiva, comillas etc.) y acompañadas de una paráfrasis en que se explica el concepto en lengua nacional entre paréntesis o como aposición o bien acompañadas del adjetivo "americano" para aludir al origen. Como se puede comprobar en: *crédits subprime (crédit immobilier américain comportant un risque élevé de défaut de paiement)* (Le Figaro, 2007) ; *Même la crise du « subprime » américain a été gérée sans risque systémique.* (Les Échos 01/06/2007).

Conforme avanza la crisis la paráfrasis de *subprime* se reduce y pasa el término nacional a ocupar el lugar preferente. Podemos ver la evolución entre: *le "subprime" (les crédits immobiliers à risque américains) ou la crise du « subprime », le crédit immobilier à risque américain* (Les Échos, 2008) / *les crédits hypothécaires à risque aux Etats-Unis ("subprime") au moment de la bulle immobilière* (Les Echos, 2010). El préstamo deja su lugar a la variante nacional y en algunos casos desaparece su referencia como ocurre con los productos subprime.

En el caso de la designación de los productos, a saber los créditos hipotecarios, prevalece la creación de unidades nacionales en forma de unidades terminológicas complejas que han acabado por imponerse al préstamo. En este proceso de creación neológica entran en juego las metáforas o imágenes que vehiculan el concepto de crisis que es necesariamente negativo y variado en cada lengua. En el discurso ya hemos citado que la economía pasa a verse como un enfermo, como un paciente por estar contaminada por unos productos que pueden ser tóxico (*titoli tossici* IT), basura (*hipotecas basura* ES), lleno de riesgo (*crédit immobilier à risque* FR) o de resultado fallido (*crédito malparado* PT).

La fijación de estas imágenes en cada una de las comunidades meta tampoco ha estado exenta de vacilaciones y junto a estas formas mayoritarias en cada una de las lenguas figuran otras que han quedado en el camino, como la imagen de la baja calidad que registramos en términos como: *Hipoteca de mala calidad* (ES), *Crédit hypothécaire à/de mauvaise qualité*_(FR), *Mutuo de qualità non primaria* (IT), *Crédito hipotecário de má qualidade* (PT). Otra imagen común a varias lenguas es la del riesgo pero intensificado por el adjetivo alto, presente igualmente en todas ellas. Sin embargo localizamos imágenes que son exclusivas a alguna de las lenguas. Por ejemplo, la toxicidad en: *préstamo tóxico* (ES) o en *prêt toxique* (FR) o las exclusivas *crédito cattivo* (IT) o *crédito problemático* (PT).

En resumen, la variación competitiva se registra normalmente entre el préstamo y la variante nacional y también entre las distintas propuestas denominativas nacionales en proceso de fijación. Las imágenes que estas adoptan son variadas pero solo triunfarán aquellas que los destinatarios de los textos, las sociedades de recepción, conocen de mejor manera o son más acordes y conocidas en estas.

- **Conclusión**

La crisis económica se revela como un fenómeno de impacto global que presenta al mundo conceptos de ámbito norteamericano (*subprime*) y su incidencia en otras latitudes motiva la necesidad de conocer en parte el sistema crediticio norteamericano. El fenómeno de la crisis se ha instalado en nuestras sociedades desde hace ya más de cinco años, tiempo en que los divulgadores de la economía en prensa han tenido que hacer un esfuerzo didáctico, no sólo para explicar el fenómeno de origen foránea, sino también en expresarlos de la manera más comprensible posible para su público general, para lo que han explorado varias vías. La comprensión del evento "crisis económica subprime" a través de la prensa europea nos muestra las variadas estrategias variacionistas de las lenguas que atañen no solo al nivel léxico, sino también al morfológico o sintáctico y el traductor ha de tener en cuenta en la observación qué variantes concurren en un mismo texto para poder reutilizarlas, si el texto paralelo se produce en las mismas condiciones y situación que el texto meta o si está ante variantes que compiten y ante las que tendrá que decantarse. La prensa especializada es más rica y precisa que la lengua común, pero también es la principal vía de introducción de los términos extranjeros.

La posibilidad de que estos se extiendan a la lengua general depende, tanto de la cronología, como de varios factores: el conocimiento previo del público meta, la capacidad didáctica de los redactores para crear denominaciones alternativas y su posición sobre aspectos lingüísticos. El traductor profesional ha de tener en cuenta todas estas variables para reflejar del modo más fiel posible el espíritu del texto original y a la vez respetar al lector del texto meta. Analizar las causas de la variación y su forma teniendo en cuenta las variables citadas aseguran una traducción de calidad.

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Metaphorical extensions and the translation of nautical terms prefixed with -a

Abstract

The aim of this paper is two-fold: First, to analyze the meanings and metaphorical extensions into Standard English of *abeam, aboard, ahead, a-hull, alee, aloof,, a-port, a quarter, a-starboard, astern* and *athwart* from a cognitive and linguistic perspective (Burton-Roberts, 1991; Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Kövecses, 2002). Second, to study the translation of examples of real usage into Spanish containing these terms from different written sources from 1850 to 1920 (*Captain Cook's journal during the first voyage round the world, The loss of the SS Titanic, Captains courageous,* etc.) and the internet.

Results point out that the mental visualization of movement in these terms -with the occasional co-occurrence of reference objects- contributes significantly to the metaphorical extensions that these terms have developed in Late Modern English.

Key words: Maritime English, metaphorical extension, translation, English-Spanish, Cognitive Linguistics.

- **Introduction: Maritime English for engineering students, studies on words prefixed with –*a* and aim of this paper**.

Maritime English has come of age. Bocanegra (2012) differentiates five different subvarieties according to the specific purpose they serve within the maritime context: English for navigation and maritime communications, English for maritime commerce, English for maritime law, English for marine engineering, and English for shipbuilding. This paper is in keeping with the first group, English for navigation and maritime communications (also known as Nautical English).

I shall focus on a very specific subset within this subvariety in written English, that of nautical terms prefixed with -a. Some of these terms have currently a vernacular usage, for example: *adrift* means "not moored, at the will of the wind and tide. From Middle English drifte (to float). Sailors used the word to describe anything missing or come undone". From this word came drifter, a person without purpose or aim in life.

This paper is organized as follows: the meanings in Standard English of *abeam, aboard, ahead, a-hull, alee, aloof, a-port, a-quarter, a-starboard, astern and athwart* are described from a cognitive and linguistic perspective (Burton-Roberts, 1991; Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Kövecses, 2002; Talmy, 2000) in section II. The metaphorical extension and translation examples of real usage into Spanish containing these terms from different written sources from 1850 to 1920 (Captain Cook's journal during the first voyage round the world, The loss of the SS Titanic, Captains courageous, etc.) and the internet are provided in section III. These real texts were translated in class by 20 Naval Engineering students with a B.2 level in the subject "Naval English" in the course 2011-2012. Some final remarks will conclude this preliminary study in section IV.

- **Meanings and metaphorical extensions of nautical terms prefixed with –a.**

Several studies (Aarts 1997, Huddleston & Pullum 2002, Rhee, 2002, Tyler & Evans 2003) have been carried out about these terms. To put it briefly, they reach two conclusions:

- These forms come from OE on+ noun.
- They have undergone a process of lexicalization in Modern English reflected in ther spelling: a- , indicating a process of phonological reduction (Rhee 2002).

Table 1 summarizes their date of origin and their meaning in English.

WORD	DATE	MEANING
ABEAM	1836	In a line at right angles to the ship's length, opposite to the centre of her side.
ABOARD	1494	On board, within the boards of a ship.
AHEAD	1596	At the head.
A-HULL	1582	With all sails furled and the helm lashed to head into the wind, as in heavy weather.
ALEE	1399	On or toward the lee or sheltered side of the ship; away from the wind.
ALOOF	1532	Away, to the Windward.
A-PORT	1627	On or towards the port side of the ship.
A-QUARTER	1849	On the quarter, i.e. abaft the beam.
A-STARBOARD	1627-30	On or toward the starboard or right side of the ship when looking forward.
ASTERN	1627	In or at the stern.
ATHWART	1470 1762-9 1693	-From side to side of, transversely over, across. -From side to side of a ship. -Across or transversely to the course or direction of .

Talmy's (2000) concepts of *figure* and *ground* are used to describe the movement of these terms presented in section III.

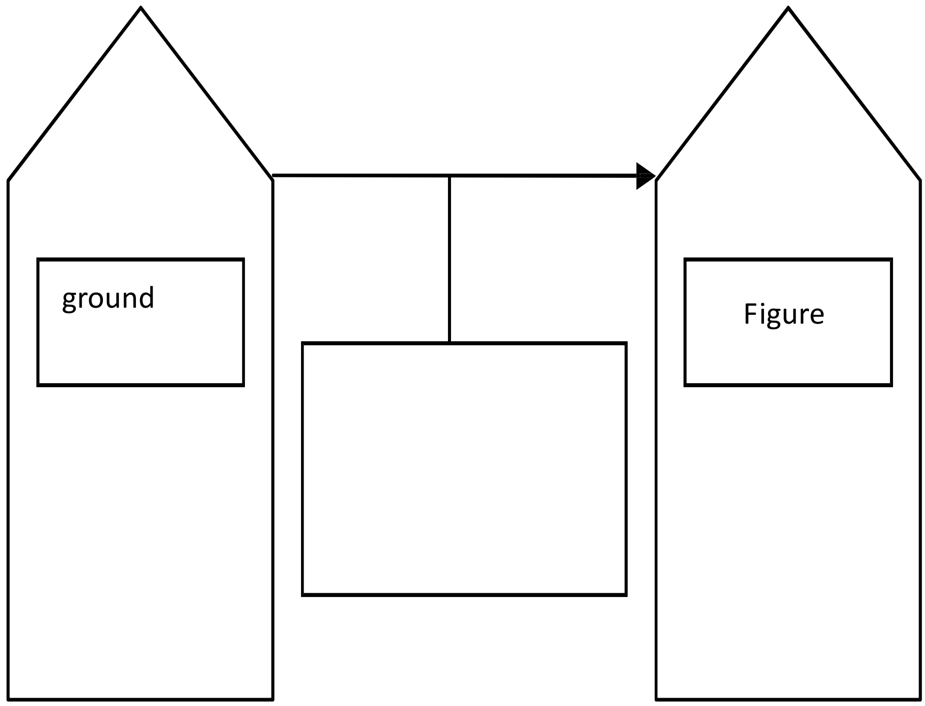
- **Metaphorical extensions and translations into Spanish**

The terms are listed in alphabetical order. Some figures drawn using Talmy's model (2000) to explain the different types of movement are included.

iii.1. *Abeam* requires the presence of a figure that is movable in most cases (see figure 1 below). It is used with verbs that indicate STATE. The prototypical translation into Spanish found in bilingual translation dictionaries and glossaries (i.e. The Marine Encyclopaedic Dictionary) is "por el través". However, the translation changes according to the position of the figure as in examples 1 and 2. Finally, it is also interesting to note that both figure and ground are similar in example 1 describing two ships; either one can be interpreted as figure and/ or ground:

(1) SPB- 'if the ships were 'by the wind' or close-hauled--the column-leaders were not *abeam* of each other' (1 SPB) > *uno al lado del otro*. (Person is looking the movement from outside the ground).

(2) PBEH- Those are the lights abeam of us: look (2PBEH)> Aquellas son las luces *frente a nosotros: mira*. (When the person is inside the ground, the lights and the other ship is the figure in this sentence). Both figure and ground are similar in example 1.



MOVEMENT WITH

FIGURE 1. ABEAM.

iii. 2. *Aboard*

It is a term which lexicalizes the ground. It is used nowadays in other means of transport, as stated by Rhee (2002:145), which clearly points at a generalization of its use. Students had no difficulty in translating this term by the correct Spanish equivalent, *a bordo*:

(3) At Marseilles, going aboard some boat of the Messageries.

It is important to note that *aboard* is also used in other contexts and has metaphorical extensions as in example 4, translated into Spanish as *tener vino en el cuerpo* [lit, "having drunk wine"]:

(4) having more courage and more wine aboard than the rest (*Memoirs of Henry Hunt* (vol. 1).

iii.3 *ahead*

It is the most polysemous term. The original meaning refers to something placed before the ship, outside the ship, not in the bow of the ship. Etymologically, it comes from figurehead. It finally evolved to *ahead* to indicate the bow of the ship. Students opted for standard adequate translations found in several dictionaries (*ir avante, por la proa, adelante*). See examples 5 to 7:

(5) Six ships were ordered to go ahead during the night (267 SPB)

(6) Ahead and astern of this the ships were not all in each other's wake (270 SPB)

(7) The second vessel was a small steamer some few miles ahead of the port side (349 LTB).

Students were reminded that *ahead* also has a metaphorical meaning outside the Maritime register fairly frequent in current English, as in example (8) coming from *Tell Me Lies* lyrics and (9) taken from the Internet which can be translated into Spanish in different ways: *con anticipación, más allá, a la cabeza.*

(8) I'm ahead of the rest. And proud of the fact that I've accomplished that.

(9) Having entered next year ahead of time.

iii.4 *a-hull*.

Students were shown figure 2, which explains the movement with *a-hull*. It is a navigation technique whose translation into Spanish is *navegar a palo seco*, as in example 10 taken from Internet below:

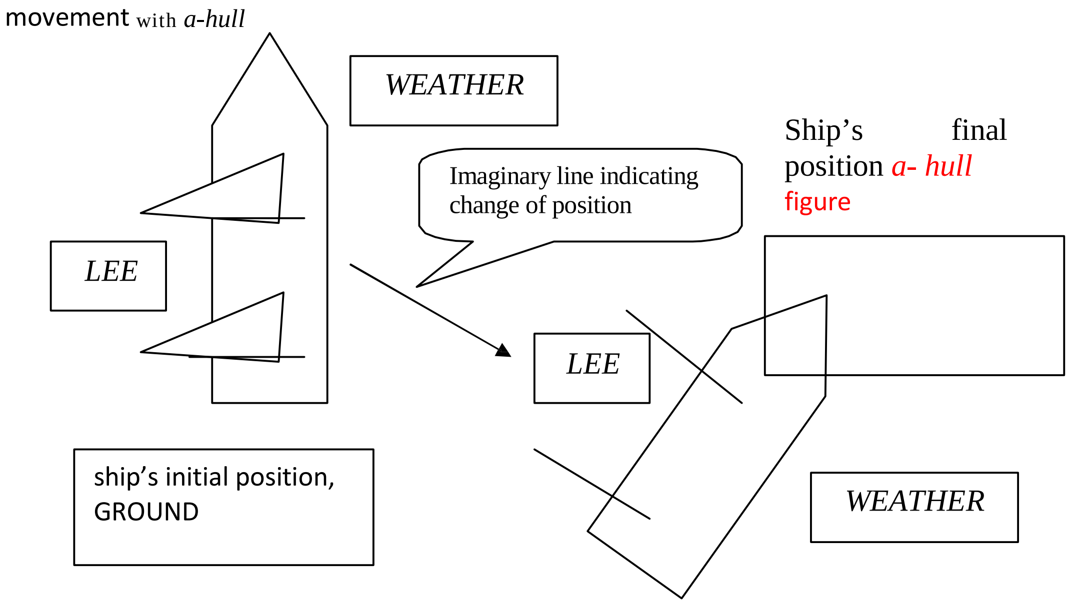


FIGURE 2. A-HULL

(10) There may very well be occasions where lying a'hull would work. I know the Hiscocks used the technique as well as dozens of others very respected cruisers.

iii. 5. *alee*

It lexicalizes the path as shown in figure 3. The ground position is not fixed as in *a-port*,

a-starboard. Visualizing the movement helped for its adequate translation into Spanish in example 11:

(11) to fling helm a-lee (438FRC)> *meter el timón a sotavento*.

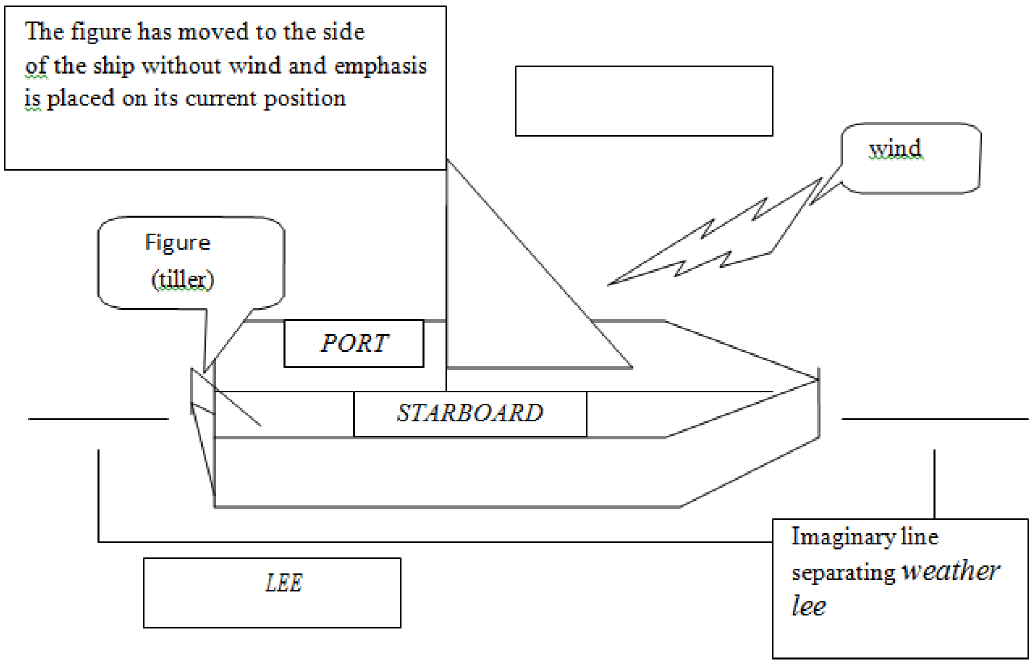


FIGURE 3. ALEE

iii.6. *aloof*

Etymologically, the term comes from *a-* + Middle English *loof* (="weather gage," also "windward direction"), originally a nautical order to keep the ship's head to the wind, thus to stay clear of a lee-shore or some other quarter whose translation into Spanish is *a barlovento de.*

It is to be noted that this term has been replaced in current English by *windward* and it has taken on a metaphorical extension from a space in a ship to space in other places and also it is nowadays a figurative space as in examples 12 and 13.

(12) The men all stood aloof to watch> *Todos los hombres se alejaron para mirar*.

(13) The infidels held aloof > *Los infieles se mantuvieron a distancia.*

iii. 7. *a-port*

This term is similar to *a-poop* as it lexicalizes both the path and the ground. It appears with a CAUSE. Students had no relevant problems to render it into Spanish as the standard translation found in several dictionaries is *a babor* (examples 14 and 15) but sometimes, the translation into Spanish is *de babor* in the collocation “aport lights”.

(14) 540LHLNS- They (….) put the helm a-port.

(15) 541CC- She had put the tiller hard aport.

iii.8. *a-quarter*

The movement indicated by this term is shown in figure 4 (on the quarter, i.e. abaft the beam).

Students are also reminded that this term has evolved to a higher abstraction as indicated by Heine et al. (1991), showing more a condition or quality more than a position. They were obviously more interested in its naval use (example 16) and their two possible translations into Spanish:

(16) 1849 Blackw. Mag. LXV.333, I felt the ship bring her wind a-quarter.>*El viento soplaba/ azotaba el barco de babor. /El viento azotaba el barco por la aleta de babor.*

Movement with *a-quarter*

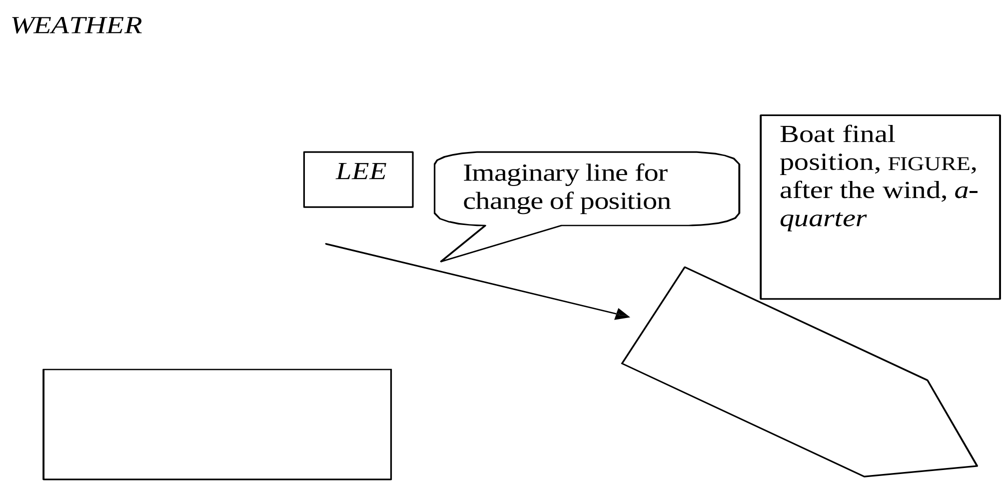


FIGURE 4. AQUARTER

iii.9. *a-starboard*

It is exclusive of maritime register and indicates the final point of the path. The figure is the *tiller*. Several translation dictionaries and glossaries coincide in the translation, *a estribor*.

(17) 542LHNS- he ordered the helm to be put a-starboard.

(18) 543LHNS- Nelson therefore directed Captain Miller to put the helm a-starboard.

iii.10. *astern*

This term is almost restricted to Maritime usage and the movement is shown in figure 5 below. The translations vary according to context. Example 19 admits a functional equivalent, *quedaron atrás*, and the standard translation found in glossaries (a/por la popa), the latter also used in examples 20 and 21:

(19) 550 LHLNS The SALVADOR DEL MUNDO and SAN ISIDRO dropped astern.

(20) 553 LHLNS the MAJESTIC, (…) got entagled with (…) of one of the French ships astern of the ORIENT.

(21) 571 SPB Taking up a position ahead or astern of hostile ship so as to be able to rake her.

MOVEMENT WITH ASTERN

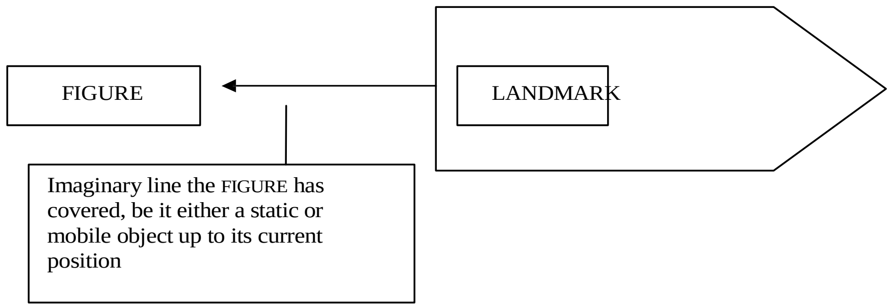


FIGURE 5. ASTERN

iii. 11 *athwart*

It's one of the most frequent terms in the maritime register and it lexicalizes the trajectory. It is connected with light, air and the sky. Its translation into Spanish poses no problem for the maritime Engineering students. In example 22 Thompson's ship is placed crossed before the Orient crossing its hawse, that is, the space situated before the prow and it is translated *por el través;* in example 23 *athwart* is used with a basic verb of movement and the translation changes slightly, *a través*. By contrast, example 24 has taken on a metaphorical meaning (SPACE IN THE SHIP> SPACE IN OTHER PLACES > FIGURATIVE SPACE) whose translation requires modulation. An obstacle is overcome: *estas rocas gigantescas de la costumbre y la tradición que se ciernen imponentes ante nuestros nuevos planes.*

(22) 590LHLNS- Captain Thompson, (…), advanced with the intention of anchoring athwart-hawse of the ORIENT.

(23) 612DAB- the earth's orbit runs slantingly athwart it .

(24) 616MMW- those gigantic rocks of custom and tradition that loom so forbiddingly athwart all our further plans.

- **Final considerations**

The comparison of the examples and their translations with the aims which served as a starting point for the present study renders the following concluding remarks. I am cautious about the interpretations provided here on the basis of the study of the sample. Further research on a more extended corpus of maritime English examples is needed to assess to what extent the data presented here reveal only trends or generalizations.

Talmy's model (2000, 2006) has proved to be valid for understanding prepositions of movement in the maritime register prefixed with -a. Most terms originally referred to a locative meaning. Those with a secondary object of reference are more prone to extend their meaning to other contexts, thus creating metaphorical extensions in terms such as *a-hull, a-quarter,* which indicate condition/quality more than location. With regard to *aloof,* it should also be noted that it has a metaphorical extension with a loss of locative value towards a quality meaning.

From a diachronic perspective, it is interesting to see that from the Nineteenth century onwards new lexical items were created- the verb or the figure + the term prefixed with a- underwent a process of lexicalization- in common collocations such as *go ahead, all aboard*. Furthermore, extra-linguistic elements brought about the lack of use of certain terms (*alee, a-weather*) with the use of steam boats.

Finally, students realized that when they translate these nautical terms they have to pay attention to meaning in context. These nautical terms may be translated for terms belonging to the nautical register or they have to be translated by metaphorical equivalents when necessary.

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Contributo para a formação de tradutores de textos jurídicos no cenário pós-Bolonha

Resumo

Vivemos hoje num mundo globalizado, em que a intercomunicação, a interdisciplinaridade e a interculturalidade se impõem e se tornaram cada vez mais uma realidade ou inevitabilidade. Perante esta realidade, o papel dos tradutores tem vindo a tornar-se cada vez mais saliente; no entanto, ainda existe a ideia inicial e obsoleta de que o tradutor deve dominar sobretudo as línguas com as quais trabalha. Este aspecto não deixa de ser essencial no que toca ao tradutor de textos jurídicos, mas também a ele, cujo trabalho envolve linguagens de especialidade (a do texto de partida e a do texto de chegada), se exige uma outra competência específica, dado que o que se lhe exige é a transposição de um sistema jurídico para outro sistema jurídico.

Nesse sentido este contributo vai, num primeiro momento, ocupar-se de algumas questões relacionadas com a problemática da tradução jurídica e com os pressupostos da formação do tradutor jurídico; num segundo momento serão feitas algumas considerações acerca das possibilidades que, num cenário pós-Bolonha português, terá (ou não) um tradutor, que se interesse pela linguagem do direito e que queira obter uma formação especializada adequada.

Palavras-chave: tradução jurídica, linguagem de especialidade, formação de tradutores.

Nida (1964: 145) afirmou que: “For the most part the translator’s lot has been one of little thanks, poor pay and plenty of abuse”. Mais recentemente Borja Albi (2000: 143) escreveu que o tradutor é “una figura ignorada en demasiadas ocasiones por la teoría de la traducción a pesar de la enorme influencia que los traductores ejercemos sobre la lengua, y sobre la cultura en general, al actuar como mediadores entre las lenguas [….]”.

Ambas as afirmações são certamente também aplicáveis ao tradutor de textos jurídicos, embora em relação a este último sejam demasiado superficiais, incompletas, insuficientes e redutoras, por não tocarem nem ao de leve nas competências e nos amplos conhecimentos que lhe são exigidos e que são o pressuposto do seu trabalho. De facto, não basta partir de que tradutor deve ter um conhecimento amplo e seguro da língua e cultura de partida e da língua e cultura de chegada, ou ainda acrescentar que para seu auxílio terá como instrumentos de trabalho dicionários de linguagem geral e dicionários (bilingues) especializados. Pelo contrário, a tradução jurídica pressupõe também um bom conhecimento de direito comparado. É que o tradutor jurídico não é apenas mediador entre línguas: tem, antes de saber colocar-se no plano da comparação entra duas linguagens jurídicas e de saber mover-se e de saber agir dentro de dois ordenamentos jurídicos nas duas línguas diferentes envolvidas na operação tradutiva (Arntz, 2010: 17). É que, como Pommer (2006: 38) observa:

Übersetzen ist vielmehr ein multidimensionaler Vorgang, bei dem eine komplexe Verknüpfung sprachlichen, sachlichen und kulturellen Wissens notwendig ist, um nicht nur rechtsprachliche Ausdrücke, sondern auch zugrundeliegende Rechtsordnungen und kulturspezifische Denkmuster zu übertragen.

Quer dizer, se traduzir também é comparar, o tradutor está sujeito a esta imposição, que faz da tradução jurídica provavelmente a mais exigente de todos os tipos de tradução (Wiesmann, 2004: 1).

Uma vez que o direito vive da língua como seu instrumento de trabalho, e porque há uma relação íntima entre linguagem jurídica e ordenamento jurídico, é compreensível que as divergências de conceitos sejam particularmente acentuadas quando os dois ordenamentos jurídicos se afastam entre si. (E muitos autores estão de acordo ao sublinharem as nítidas diferenças que existem entre os preceitos do direito consuetudinário anglo-americano e o direito romano-germânico). Essas diferenças verificam-se não só na estrutura diferente de documentos da *common law* relativamente aos seus correspondentes continentais (cf., por exemplo, Alcaraz/Hughes 2002; Arntz 2010; Ferran Larraz 2010 ou Jermol 2010), e naturalmente e sobretudo no vocabulário utilizado, mas são uma realidade mesmo dentro da mesma família jurídica romano-germânica. Podem eventualmente ser menores, mas tais diferenças de estrutura verificam-se igualmente, por exemplo, em sentenças alemãs e portuguesas: enquanto no documento alemão o veredicto se situa no início, seguindo-se-lhe os fundamentos, na sentença portuguesa o veredicto surge no fim, como resultado (conclusão) lógica dos fundamentos (argumentos) apresentados. As razões para estas diferenças, tanto estruturais como de vocabulário, devem procurar-se na circunstância natural de que os ordenamentos jurídicos experimentarem o seu próprio desenvolvimento histórico e o seu caminho individual, o que conduziu a naturais peculiaridades e afastamentos.

Embora o conhecimento dos ordenamentos jurídicos tenha um papel determinante e condicionante na tradução de textos jurídicos, e a linguagem jurídica 'viva' essencialmente dentro das fronteiras nacionais do respectivo país, verifica-se apesar de tudo que neste tipo de tradução o tradutor dispõe ainda de alguma margem de criatividade, certo espaço de mobilidade, dentro dos limites da sua estratégia tradutiva e das indicações fornecidas pelo iniciador da tradução, isto é, tem alguma liberdade de conformação do seu translato. Isto, se comparamos com a maior rigidez que é exigida ao tradutor de textos técnico-científicos, em que o objecto de conhecimento é comum às línguas envolvidas na tradução: a técnica e a ciência são universais. Aquela relativa margem de manobra que o tradutor jurídico tem na sua actividade tradutiva é compatível com os princípios de uma orientação comunicativo-funcional da tradução, a que não são alheias considerações de natureza sociocultural.

Embora tenha falado em alguma liberdade, por parte do tradutor, de conformação do texto traduzido, isso não significa que as diferenças estruturais e terminológicas dos sistemas jurídicos e línguas envolvidas no processo tradutivo não conduzam a mal-entendidos e a erros mais ou menos graves na tradução. Neste sentido, e reportando-se aos problemas levantados pela falta de familiaridade com o vocabulário, Alcaraz/Hughes (2002: 16 e segs.), embora reconhecendo que não há senão uma maneira de lidar com o problema, ou seja, "the deliberate process of learning" – dado que "there is no magic wand one can wave" (*ibid*.: 16) -, propõem contudo uma possibilidade de enfrentar as dificuldades. É assim que, para começar, sugerem que se dividam em dois grupos os elementos lexicais de uma dada língua: elementos simbólicos ou representativos e elementos funcionais. Os elementos deste segundo grupo desempenham sobretudo funções gramaticais e de ligação, como é o caso dos artigos, dos dícticos, dos verbos auxiliares e modais. Não têm, pois, referentes directos nem no mundo real nem no universo dos conceitos. O primeiro grupo é constituído pelos elementos, mormente substantivos, que se referem a coisas concretas, a factos, processos ou ideias. Alcaraz/Hughes (*ibid*.) consideram ainda que se possa subdividir este grupo em três subgrupos: o do vocabulário puramente técnico, o do vocabulário semi-técnico e o do vocabulário comum, não marcado. Aplicando esta tripartição ao vocabulário jurídico, o grupo dos termos puramente técnicos é constituído por aqueles termos que se encontram exclusivamente na área jurídica: são semanticamente estáveis no seu campo de aplicação, sendo para o tradutor os que menos dificuldades levantarão. São termos centralmente importantes nos contextos em que ocorrem e são tão fortemente marcados dentro da cultura e do sistema a que pertencem que por vezes não se poderão traduzir mas apenas adaptar ou então adoptar. O tradutor tem, assim, de decidir que opção deve ou pode tomar. Os termos semi-técnicos ou mistos são elementos do vocabulário comum, que adquiriram sentidos novos num contexto jurídico. São, por isso, termos polissémicos, são mais numerosos, mais difíceis de reconhecer e mais complexos que os elementos do primeiro subgrupo, colocando o tradutor perante maiores desafios quanto à solução tradutiva a adoptar, pois que um dado termo, pertencente a um dado subgrupo numa língua, pode ter como correspondente mais adequado um outro termo de outro subgrupo. O terceiro subgrupo é, para os mesmos autores, o que apresenta o vocabulário mais numeroso, caracterizado por termos que ou não perderam o significado que têm na linguagem comum ou não adquiriram novos sentidos quando integrados em textos jurídicos.

Se aceitarmos as distinções propostas por Alcaraz/Hughes (2002) e as suas considerações como base de reflexão, damos facilmente conta do que tem, em primeiro lugar, de fazer parte da competência de um tradutor que queira trabalhar com textos jurídicos: a capacidade de dominar contrastivamente o vocabulário jurídico, de identificar os elementos do texto de partida que, para o caso concreto, são relevantes do ponto de vista funcional e que prioridade lhe dá, a capacidade de decidir se e como traduzir os termos e as expressões, enfim tem de saber por que estratégia opta para conseguir uma solução de equivalência funcional do translato tendo em vista os destinatários deste. Mesmo assim, ser-lhe-á difícil evitar que uma solução por que opte esteja isenta, na língua de chegada, de conotações inexistentes na língua de partida, ou evitar que um termo técnico numa língua não seja um termo de contornos indeterminados na outra, ou até conseguir que uma solução que parece impor-se a outras opções seja de facto a solução perfeita. Esta será inalcançável em tradução jurídica, mas mesmo assim haverá meios para, como sustenta Ferran Larraz (2010: 272) “encontrar aquél texto y aquéllas porciones de discurso que desempeñan una función jurídico-comunicativa equivalente o, mejor dicho, *suficientemente equivalente* en el ordenamiento jurídico de llegada”. Um desses meios é a atenção que o tradutor tem de dar ao contexto, porque é ele que delimita o escopo significativo das palavras ou das expressões:

> the internal coherence of both the source and the target text will always provide clues and most potential ambiguities can be cleared up by a combination of scrupulous attention to context and reliance on the better dictionaries.
>
> (Alcaraz/Hughes, 2002: 36)

Outro aspecto igualmente determinante é o co-texto, quer dizer todo o material linguístico que precede e que imediatamente se segue ao segmento de texto ou ao enunciado a traduzir.

Quanto ao uso de dicionários, há autores que, por precaução, são a favor da dissuasão da utilização de dicionários em qualquer texto especializado e também em textos jurídicos, como Šarčević (1997: 5) enfatiza:

> Despite the emphasis on preserving the letter of the law, legal translation is not a process of transcoding, i.e., translating a string of words from one language to another. As in other areas of translation, the basic unit of legal translation is the text, not the word.

Weisflog (1996: 117), na mesma linha de Alcaraz/Hughes (2002) também, sustenta que um tradutor de textos jurídicos - como qualquer tradutor de textos de linguagem geral - tem de prestar atenção ao contexto do texto, bem como ao objectivo do texto, ao tipo de texto e às distâncias entre a língua de partida e a língua de chegada.

Com isto, coloca-se a questão de como obter uma formação adequada para exercer uma profissão tão exigente. Em Portugal existem várias formações de base, isto é, licenciaturas em tradução distribuídas por todo o país que visam fornecer uma formação geral para a profissão.

Todavia, não há, pelo menos de momento, muitos cursos complementares para uma formação tão específica como de tradutor de textos jurídicos. O Instituto Superior de Contabilidade e de Administração do Porto (ISCAP) oferece um *Mestrado em Tradução e Interpretação Especializadas*, onde a unidade curricular *Tradução Jurídica* é obrigatória na combinação Inglês/Português e em mais duas línguas (Alemão/Português, Espanhol/Português, Francês/Português ou Russo/Português) escolhidas pelo estudante. Note-se, no entanto, que os docentes destas unidades não são juristas, mas linguistas. Também a Universidade de Aveiro possui um *Mestrado em Tradução Especializada*, em que a tradução jurídica (Alemão, Espanhol, Francês ou Inglês) é obrigatória durante o primeiro ano. Além disso, apenas a Universidade do Minho ministra um *Mestrado em Tradução e Comunicação Multilingue*, em que a tradução jurídica é uma das disciplinas para opção. Afigura-se deste modo muito difícil em Portugal obter uma formação tão específica como a de tradutor jurídico.

O traço acima referido e que em primeiro lugar mais caracteriza em geral os tradutores - o domínio das duas línguas e culturas com que trabalha - tem de ser necessariamente complementado, no caso do tradutor de textos jurídicos, por uma formação específica na área do direito, tanto da língua/cultura de partida como da de chegada, uma vez que – como De Groot (2000) o salienta no artigo "Translating Legal Information" - o tradutor de textos do direito tem de possuir a capacidade de traduzir não de um sistema jurídico nacional para outra língua, mas sim traduzir de um sistema jurídico nacional para outro. Essa é a grande exigência que se lhe faz, tanto mais que, como Pommer escreve (2006: 144):

Übersetzer mit fehlender Rechtskenntnis […] kommen bisweilen überhaupt nicht auf die Idee, welch scheinbar unwesentliche Abweichungen in Detailfragen bisweilen gravierende Probleme aufwerfen können.

Neste sentido, o ideal na minha perspectiva é que o tradutor de textos jurídicos fosse uma pessoa já com uma formação universitária em Direito, com uma competência numa (ou mais) língua(s) estrangeira(s) e disponível para se familiarizar com teorias e estratégias de tradução e para, além disso, aprofundar os seus conhecimentos naquelas línguas de trabalho suas conhecidas. Mas se essa minha perspectiva se revelar impraticável, mesmo assim e independemente da sua formação de base, ao tradutor de textos jurídicos exige-se competência tanto em tradução (interpretação, análise e produção textual) como na área jurídica. Pode admitir-se que a aquisição de conhecimentos relacionados com ordenamentos jurídicos pertencentes à mesma família jurídica (por exemplo, a de inspiração romano-germânica) esteja relativamente mais facilitada do que no caso de se ter de trabalhar com ordenamentos jurídicos diferentes (o anglo-saxónico e o continental europeu). Mas com isto também não pretendemos insinuar que não haja diferenças substanciais, nomeadamente na terminologia, o que não dispensa o tradutor de um grande esforço de contínua aprendizagem, muitas vezes em regime de autodidactismo. As coisas são, no entanto, mais complicadas em casos como os que De Groot (2000: 132) lembra e que seguramente não vêm facilitar o trabalho do tradutor: a existência de pelo um país com mais que um sistema jurídico, com a consequente exigência ao tradutor de ter de se certificar para que sistema tem de traduzir. É o caso do Canadá, onde vigora, numa parte do país, a *common law* e, na outra parte, a *civil law*.

Para poder cumprir cabalmente a sua função de mediador entre duas línguas/socioculturas e dois sistemas jurídicos distintos, e para evitar erros e mal-entendidos na tradução, o tradutor tem também de conhecer e saber lançar mão de meios auxiliares da sua actividade. Embora não esteja a pensar em termos de formação inicial de tradutores, ainda assim refiro em primeiro lugar como menos importantes os dicionários, de preferência os unilingues por fornecerem por vezes definições e exemplos do uso contextualizado de termos (mas não garantidamente com um sentido técnico), enciclopédias, glossários e os bancos de dados, de que o *multiterm* é um exemplo. Estes são meios que o tradutor jurídico tem à disposição, embora não se trate de materiais concebidos e dirigidos especifica primariamente a ele. Meios auxiliares desenvolvidos expressamente para o tradutor são, por exemplo, obras de consulta como dicionários e *lexika* especializados, manuais e textos paralelos (no sentido de textos sobre a mesma matéria e do mesmo género e escritos originalmente na língua de chegada do translato – cf. Alcaraz/Hughes (2002: 3) e também Wilss (1996: 158)) – dos quais se pode extrair informação segura, definições de conceitos para além da terminologia adequada. Actualmente muitos textos paralelos, bem como livros e revistas de especialidade estão igualmente disponíveis na internet – o que facilita a descoberta de estratégias e técnicas seguidas. Além disso, este meio permite a consulta de fóruns de tradução, onde podem ser trocadas ideias com outros profissionais da área.

É evidente que o trabalho de um tradutor também passa pela criação de recursos próprios. Ele deve guardar todos os textos que já traduziu, que podem ser úteis para consulta posterior de terminologia e de fórmulas que habitualmente se usam e de frases feitas. Necessário será também a organização de uma base de dados com os termos do original e a sua tradução, cada um com a respectiva definição e indicação de contexto. Este recurso deve ser mantido sempre actualizado.

É impossível a um tradutor jurídico ter um conhecimento e domínio de todas as áreas do direito. A solução possível para este problema pode ser a consulta a juristas das variadas áreas do direito para esclarecimento de dúvidas. No caso de o tradutor recorrer a um jurista para solucionar dúvidas e de não ser (ainda) possível encontrar a tradução pretendida, pode eventualmente utilizar na língua de chegada o termo original, com uma nota de tradutor contendo a definição e explicando que não existe (ainda) tradução.

Sejam quais forem os recursos que use, é importante que o tradutor adopte sempre uma atitude crítica perante a qualidade dos textos e de outros materiais que consulte, isto é, não aceite precipitadamente quaisquer soluções, e seja capaz de valorar a qualidade da sua produção (Borja Albi, 2000: 170).

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Do signo ao texto – Os falsos amigos nas aulas de tradução técnica SP-PT

Nas décadas de ’60 e ’70, com o aparecimento e consolidação dos métodos natural, directo e comunicativo na aprendizagem de línguas estrangeiras, a prática da tradução como método pedagógico foi praticamente erradicada da sala de aula (Malmkjaer 1998: 3), após mais de um século de predomínio[1]. Embora hoje em dia esteja a reaparecer timidamente, e seja defendida por alguns autores como complemento da aprendizagem (*vd.* Malmkjaer 1998, Mackenzie 1998, García-Medall 2001), a introdução de exercícios de tradução na aula de línguas é ainda vista com alguma desconfiança. Os principais argumentos em contra do ensino da L2 através da tradução são, entre outros (*vd.* Malmkjaer 1998: 6, Newson 1998: 63-4):
- produz interferência da L1 na L2;
- encoraja a falsa crença de correspondência unívoca entre termos e expressões da L1 e L2;
- não facilita a aquisição das quatro competências básicas (compreensão oral, compreensão escrita, produção oral e produção escrita);
- dá-se excessivo ênfase às competências escritas, em detrimento da oralidade;
- não se faz um uso comunicativo da língua.

Estas objecções surgem do facto de esta prática de tradução ter sido habitualmente realizada com recurso a fragmentos (frases ou parágrafos) descontextualizados, fabricados especialmente para focar uma determinada dificuldade ou um contraste entre a L1 e a L2. Contudo, se a tradução está convenientemente situada dentro do ensino da L2, pode constituir uma ferramenta importante à disposição do professor.

De facto, os exercícios de tradução evidenciam de forma clara a falta de correspondência unívoca entre as expressões de duas línguas e, mesmo quando exista

[1] Os primeiros cursos de tradução e gramática, ou, na denominação inglesa, *gramar-translation methods* (que aplicavam as mesmas metodologias para o ensino das línguas modernas e das línguas clássicas) tinham sido publicados em finais do sec. XVIII.

essa correspondência, os contextos podem ser tão diferentes que a expressão considerada o "equivalente" mais próximo na língua de chegada pode não ser o mais apropriado. Quanto à interferência, ela existe sempre em maior ou menor medida, e os exercícios de tradução podem ajudar os alunos a terem consciência dela e a controlá-la.

No que diz respeito às quatro competências básicas, a objecção parte do princípio que a tradução será sempre a partir de textos "eruditos" – os exercícios em que se for variando os tipos de textos utilizados podem resolver pelo menos parcialmente esta questão.
Todavia, apesar de a prática da tradução oferecer algumas vantagens, nas escolas e academias (e o ISCAP – Instituto Politécnico de Contabilidade e Administração do Porto não é excepção), o ensino de línguas estrangeiras, incluindo o da língua espanhola, tem no geral uma abordagem comunicativa e são raros os casos em que se introduzem exercícios de tradução nas aulas. Esta ausência verifica-se inclusivamente no curso de Assessoria e Tradução, cujos alunos aspiram, em grande parte, a tornar-se tradutores profissionais. Este curso, após as adaptações impostas pelo processo de Bolonha, está organizado em seis semestres, em quatro dos quais são leccionadas as línguas estrangeiras (no caso do Espanhol, níveis A1, A2, B1 e B2 do QECR). Ficam assim dois semestres dedicados ao ensino da tradução, i.e. Tradução de Texto Técnico Espanhol I e II. Por outras palavras, os alunos devem aprender as competências específicas da tradução profissional ao atingirem um nível intermédio de L2 (B2) e sem nunca terem tido qualquer prática prévia de tradução.

Assim, temos verificado nos alunos de Tradução de Texto Técnico I (terceiro ano do curso de Assessoria e Tradução):
- baixa competência linguística, particularmente ao nível da produção de textos escritos;
- convicção de que a tradução é apenas um processo de substituição lexical;
- confiança quase cega no dicionário, ainda quando contradiga deduções informadas;
- derivado dos dois anteriores, fixação no nível do léxico, descurando o contexto[2].

Confrontado com esta situação, o professor de Tradução de Texto Técnico encontra-se perante um duplo desafio – fornecer as ferramentas que permitam os alunos desenvolver

[2] Embora estes não sejam os únicos problemas detectados, constituem, num primeiro diagnóstico, os mais visíveis e urgentes.

as competências tradutivas necessárias **enquanto** continuam a aquisição de competências linguísticas na L2.

No ensino de tradução técnica existem, *grosso modo*, duas abordagens possíveis (Klein-Braley & Franklin 1998: 55). Numa abordagem *holística*, os alunos trabalham desde o início sobre textos numa perspectiva de "aprender enquanto se faz"[3]. Pelo contrário, numa abordagem mais *atomista*, vão-se apresentando dificuldades específicas que são discutidas individualmente utilizando diversos materiais e sub-textos desenvolvidos para demonstrar diversos aspectos. Este segundo método é provavelmente o mais apropriado no caso que nos ocupa, uma vez que permite individualizar melhor os diversos pontos (linguísticos e/ou tradutivos) a analisar, ao mesmo tempo que pode dar aos alunos uma sensação de progressão que não se obtém de forma imediata com a abordagem holística.

Deste modo, no primeiro semestre a Unidade Curricular TTT1 Espanhol divide-se em três fases:

- Primeira fase (aproximadamente quatro semanas): manuseamento de dicionários, bases de dados e outras ferramentas; métodos de pesquisa (internet, repositório de textos, memórias de tradução[4]), alguns elementos contrastivos SP-PT (Díaz Fouces 1999: 65), nomeadamente falsos amigos, contraste voz activa/voz passiva, etc. Nesta fase, os alunos só traduzem colectivamente (sessões tipo *brain storming*) pequenos fragmentos contextualizados e realizam tarefas de pesquisa terminológica individualmente ou em pares.
- Segunda fase (aproximadamente quatro semanas): tipologia de textos SP-PT, análise textual e de registo. Analiza-se a contrastividade SP-PT em termos de registo, estilo, coesão, etc. Os alunos traduzem fragmentos contextualizados de diferentes tipos de textos, em grupos de dois ou de três.
- Terceira fase (aproximadamente cinco semanas): tipos de receptores; "as instruções do cliente"; função do texto de partida vs. função do texto de chegada. Os alunos começam a traduzir individualmente textos breves ou fragmentos contextualizados. Encoraja-se o

[3] Esta metodologia, equivalente a "só se aprende a nadar dentro da água", habitualmente provoca um grande sentimento de frustração nos alunos.

[4] A maior parte dos alunos frequenta, no segundo ano do curso, a disciplina Ferramentas Electrónicas Aplicadas à Tradução, em que aprendem a trabalhar com programas como *Trados*, *Passolo*, e outros.

trabalho em colaboração através do uso de fóruns e de consultas com informantes especializados.
Na primeira fase, introdutória, os falsos amigos[5] SP-PT constituem uma excelente oportunidade para explorar alguns aspectos contrastivos entre as duas línguas, bem como para ilustrar também algumas das dificuldades da tradução entre línguas próximas. Quem der uma vista de olhos às primeiras versões espanholas da obra de Eça de Queirós (Mayone Dias 1991) pode comprovar os perigos que eles representam até para tradutores experientes.

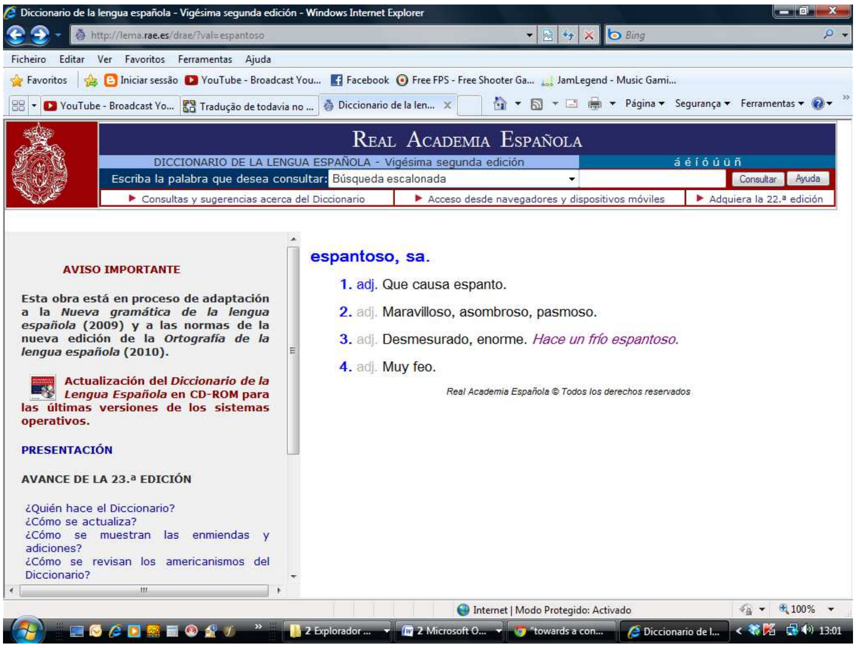
Propõe-se nesta fase uma actividade que segue um processo indutivo, em que os alunos "descobrem" gradualmente o significado do termo e a sua tradução possível no contexto em que está inserido. Esta metodologia marca à partida a orientação que se observará em todas as aulas, em que o professor não se assume como o "portador da verdade" e não se verifica uma transferência unidireccional de conhecimento deste para os alunos – uma tendência "transmissionista" que ainda se verifica com frequência (Kiraly 2000: 50)[6]. Pelo contrário, as decisões tradutivas serão fruto da discussão e da negociação, o que também serve o propósito de fazer com que os alunos assumam a sua quota de responsabilidade no processo de aprendizagem (*ibid.*: 53).

Da enorme quantidade de falsos amigos que existem no par de línguas espanhol-português, escolhem-se de preferência os polissémicos, i.e., aqueles cujos significados são só parcialmente coincidentes, ou os que têm frequências de uso diferentes nas diversas entradas do dicionário. O propósito de escolher estes falsos amigos é também demonstrar as limitações dos dicionários, sejam eles bilingues ou monolingues.

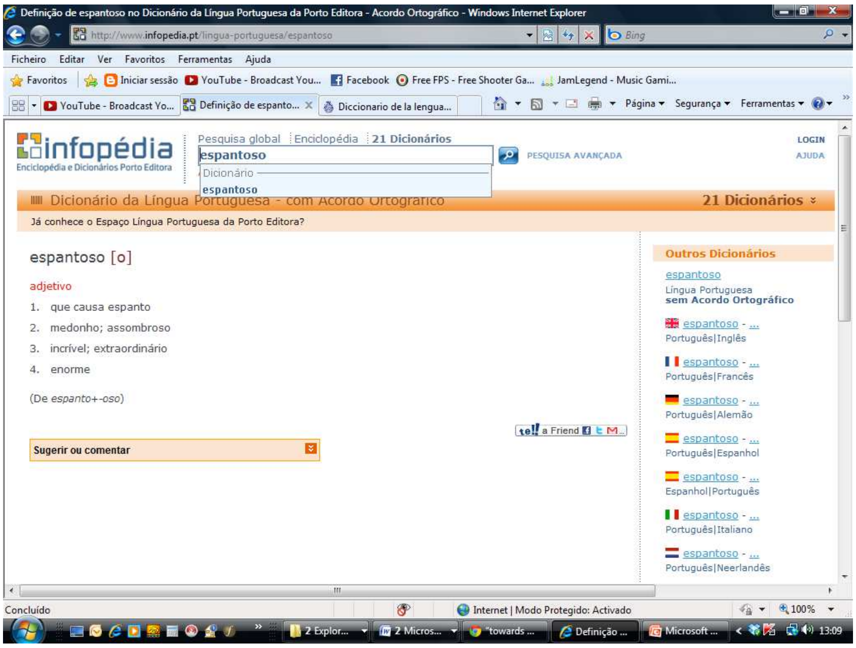
O exercício começa com a apresentação ou projecção, no quadro, de uma palavra isolada, contudo extraída de um texto real, que gradualmente irá aparecendo. Os alunos devem procurar o termo no dicionário online da Real Academia Española (http://rae.es)

[5] Adoptamos como suficiente para os nossos fins, a definição de falso amigo utilizada por Mona Baker (1992: 25) "[…] false friends are words or expressions which have the same form in two or more languages but convey different meanings".
[6] Vale a pena salientar que esta tendência é também encorajada pelos próprios alunos, que procuram a "versão definitiva", validada pelo docente.

ou num outro dicionário monolingue de Espanhol. Usaremos como exemplo o adjectivo "espantoso", que o DRAE online define como:



Imediatamente os alunos deverão procurar o significado do falso amigo português "espantoso", também num dicionário monolingue online, nomeadamente o da Porto Editora (www.infopedia.pt) , com o seguinte resultado:



Uma vez que a conclusão provisória das duas consultas pode ser que os dois termos são equivalentes, os alunos passam a observar o termo no contexto da frase:

Hablar en público es una cosa ***espantosa****.*

Dado que são poucas as pessoas que gostam de falar em público[7], os alunos começam a perceber que o adjectivo "espantoso" em Espanhol não tem o mesmo valor que em Português e que poderá tratar-se então de um caso de falsos amigos. Como é possível, contudo, que se trate de um caso excepcional (o emissor pode de facto gostar de falar em público), alarga-se o contexto às frases imediatamente anterior e posterior, que completam o parágrafo:

Poco antes de hablar en público, muchas personas son invadidas por pensamientos negativos, producto del temor que sienten ante la posibilidad de no hacerlo bien. "Hablar en público es una cosa ***espantosa****", "A nadie le interesa lo que voy a decir", "Van a criticar todo lo que diga", son algunas de las expresiones más comunes en el inventario de prejuicios*[8] *que hemos fabricado en nuestra mente en torno al tema.*

Para esta altura, já não restam dúvidas de que neste texto, "espantoso" tem o significado oferecido nas entradas 1 ("que causa espanto") ou 4 ("muy feo"), mas o que é mais importante é o descobrimento por parte dos alunos de que podiam chegar à mesma conclusão só pela observação do texto, sem necessidade de consultar os dicionários. Poderão escolher um adjectivo português com uma denotação negativa, nomeadamente "horrível" ou "assustador", entre outros. Para tomar uma decisão mais informada sobre o equivalente mais adequado (embora o propósito desta actividade não é ainda a tradução), os alunos terão acesso ao texto completo (ver anexo) e obterão confirmação definitiva quando chegarem ao último parágrafo:

Las respuestas a esas preguntas nos llevará a practicar un sencillo cambio en la fatalista oración *Hablar en público es una cosa espantosa*. Entonces nos diremos que *Hablar en público es una cosa maravillosa*.

O exercício proposto admite variações na categoria de palavras, nomeadamente advérbios ("apenas", "luego" e "todavia" são três bons candidatos), frases adverbiais

[7] Salienta-se neste ponto a importância da pragmática e do "knowledge of the world" para a construção de significados.

[8] Outro falso amigo.

(“del todo” *vs.* “de todo”) [9], no alcance do contexto requerido (frase, parágrafo, contexto cultural), no uso de ferramentas (utilização prévia, ou não, do dicionário), etc. Pode também ser feito no sentido inverso, a partir de um texto original na L1.

As vantagens deste tipo de actividade são as seguintes:

- enriquecimento do vocabulário na L2 e aumento da competência linguística;
- aumento da consciência sobre as limitações das ferramentas de pesquisa;
- percepção da importância do texto e do contexto na procura de significados;
- passagem gradual da palavra para o texto como unidade da tradução;

Mais importante ainda, este tipo de actividade pode ser introduzido nas aulas de língua estrangeira, como mais um elemento no repertório de estratégias utilizado pelo professor. Para além de contribuir para a aquisição da L2, a introdução, na fase da aprendizagem da língua, de algumas noções sobre os mecanismos envolvidos na tradução pode facilitar a posterior especialização dos aspirantes a tradutores profissionais. Contudo, existem mais dois argumentos a favor da inclusão da tradução na aprendizagem da L2. O primeiro é que, como se verifica pela observação do mercado de trabalho, a polivalência é um factor cada vez mais requerido e as competências tradutivas poderão ser uma mais-valia para diversas profissões. O segundo, e não menos importante, é que se de facto não todos os alunos na aula de L2 aspiram a tornar-se tradutores profissionais, o mundo globalizado vai colocá-los a quase todos na situação de serem consumidores/clientes de traduções, e será importante que saibam o que se deve e se pode esperar de uma tradução eficaz.

- **Conclusão**

Como já referido, os alunos sem qualquer experiência prévia debruçam-se sobre a tradução como se esta fosse uma operação de substituição lexical, em que o signo aparece como o elemento fundamental. Cabe, portanto, ao docente auxiliar na transição de uma abordagem orientada ao signo (cujo principal exemplo é a tradução interlinear) para uma abordagem orientada ao sentido do texto, dado que, como afirma Lörscher (1992: 155),

[9] Para uma análise rápida dos problemas mais comuns na tradução dos falsos amigos, *vd.* Briones 2002.

[…] as sign-oriented translating probably goes along with information processing which is, in principle, less complex and/or laborious, it can be expected that the subjects do not proceed to sense-oriented translating before sign-oriented procedures have turned out to be unsuccessful or unsatisfactory[10].

A actividade aqui proposta constitui assim uma primeira aproximação à importância de considerar o texto como a unidade de tradução, dado que ainda quando "traduzirmos palavras", elas adquirem significado só em função do texto, ao mesmo tempo que convida à reflexão sobre outras estratégias possíveis para atingir o objectivo das aulas de Tradução de Texto Técnico: aumentar a competência linguística dos alunos e colocá-los no caminho de se tornarem tradutores profissionais.

Por outro lado, a prática da tradução, através deste tipo de actividades simples, pode ser introduzidas nas aulas de língua estrangeira, como mais uma ferramenta de aprendizagem, e como forma de facilitar a posterior especialização dos futuros tradutores.

- **Anexo: Texto completo do exercício**

Hablar en público es una cosa espantosa

Poco antes de hablar en público, muchas personas son invadidas por pensamientos negativos, producto del temor que sienten ante la posibilidad de no hacerlo bien. "Hablar en público es una cosa espantosa", "A nadie le interesa lo que voy a decir", "Van a criticar todo lo que diga" son algunas de las expresiones más comunes en el inventario de prejuicios que hemos fabricado en nuestra mente en torno al tema.
"Soy un desastre", "Diré estupideces" "Me va a temblar todo", "Todo se me va a olvidar", "Voy a quedar muy mal" y "No voy a poder coordinar las ideas" también forman parte de ese amplio repertorio de autodescalificaciones, que contribuyen a aumentar el nivel de ansiedad que genera el riesgoso reto de hablar ante un público.
Bajo la presión de esas condiciones de estrés, llegamos a pensar que estamos actuando mal porque nos sentimos mal. También creemos que los demás nos van a percibir tal cual como nosotros nos sentimos y van a reprobar nuestro desempeño. Subestimamos nuestra capacidad y sobrevaloramos la posibilidad de equivocarnos.

[10] Sublinhado nosso.

Con esta categoría de pensamientos en nuestra mente, tener la sensación de estarlo haciendo bien, y mucho más haberlo hecho bien, es una casualidad más bien remota. Merecemos salirnos de esa zona de especulaciones perversas y extremadamente limitantes, para andar por una senda que nos lleve con éxito al punto que buscamos.

Según el Efecto Pigmalión, cuando anticipamos algún hecho existe la probabilidad de que ocurra. De allí que convenga contar con una colección de pensamientos de signo positivo para ser usados en tres momentos distintos: Antes de hablar en público, mientras lo hacemos, y después de habernos dirigido a nuestra audiencia.

Antes, reconocer que algún grado de tensión es normal y conveniente. Tener la convicción de que lo que vamos a decir es interesante, que será de utilidad para todos, que ha sido suficientemente preparado y ensayado, y que hablar en público es una extraordinaria oportunidad para crecer profesional y personalmente.

Durante, mantener una conducta corporal balanceada para mejorar las conexiones entre nuestra mente y nuestro cuerpo, concentrar toda nuestra atención en los ojos de las personas en la audiencia para crear relaciones de intimidad, y proyectar nuestra voz con mucha fuerza hacia esos ojos para comunicar mejor nuestros contenidos, consumir convenientemente la energía del momento y gesticular armoniosamente.

Después, hacer una evaluación de nuestro desempeño basado en parámetros claros: ¿Logramos mantener la atención de la audiencia? ¿Podemos recordar sus reacciones corporales? ¿Qué nos decían esas reacciones? ¿Cómo fue la calidad de las preguntas? ¿Comunicamos lo que vinimos a comunicar? ¿Qué tipo de sensaciones mentales y corporales experimentamos durante la exposición? ¿Respetamos el tiempo asignado? ¿Qué fue lo que aprendimos esta vez?

Las respuestas a esas preguntas nos llevará a practicar un sencillo cambio en la fatalista oración *Hablar en público es una cosa espantosa*. Entonces nos diremos que *Hablar en público es una cosa maravillosa*.

Autor: Álvaro Benavides La Grecca / Fuente: http://www.persuadir.net/articulos_contenido.php?id=210

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6. 4º Painel: Aplicação das Tecnologias de Informação e Comunicação

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Abstract
A continuous reflection of educational processes at Universidad Santo Tomás de Aquino[1], in accordance with the bilingual policies and use of TIC, allowed the researchers to consolidate a model related to the use of strategies for teaching English as a foreign language with academic and specific purposes for professors[2] belonging to the Sciences Department. It comprises the design and implementation process of blended learning environments in which the development of metacognitive processes and collaborative strategies are involved to facilitate tools and strategies for their teaching practices.

This model followed a participatory action research perspective and was designed considering three aspects. First, the stages of the Metacognitive Model for Strategic Learning (Chamot *et al*, 1999); second, the four language skills using collaborative practices and learning strategies; third, the relationship between topics developed along the course and the participants' knowledge in science.

The implementation allowed analysis in the use of English in the participants' practices through the application of materials as well as the enhancement in their language communicative skills. Additionally, the promotion of positive and collaborative interactions and the use of metacognitive strategies were evidenced.

Key words: Metacognition, collaborative learning, b-learning enviroments, communicative competences, English for Specific and Academic Purposes (ESAP)

Introduction

Over the years the importance of acquiring a level of competence in foreign languages, in the English language, in this particular case, has exceeded the limits of classroom teaching from the traditional use of chalk, chalk board, and the teacher in front of the class not only teaching but also playing the role of authority in the classroom. This practice in the classroom has now been relegated to the past due to the fact that today's technological advances have not only contributed to the sciences of human knowledge but also have engaged in the field of education. A b-learning environment is now presented as the integration of two types of learning, face-to-face and virtual classroom learning. This kind of environment combines all the characteristics that allow learners and teachers to interact in face to face lessons and virtual spaces by fostering the strength of aspects of such as autonomy and self-learning on the student.

The facts stated above allowed to conduct this research study at USTA by implementing a model of languages teaching created to incorporate face to face and virtual components. This model was born when a group of teachers-researchers[3] put ideas and experiences together focused on gathering the benefits of two types of learning[4] to be one that would suit the needs of professors-participants belonging to the Basic Science Department. Therefore, the already mentioned model was designed by combining pedagogical approaches in regards to collaboration among peers and the implementation of metacognitive strategies in learning English.

For this reason, this model, applied into two action research cycles, was based on the participants' needs and the bilingualism policies at USTA. On the one hand, these needs were related to the achievement of benefits in their teaching practices to promote the learning of sciences by using a foreign language with the students in their classes. On the other hand, as a consequence of globalization the USTA has strengthened the bilingualism policies which seek to increase the professors' knowledge in the foreign language as means of communication to complement their integral formation.
Specifically, it was expected that participants of the study stimulated the use of materials in a foreign language for the development of a subject or other academic spaces. This involved a deep work on the use of English as a foreign language with academic and specific purposes.

Consolidation of the Model

In accordance with the current projection policies of bilingualism and use of technology at USTA, the model proposed in this research involves the design and implementation of b-learning environments which implicates the development of metacognitive processes and collaboration among peers to provide tools and strategies for the research participants of this study to use them in their classes for the sole purpose of promoting science learning in a foreign language with the university community in their classrooms.

To achieve the objectives of the project, a pedagogical model, arisen from the theoretical review of the components of the environment, was designed, consolidated and implemented as the strategy-based classroom model. This model is supported in three main components which are the pedagogical, the technological, and the disciplinary ones (See Figure 1).

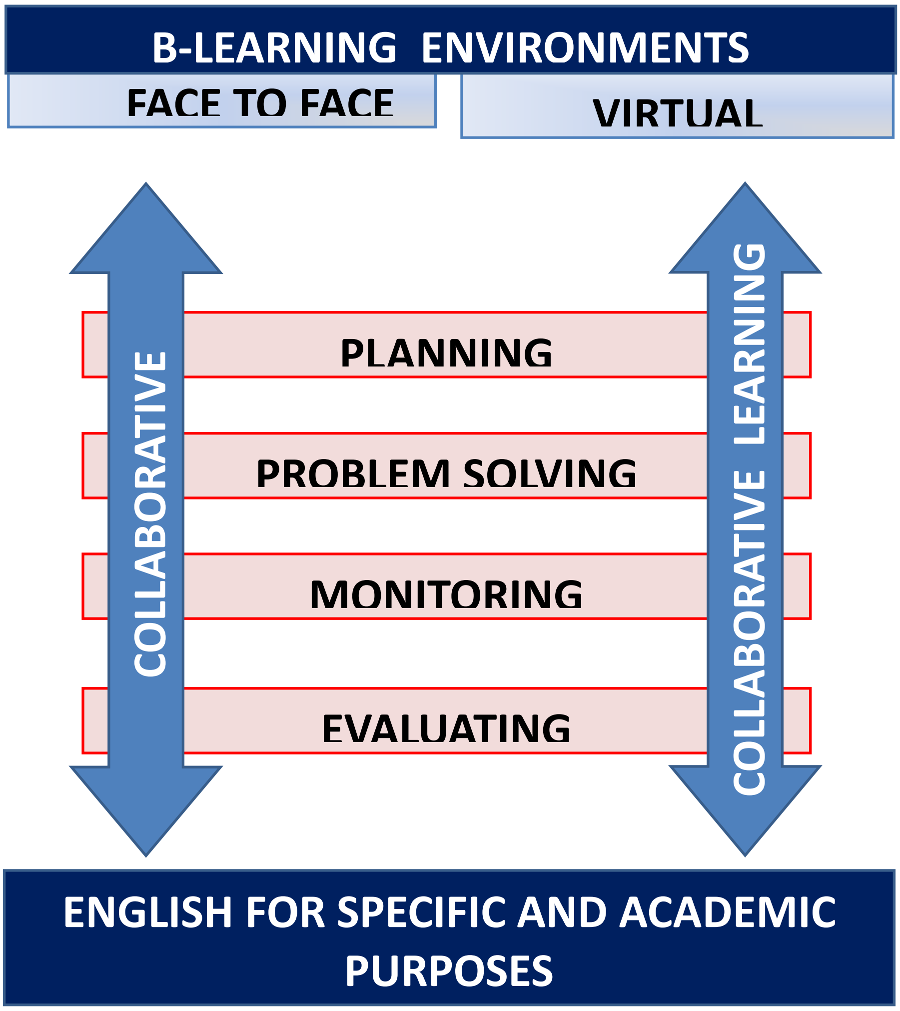

Figure 1. The Model of Strategic Learning for ESAP[5] in a B-learning environment.

The pedagogical component accounts for metacognition and collaboration. First, as it can be observed in figure 1, four metacognitive stages were used. These stages, planning, monitoring, problem solving and evaluating, were adapted from the Metacognitive Model for Strategic Learning proposed by Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999). This model (Chamot et.al. 1999), in its four stages, makes use of specific strategies for different tasks. According to Chamot et.al. (1999), the use of techniques to facilitate understanding, remembering and using language and content may make it easier for learners to have a good performance with the task. These three fundamentals, skills for understanding, remembering and using acquired knowledge, are essential to aid the learning of a foreign language. Thus, it can be said that making students aware of these techniques is a good way of making contact with a foreign language at the time metacognition is being fostered. Therefore, the model established in this research takes and adapts the theoretical contributions of the author not only to regulate teaching and learning processes in a foreign language, but also seeks to integrate cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective principles for learning English as a foreign language.

Second, in regards to collaborative learning, the model considers that collaborative learning should be framed under the social constructivism. From this point of view, learning is build up through interaction, reflection, dialogue and debate among people or communities that share their experiences and solve problems together. According to some authors such as Bruffee (1993), Barkley, Cross & Major (2007), Mathews (1996) and Dillenbourg (1999), the goal of collaborative learning is to develop thoughtful, autonomous and eloquent people, although sometimes such goal promotes a disagreement and a competition. In this way, collaborative learning is evidenced when learners and professors work together to create knowledge by sharing meanings that make them grow. To achieve these aims, the authors propose four main elements: the situation, the interaction, the learning mechanisms and the effects obtained. The collaborative situation should be designed by generating a balance among the actions, the knowledge level, and the learners' roles, to solve or develop the task together. The interactions should be in agreement with the collaborative situation and they also should be interactive, in harmony, and negotiable. These are important aspects for the development of the individual cognitive processes and the achievement of goals. The learning mechanisms should start from the interaction to allow the building of knowledge. Finally, the effects of collaborative learning which are generally measured with tests that allow researchers to establish the achievement level of learning objectives.

Taking into account these authors' points of view, the model presented by this research aims at encouraging foreign language learning as a significant social construction; given the conditions of the model where collaborative learning is integrated in a holistic manner in the activities planned and in the processes of reflection proposed in modules designed. Giving, in that way, the opportunity for interactions between participants, discussions and debates on their views in relation to the way to develop a specific task to consistently bring to the planning and execution of the task together.

The technological component was based entirely on a b-learning program that combined face-to-face academic classroom and virtual sessions. They were supported on the Moodle platform of USTA as a tool to manage the contents of the virtual component of the environment. Moreover, a Virtual Language Resource Center (http://vlcbustalearning.wordpress.com/) was designed for the purpose of giving learners the opportunity to work on the development of learning objects. Avila and Bosco (2001) argue that the virtual model in education is necessary nowadays given the new conditions under which today's world turn. In addition, the authors also address the importance of fostering innovative pedagogical spaces where the learner develops autonomy in consolidating new concepts with their experiences, new ways to learn, and the resources used. Therefore, from the face-to-face mode, the model of this research was aimed at encouraging classroom activities that allowed researchers to observe behaviors related to positive and negative interactions that somehow affected the learning of the foreign language. From the virtual mode, the model proposed allowed to build up activities developed on individual and collaborative basics, which led to evidence the autonomy of learners in language learning processes and joint construction of learning objects, such as essays, academic papers, interactive presentations, videos and class planning in the foreign language. Thereby, the role of teachers, bound in this model, was defined as to be the monitor or the person who provided guidance to the class. This, for helping participants or learners to advance on the activities and construct knowledge together. These participants had the role of builders of their own knowledge by applying their contributions to personal and team work through the use of Information and Communication Technologies (chats, forums, wikis, podcasts, videos), mainly. The trainees or students are those who took control of the class and the teacher then became the tutor-guide that played the role of confirming and complementing activities while fostered the learning of English for Academic and Specific Purposes.

The disciplinary component was based on teaching English for Academic and Specific Purposes. Mastering a foreign language and in this particular case, a foreign language for specific purposes, is a tendency to follow by the English curriculum of specific areas in professional education institutions. According to Pineda (2000) In Colombia, the use of ESAP aims to prepare students not only in the use of language, but also in the management of it in their action field (professionally talking). This, in order to achieve high levels of competence in the study of the target language. Also, another aim with the implementation of these specific English programs is to empower individuals of a society, with tools that allow them to have access to bibliographies, academic texts, and other material in specific areas for its study, understanding, and articulation. In this regard, Pineda (2000) emphasizes on what should be the focus of English teaching with specific objectives. The author establishes the need for teaching and learning spaces, where processes are generated towards providing answers to the contents and methods of teaching the language for specific purposes and the difference between single design materials or products containing vocabulary and structures used in these contexts. ESAP must arise then from the analysis of the needs of each specific context. Thus, the model of this research took as its own the words of the author and its design is intended to create a more conducive learning environment supported by materials designed taking into account the needs of the participants of this study.

Methodology

This section is devoted to devise the research methodology as well as the methodology for the design and implementation of the two Action research cycles. First of all, this action research project followed the principles of the qualitative approach, which according to Burns (2003) describes, interprets, and clarifies the social context. Creswell (1994) defined action research as a process of inquiry that examines human issues in natural settings with the purpose of understanding.

Action research was appropriate for this study because the researchers had an impact on learners through the involvement of the teachers in the process of teaching and learning. Bailey and Nunan (2009) consider classroom action research as a way in which classroom practitioners investigate aspects of their own practice. Thus, this study addressed the identified problems as an attempt to help learners with their language learning process. This project implied a systematic procedure rigorously carried out in align with the steps of the Action Research Cycle identified by Bailey and Nunan (2009). Such steps are as follows: first, the identification of the issue to investigate; second, a preliminary investigation of the problem and the context; third, the design of a plan to take action on the issue to investigate; fourth, the action taken to address the problem or issue; fifth, observation of the outcomes of the action; sixth, reflexion on the outcomes and other possibilities to implement a second action; seventh, repetition of the steps of the Action Research cycle. It is called a cycle since a series of repeated steps are incorporated into a new action. According to these authors, an action research project needs to be applied in at least two cycles and then information obtained can be analyzed for conclusions. Action research was the process followed in this study since two action research cycles were applied for analyzing data and drawing conclusions.

For both cycles, a matrix to structure the learning environment was taken into account (See Table 1). It helped the researchers first to plan the cycles and then to apply them. The b-learning environment was designed for two action cycles. The first one, developed stages 1 and 0. These stages were aimed at contextualizing the participants of the project. Initially, consent letters were signed and then a series of Likert tests were applied. Such tests gave information about the initial profile of each participant in terms of their attitude towards collaborative activities and their use of metacognitive strategies. These tests were important for the researchers to be able to analyze the evolution or involution of each aspect related to the collaboration level when working in teams and the use of metacognitive strategies in the learning of English with academic purposes.

After having the profile of participants, the information was used to organize the working teams. In this way, both research cycles were developed with two groups of learners made of three participants each. During the first cycle learners were aimed at developing an academic paper on a topic of their knowledge area. In this particular case, they could decide whether to work on a paper about robotics or nanotechnology. To develop such academic paper, learners participated of a b-learning environment compound by face to face sessions and supported by virtual activities developed through a course designed in Moodle. In the face to face sessions learners were able to develop their reading, speaking, writing, and listening skills while the Moodle course was mainly used to foster their listening and writing skills.

For the second cycle, after the reflection of the things that went well and the ones that went not so well during the first cycle, a Virtual Language Resource Center was developed (http://vlcbustalearning.wordpress.com/). It was focused on a collaborative project (http://www.wix.com/sandrapatriciabh/collaborativeproject) for the development of three learning objects (LOs). These LOs facilitated the use of web 2.0 tools for the involvement in tasks aimed at leading learners in the construction on a video about nanotechnology. Nonetheless, it is important to say that participants and researchers continued with the face to face sessions and the Moodle platform as means of spaces to socialize the outcomes of participants.

Stage	**Objective(s)**	**Activities**	**Mode**	**Methodology**	**Resources**	**Evidence**
The topics to develop are presented.	The objectives to achieve are set by means of activities and resources for each thematic unit.	The activities to develop in each thematic unit are presented. Moreover, the estimated time for each one of them is specified.	The date or moment to carry out the activity is indicated here. Additionally, the mode (face to face or virtual) is devised in this section.	The methodology for the development of the activity is shown here.	The resources to use for the development of each activity taking into account its classification (of exhibition, interactive, and collaborative).	In this section the evidence to gather for further analysis, to see whether the objective was achieved, is set here.

Table 1. Matrix to structure blended learning environments by Montes (2011)

In sum, the first cycle of implementation was mainly based on the participants' needs and the experience of the teachers-researchers. Then, after a deep analysis, the first cycle was improved and redesigned into a second cycle of action research for the implementation of activities framed under the teaching of English for specific and academic purposes.

Results y Discussion

When analyzing the dynamics presented in each of the working groups, it was found a relationship between the level of team collaboration and work routines of each one.

In the first group, one member had to withdraw half of the course due to health problems, this situation triggered a remarkable low level of collaboration from the other group members. This highlights the importance of a third mediator in the internal problems. In this group, made of Fredy, Fernando and Maria, it was initially found average levels of attitude towards collaboration. Two of its members, Fernando and Maria, were placed initially (according to the Likert tests) at a level of coordination, with features like disposition towards dialogue, conflict management with an attitude of subservience and domination, which are attitudes that lend themselves to management of a third element, in this case Fredy. Although in the test to measure the collaborative attitude Freddy showed a lower level than his peers, the interviews showed a big interest in the evolution of the group in learning English for academic purposes, which helped him to boost his peers to work.

After his departure, the levels of collaboration in his peers fell sharply, Mary's attitude remained positive towards learning English, but with his partner she made a great distance. Fernando´s final test demonstrated lack of emotional regulation, and an attitude of avoidance, which means that their interest decreases and the job falls to Mary. The interviews show some desire by Fernando for responding questions and domination on Mary, interrupting her interventions.

The test applied to participants in this group, in relation to metacognition, evidenced the contrary, an increase in Fernando's level and deterioration in Mary´s level. She says in interviews that the lack of time influenced her low performance, while Fernando supports the idea but it is clear that moving away from Mary improved his level of metacognition, to independent work in regards to the use of strategies. This situation leads to conditions in which the group's objectives were not achieved to the fullest, and highlights the importance of a third mediating element in the problems of the group.

In the second group a different dynamic was presented due to the fact that the initial test showed unequal levels of collaboration, a level of coalition to Joseph, of coordination to Hernando, and cooperation for Gary. This places them in a suitable climate for collaboration, hoping that participants with lower levels catch up with the partner of the highest level.

Once the course finished, varying levels of collaboration in different ways were identified. Joseph remains at the same level of coalition, while Gary and Hernando moved toward coordination. According to the evidence of the interviews it was identified that Joseph answered the test according to what the researchers-interviewers wanted to hear, while in his verbal interview it is identified an effect of "the rich get richer", which corresponds to a situation of domination of Hernando and evidenced on Gerardo. This corresponds to the subservient attitude of Gerard, who has a very good resource management, making available, to his peers, the information that he finds and yielding to the dynamics raised by them. While Hernando takes advantage of the situation to assume a role as a stowaway, using the resources provided by Gerardo and Joseph´s work.

In terms of metacognition Gerardo evolves at an average level, which corresponds to information management and planning of their activities, Joseph remains at a high level, but we know beforehand that he meets the test in terms of what researchers want to hear. Hernando lows his level of metacognition since he does not need to plan his activities, as Gerardo already does.

In general terms the groups have an average level of work in English, which is reflected in the products of classes and argued with the lack of time for independent study. The time for group work is crucial, because although they handled tools of information and communication to approach virtually, either synchronously or asynchronously, the face to face time focused more on the development of the tasks than in conflict management and harmonization of work.

Conclusions

The use of the proposed model promoted positive collaborative interactions and the use of metacognitive strategies. With respect to interactions, it was found that most of the learners worked in a collaborative manner by taking into account the common goal proposed in the activities. Moreover, an individual interest in making information and resources available for the rest of the group, was also found. Regarding metacognitive strategies, the researchers analyzed that when learners faced planning processes before performing the task, and reflection processes, after the task, self-criticism is evidenced. First, there was a big self-criticism in the way they performed the academic activities; also, learners increased their desire to identify their own weaknesses and strengths for the common good of the group.

The participants showed development in communication skills, both verbal and written, in the use of English as a foreign language in applied sciences. The communicative approach of the activities and the relationship of the issues related to basic sciences allowed the participants to work on their speaking, reading, listening and writing skills with a range of vocabulary that was close to their professional lives. This gave them more confidence and fluency when communicating ideas. Furthermore, the possibility of developing materials for their classes in English and articles to socialize with their peers, in the same language, created a great expectation and motivation.

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Notes

1. USTA Bogotá, Colombia.
2. These teachers will be named as participants throughout the document.
3. Languages professors Lucia Reyes and Sandra Barbosa from the Language Institute and professor Carlos Montes from the Basic Sciences Department at USTA.
4. Language teaching and basic sciences.
5. English for Academic and Specific Purposes

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Towards a Social Ontology-based English Learning Mobile Environment for Professional Purposes

Abstract
The purpose of this paper is twofold: firstly, to discuss that the potential of mobile phones for language learning lies not only in the fact that they are convenient, available and easy to use, but also that they are efficient and pedagogically rigorous tools for languages (and ESP in particular), in a comparable way to textbooks and multimedia learning software; secondly, the on-going work of the ATLAS research group on the field of Mobile Assisted Language Learning applied to professional English is presented as an example of state-of-the-art research on this field.
Key words: Mobile learning; Mobile Assisted Language Learning; professional English

Introduction

The *global village* has been increasingly mobile for the last twenty years or so (Kristoffersen & Ljungberg, 1999)[11]. Given this state of things, mobile technology is the field that emerged and is continuously evolving to provide our mobile society with innovative and useful services and applications, and it was just a question of time until the first educational systems and tools appeared[12]. Indeed, there are many factors and related work which lead constructivist and social CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) researchers to believe that it is high time to adopt and adapt the accumulated knowledge and experience to a small gadget that is constantly present in our lives: the mobile phone.

The premises of the study presented in this paper are that the increasing technological sophistication of mobile phones and the quality of the research work aimed at exploring

[11] This paper describes research undertaken within the SO-CALL-ME (Social Ontology-based Cognitively Augmented Language learning Mobile Environment), with support from the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation (ref. no. FFI 2011-29829).
[12] See the list of research projects accounted for by the International Association on Mobile Learning (http://www.iamlearn.org/projects).

their potential as learning tools are well on the way to prove that they can be a real asset for language learning (and specifically for LSP [Languages for Specific Purposes] learning). Specifically, two aspects of mobile phones are appealing for learning from the start: the convenience of their portability and their widespread use among the population, and in particular, professionals and higher education students, who almost invariably find them intuitive and user-friendly, especially the younger generations (Judge, 2010; Poslad et al., 2001)[13]. The purpose of this paper is twofold: firstly, to argue that the potential of mobile phones for language learning lies not only in the fact that they are convenient, available and easy to use, but also that they are efficient and pedagogically rigorous tools for languages (and ESP in particular), in a comparable way to textbooks and multimedia learning software. Secondly, the on-going work of the ATLAS (Artificial inTelligence for Linguistic ApplicationS)[14] research group on Mobile Assisted Language Learning (henceforth, MALL) is presented as an example of state-of-the-art research in this field.

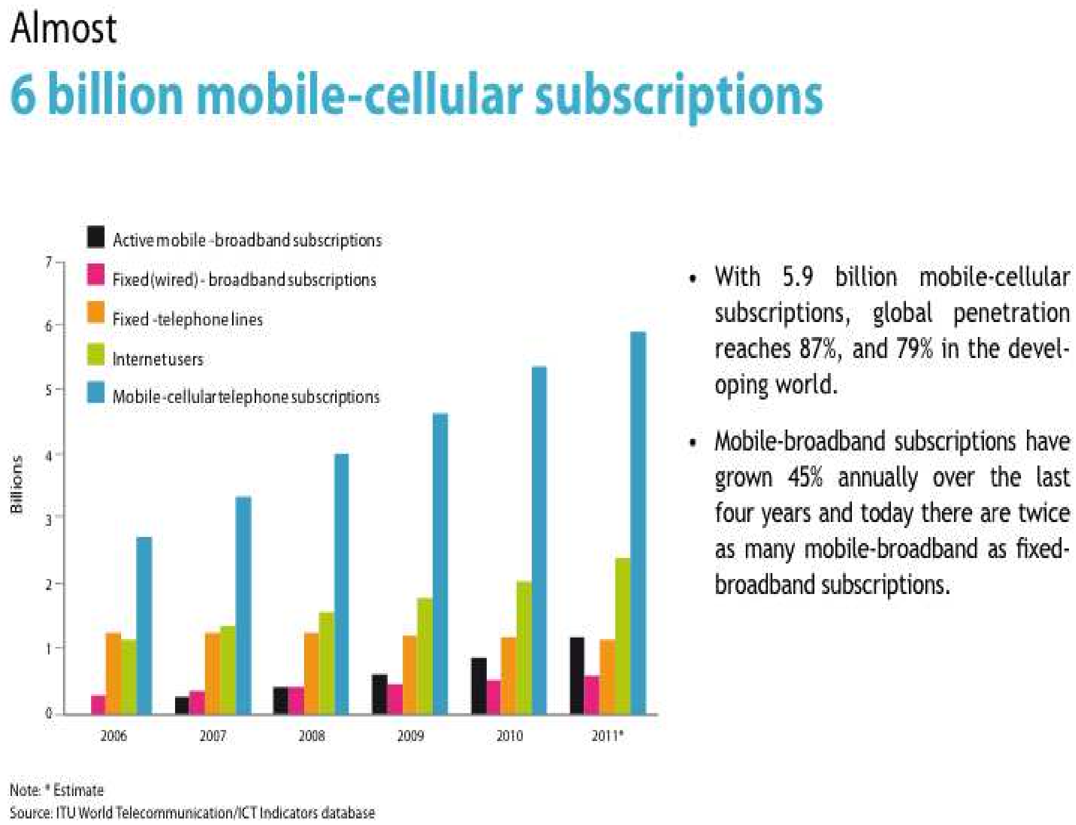
The adequacy of mobile phones for learning

The popularity of distance learning contexts is increasing these days due to the hectic personal and professional lives of adult learners. While such a modality is far from perfect, especially for language learning, it is selected by very large numbers of students because they cannot or do not want to make use of face-to-face courses. As Holmberg (1989: 24) noted, convenience, flexibility and adaptability to individual external circumstances is what makes this mode of study so popular. There is an enormous amount of literature which covers the many advantages of the use of computers in distance education (see Hodorowicz, 2000 for a rather balanced analysis). Amongst the different technological options, there are certain obvious advantages of a mobile phone over a desktop computer, while its disadvantages are rapidly reducing with the incorporations of certain computing functionalities (e.g., Internet connection, multimedia processing, editing options, etc.; Chang & Hsu, 2011). However, it cannot be denied that not all competences can be developed appears to be equally suitable for a device with a small screen size, navigation difficulties, and slow and error-prone

[13] Accordingly, the target audience of major mobile applications are adults under 30 years of age (http://www.mobilephonedevelopment.com/archives/1054).
[14] ATLAS is a *consolidated* research group formed by 17 members from different Spanish universities (ref. no.: 87H31).

methods for entering text (Waycott & Kukuska-Hulme, 2003).

Battelle (2012)[15] calculates that there are over 6 billion mobile phone subscriptions in the world and shows the following data about usage:



Graphic 1. Date on wireless communication technology around the world.

According to the figures published by the International Communications Union[16], while around 35% people in the world use Internet, nearly 90% use mobile phones![17] This is likely to change soon, since data suggests that people change these devices every two years on average. That is not only because they get lost or damaged, but because they seek the improvements of the newer models, such as better designs, higher audio quality, longer battery charging time, and more facilities, the main one being Internet connection.

[15] http://battellemedia.com/archives/2012/02/nearly-90-of-the-world-uses-mobile-phones.php

[16] http://www.itu.int/ITU-D/ict/facts/2011/index.html

[17] According to the Lebanese Economy Forum, the following countries have a use of mobile phones higher than 130%: United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Lithuania, Estonia, Brazil, Germany and Italy.

Regarding this issue, below are some eloquent data on household and individual usage of mobile phones from the British Office for National Statistics[18]:

- 45 % Internet users have access to Internet on their a mobile phone.
- 6 million people accessed the Internet on their mobile phone for the first time in the previous 12 months.
- The use of wireless hotspots almost doubled in the last 12 months to 4.9 million users.
- 77 % households have Internet Access.

Comparable data can be found for other countries (e.g., Beasley, 2010; http://lebanese-economy-forum.com/wdi-gdf-advanced-data-display/?curve=IT-CEL-SETS). There is a large number of studies on the use of wireless devices by different sectors of the population, especially youngsters and white-collar professionals with the need to be mobile but coordinated (or 'hypercoordinated', in Ling & Yttri 1999's terms) (O'Hara et al., 2000; Poslad et al., 2001). However, despite the particularly large degree of unpredictability which characterizes usage patterns of technology-based educational tools both in the short time and in the medium term (Kukulska-Hulme, 2007; Palen et al., 2000), there is enough numerical evidence to support optimistic forecasts for didactically sound applications.

Concept and definition of Mobile Learning

There are many related definitions of Mobile Learning (ML) in the literature in the lines of: "Any sort of learning that happens when the learner is not at a fixed, predetermined location, or learning that happens when the learner takes advantage of the learning opportunities offered by mobile technologies" (MOBllearn, 2003). The most widely accepted definition of ML conceptualises it as "learning mediated via handheld devices and potentially available anytime, anywhere" (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008: 273). As can be seen, the concept of ML can be understood in various ways, since it can refer to the type of device used by the learner and also to his/her mobility. Several milestones in the history of this field can be distinguished, starting from Kay's 1968 proposal of a book-sized computer to run dynamic simulations for learning (see Richards, 2008 for a

18http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/rdit2/internet-access---households-and-individuals/2011/stb-internet-access-2011.html review). In the early 1990s, Apple Classrooms of Tomorrow (ACOT) used mobile computers connected by wireless networks for the Wireless Coyote Project (Grant, 1993). At the beginning of the 21st century, interest in the field has more institutional support and visibility than ever: the European Commission has funded the major multinational MOBIlearn and M-Learning projects (*MOBIlearn Technical Annex*, 2002; Stead, 2005, respectively) and conferences and trade shows were created to specifically deal with mobile learning and handheld education

Many authors have placed emphasis upon the value of ML. From face-to-face or blended learning contexts, mobile phones provide a familiar element with many of the advantages of computers (pro-active student-centred learning, non linearity, adaptability to time, place and study rhythms, multimedia capabilities, etc.) with strong ludic connotations (and hence highly motivational). Furthermore, their extreme portability (compared to textbooks, notebooks, desktop computers, etc.) extends the range of options for new applications to complement existing learning modalities.

ML may be formal or informal, and the specific reference and stress on this second option is highly relevant for ESP, since these learners tend to be adults who need to learn English for their professional development (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Johns & Price-Machado, 2001) but generally do not have the time to register in traditional face-to-face (henceforth, F2F) programmes, and often join technologically enhanced LSP courses that can be undertaken out of working hours, at a time and place which are convenient for them (Martín-Monje & Talaván, in press). The next section discusses the specificity of mobile assisted language learning (henceforth, MALL) within ML.

Mobile Assisted Language Learning

Precisely, one of the main differences between the well established CALL and the emergent MALL is that the latter has opened the door to new ways of formal and informal education, widening the scope of language learning to different contexts of use that had not been considered before, with "new learner practices stemming from personal perspectives on the best places for learning and from evolving uses of available time" (Kukulska-Hulme, 2012: 2).

The main portable devices used in MALL at the moment are mobile phones (including smartphones), handheld computers (PDAs), tablet PCs, MP3 and MP4 players, digital voice recorders and multi-function mini-camcorders (Stockwell 2007; Martín-Monje, 2012). They are becoming increasingly sophisticated, with better technical features (high quality colour screens, greater storage capacity, networking connectivity with PCs and Internet, software to capture, edit and playback audio, video and images, etc., and consequently turning into more appealing tools for educational purposes (Bradley et al., 2009; Read et al., 2009).

These gadgets enable language learners to make the most of any time available in almost any location, leading to what is nowadays known as *ubiquitous learning* (Ogata, 2004). Today's students and more so LSP learners are characterized by having a lack of time, since it is quite common for a certain range of professionals to need to combine working and lifelong learning and training (Oblinger, 2006), which means that the latter processes need to be re-designed according to the needs and circumstance's of these language users, as well as the demands of the object of study. This issue has already been addressed by some authors, such as Ogata & Yano (2003), who devised a computer-supported ubiquitous language learning environment that is context-sensitive and provides learners of Japanese with the appropriate polite expressions depending on their specific situation and needs, but there is still much work to be done in the field.
In a recent study Kukulska-Hulme (2012) has tracked the evolution of MALL and shown how language learning is changing in terms of the location and time when it takes place. The findings of her research represent a valid framework for the design of learning environments. In terms of location, learning does not take place in a physical classroom anymore, but at home, at work, and out and about, quite often on public and private transport. People on the bus or in the underground are either using their mobile phones, reading or simply staring into space! This author also identifies two different patterns regarding the time allocated to MALL: regular slots (e.g. at lunch breaks, commuting to work, last thing at night) but also increasingly spontaneous, unplanned learning time, mostly whenever dead time is available (e.g. waiting for people and transport). It should also be noted that the amount of time considered as "typical periods available" for learning is around fifteen or twenty minutes (much shorter than a regular

language class) something that should be taken into account by developers when creating their materials for MALL.

SO-CALL-ME

As previously stated, the SO-CALL-ME research project is based upon the outcomes of I-AGENT (Intelligent Adaptive Generic English Tutor; ref. no.: FFI2008-06030), a project developed by the ATLAS research group at the Spanish National University for Distance Learning (UNED). I-AGENT was an online Business English environment that integrated ICALL with F2F education through an innovative use of blended learning methodology: the main content of the course was practised online with scaffolded activities (via an Artificial Intelligence extended version of Moodle, where a software agent adapted course content to student progress) and the F2F class was used to reinforce and practise oral comprehension, production and interaction.

I-AGENT, thus, provided the Virtual Learning Environment (VLE), tasks and learning resources, and SO-CALL-ME intends to take it further extending it to a mobile learning environment, by putting together the latest developments in adaptive CALL, I-CALL (Intelligent CALL), MALL and the implementation of a linguistic ontology of visual learning objects in the context of professional English.

The research involved in SO-CALL-ME is threefold. Firstly, a linguistic, didactic and technological theoretical framework is being designed and developed based upon Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1985, 1994) and Constructivism (Vigotsky, 1978) for a new hybrid mode of computer-assisted ESP learning: social and ubiquitous, incorporating augmented reality techniques and accessible from state of the art handheld devices. Secondly, this research aims to enhance flexible, adaptive, interactive, practical learning, very much related to everyday professional communicative contexts. Thirdly, it is intended to design and develop a linguistic ontology of visual learning objects that will boost ESP learning, avoiding the problems caused by other materials that are largely textual, static and de-contextualised from the surrounding socio-cultural reality of the professional world. The result of this on-going research is expected to be a theoretical framework and an ICALL (Intelligent Computer Assisted Language Learning) architecture, which takes as starting point the outcome of previous research, which has produced the environment for a learning management system, tasks and learning resources, as well as the reasoning which will enable the student to customize his/her ESP learning path.

One of the premises of SO-CALL-ME is the suitability of oral comprehension and production as target communicative language competences, which have been identified by many authors as troublesome by Spanish native learners of English (O'Malley et al, 1993; Talaván, 2009) and sidesteps the shortcomings of small screens and keys for extensive reading and writing (see Kukulska-Hulme, 2003 above). The ontology under construction attempts to capture the prototypical oral communicative situations in which a professional adult engages in around his working life, which involves social interaction too (collecting visitors from the airport, taking them for a meal, etc.). Hence, it appears that an integrative – social constructivist – modality (Warschauer, 2000; Bax, 2003) will provide both a challenging and feasible scenario for SO-CALL-ME. The process will consist of three phases: firstly, a pre-communication (training) phase, in which the student is exposed to native input directly related to the type of situation s/he is about to engage in[19], and the student is asked to answer to a number of questions to enhance his/her attentional levels with the learning activity; secondly, a communication phase, in which the student has the option to record his/her intervention; and thirdly and finally, a post-communication phase, in which the student reviews the recording, preferably with the help of a tutor or teacher (if the use of the application is part of a blended learning course).

As for the organization of the learning materials, the ontology being developed aims at providing a situated type of learning (Halverson, 2009) with a notional-functional syllabus, as opposed to the in-classroom traditional structural syllabus (Ellis, 1993). Lave and Wenger (1991) defines *situated learning* as a model of learning in a community of practice, which takes place in the same context in which it is applied. With the development of mobile applications that enable layering of information on top of the physical environment, there is bound to be a whole new way of interacting with

[19] Following the group's experience of realistic language learning, it has been decided not to simplify the content (vocabulary, structures) of the input to assist lower level students, but merely to slow down its speed and to reduce background noise (an idea taken from Campbell, 2011), which at this stage the student can do at his/her own will.

space (Kukulska-Hulme, 2012; Parry, 2011) and a redefinition of the concept of authentic language learning (LeLoup et al., 2000). The origin of situated learning is associated with Brown at al. (1989) and even constructivist theorists such as Vigotsky or Dewey, who argued that knowledge must be taught in context and not in a vacuum (Vincini, 2003). The instructional model developed by SO-CALL-ME should embrace this connection between language and the physical world and follow in its design the principles for situated learning applied to web-based instruction (Herrington et al., 2000), namely: authentic context that reflects the way the knowledge will be used, authentic activities, access to expert performances and the modelling of processes, multiple roles and perspectives, collaborative construction of knowledge, reflection, articulation, scaffolding, and authentic assessment.

Conclusion

The latest technological advances in mobile devices, as well as the quality of research work exploring their potential as learning tool have promoted their emergent use for language learning. In this context it is imperative to develop a rigorous underpinning pedagogy together with sound software applications. This is the line of action taken by the ATLAS research group when devising SO-CALL-ME, a mobile learning environment which takes advantage of the most recent developments in augmented reality and includes a linguistic ontology of learning objects that enhance oral comprehension and production in an ESP context. This facilitates scaffolded language learning that comprises the prototypical communicative situations in which a professional adult engages in his/her working life. Based on a notional-functional syllabus and following a socio-constructivist approach, SO-CALL-ME provides the ESP learner with a new way of interacting with the physical environment, giving a whole new dimension to situated, authentic language learning in LSP.

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Writing for e-academic purposes: Synchronous and asynchronous levels

Abstract

Asynchronous academic written discourse may include the academic forum in e-learning platforms. Yet, if done simultaneously, the academic forum might be regarded as synchronous e-learning. At the clear end of the spectrum is the chat as a feasible synchronous medium for academic e-learning, if done to discuss subject content. This study aims to provide linguistic information that may contribute to the description of asynchronous versus synchronous media for specific academic purposes. The case study involved 30 graduate students from different Arts and Humanities degrees who participated in forums and chats to deal with an analytical task. Each third of the class was assigned each of the three electronic resources to answer: A forum with a one-month deadline, a one-hour session forum, and a chat with the instructor. The content of the task was the same for all participants. The language used was Spanish, and the sentences written were analysed according to four sections in e-learning: content-related, planning of tasks, social support, and meta-discourse. Then, each section was checked for rhetorical functions (e.g., expressing purpose, example, opinion, etc). The findings revealed significant differences among the three e-learning resources in terms of number of items used and section percentages. Both style and vocabulary also varied according to the type of e-learning approach made. In general, it may be said that forum writing conducted within a short time span shares various characteristics of typical asynchronous forum writing, whereas fewer aspects of chat writing can be found in one-hour session forums.

Introduction

Using the web 2.0. has increased a communicative approach via synchronic channels such as chats, video-conference, digital blackboards, on-line projects, and so on. Asynchonous means have not decreased alongside this phenomenon, but, on the contrary, have maintained an important position (e.g., e-mail, forums, wikis, blogs, etc). What has been analised further is the variation in communication among the different channels of transmission. Depending on the asynchronous / synchronous nature of the devices employed, indeed, certain communicative elements may or may not prevail (cf. Kock, 2005).

This paper aims to focus on the communicative variation that may be registered in the asynchronous versus synchronous levels of academic writing on the web. Three main devices are observed for specific academic purposes: the discussion forum (in both real and non-real time), and the chat. This analysis aims to compare the linguistic occurrences that may describe the style and structure of academic writing in the three types of electronic approaches made. A case study is examined in the Master of Art and Humanities at University of Extremadura, in particular, with 30 students enrolled in the subject "Basic research for Art and Humanities" during the 2011 / 2012 school year. A task was assigned on evaluative / critique writing, for which the students were divided into three groups, and each group was given the same activity in one of the three different electronic modes mentioned.

The writing task was performed after they read an article on research types and purposes, with which they would have to agree or disagree as well as reason their ideas. The task was part of the credit given for on-line work / participation.

The analysis of the texts written by the students (in their L1, i.e., Spanish) aims to unveil significant language dependent on one means of communication or another. In particular, because academic writing tends to include many rhetorical functions and subject content, the different frequencies and percentages of such items are computed. As Hrastinski (2008) points out, content reference is highly relevant, followed by social support and task planning. The predominance of this hierarchy is especially noticeable in asynchronous writing, according to this author. However, synchronous modes may also contain specific linguistic-discoursive mechanisms in academic contexts. The differences, observed by means of numerical proportions, may point to the type of style and communication related to one electronic means or another within a particular learning / teaching scenario.

Theoretical background

Since the early 2000s, the emerging on-line learning communities have been approached in Education and Applied Linguistics research (e.g., Russell, 2001; Yus, 2001). Many authors began to analyse how such innovative methods may be productive for learning (e.g., Pallof & Pratt, 2003; Dongsong et al., 2004; Cabero-Almenara, 2007), and major conlusions began to be formed on the idea that no single qualitative approach is definite for teaching and learning, but, quite the opposite, both electronic and traditional means may present advantages and disadvantages. Academic skills such as analysis, synthesis, reflective thinking, self-learning, collaboration, etc, were detected in the use of certain techniques on-line, especially those that strengthened the sense of belonging to an academic community that shared information. In the positive bonding of such communities, content, planning and social reinforcement would natually ensue (cf. Cabero & Gisbert, 2005), while synchronic communication has been crucial for the collective enterprise of academic communities (cf. Cabero-Almenara, 2007; Hrastinski, 2008). Over the past 10 years, this synchronous realization has materialised further with the use of video-conference resources and on-line collaborative projects in blended learning scenarios (cf. Hinkelman & Gruba, 2012). In this novel means to communicate, academic groups have relied more on social support and planning to contribute academic information and documentation (Kock, 2005: 120). Psychological and social effects have also been observed among young researchers aiming to work on their doctoral theses, with increasing on-line communication as their chief means, especially when less money is afforded to attend face-to-face meetings and conferences (cf. Hinkelman & Gruba, 2012).

Electronic forums may also classify as synchronous writing in academic settings if done in real time (i.e., within a restricted space and short time span). However, little attention has been paid to its potential for academic purposes (cf. Finkelstein, 2006), as other seemingly better devices are employed, such as chat-rooms, video-conference sessions, etc. Yus (2001) specifies how linguistic-textual information derived from electronic academic use constitutes chief data for analysis. Students' identities are materialised via their own text (Yus, 2001: 58). According to critical discourse analysis (CDA) notions, the writers in this type of context will present text where community roles can be established, e.g., agreeing / disagreeing, requesting / validating information, even challenging social / structural aspects (Van Dijk, 1992: 34). The study of e-academic discourse may thus conform, at least in part, to CDA approaches, since the members of the community should comply with certain rules and instructions implied by the academic context and tasks. Yus (2010) claims that pragmatic resources are important in this type of e-communities, especially in terms of the critical information shared, interpreted and transmitted via the different channels.

The purposes for which academic writing is elaborated should also be considered (e.g., clarifying information, reviewing previous research, establishing a niche, etc) (cf. Swales, 2004). Linked to such aims, academic discourse may appear in one form or another, often shaping as genres. A higher or lower presence of certain functional linguistic elements may result in the search for discoursive fulfillment (cf. Trimble, 1985; Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991, etc). Such items can include objectives, cause-effects, examples, reasons, contrasts, results, references, information, opinion, and description, among others (cf. Braine, 1989). Their scrutiny in CDA is deemed as necessary for the edification of academic discourse.

Results

The 30 students in the Master of Art and Humanities (year 2011/2012) were assigned the same reading task (article by Rodríguez Sosa, 2005) to write on their ideas derived from such a text on research types and purposes. The students' age ranged from 22 years old to 45 (27.5 as the mean). Most students came from Hispanic Philology (12), and the rest from English Philology (6), Portuguese (2), Classic Philology (1), Art History (3), Geography (3), Humanities (2) and Architecture (1). A first group of 10 students (in alphabetical order) were assigned the task in the discussion forum with a one-month extension deadline (asynchronous forum), while the next 10 students did the reflective / evaluative writing task via chats with the instructor (individually along approximately 5-minute sessions each). The last 10 students did the task on the discussion forum during a one-hour session in the computer lab with the instructor. The youngest group was the first one (mean of 25.2 years old), whereas the oldest group was the second one with the chat (29.9). There were more Hispanic Philology students in the first and third groups (up to 50%) while the chat group had some more English Philology students (30%). The aim of the case study with the different groups was to check linguistic-discoursive variation, as mentioned above, but a second goal (sub-objective) was to see if any electronic device used could come close to spoken discourse in specific contexts (e.g., formal academic or business settings--cf. Collot & Belmore, 1996).

In a first analysis of the texts, the three groups were compared (Figure 1) to compute the percentages of sentences used to express subject content, social support, or task planning (in agreement with previous literature). In addition, meta-discoursive reference was also noted as a different category, given the noticeable presence of such elements in the first group. As can be observed, more content sentences surface in the three electronic media, but a lower percentage of content appears in chats, which include, in turn, higher frequencies than discussion forums for social support and task planning.

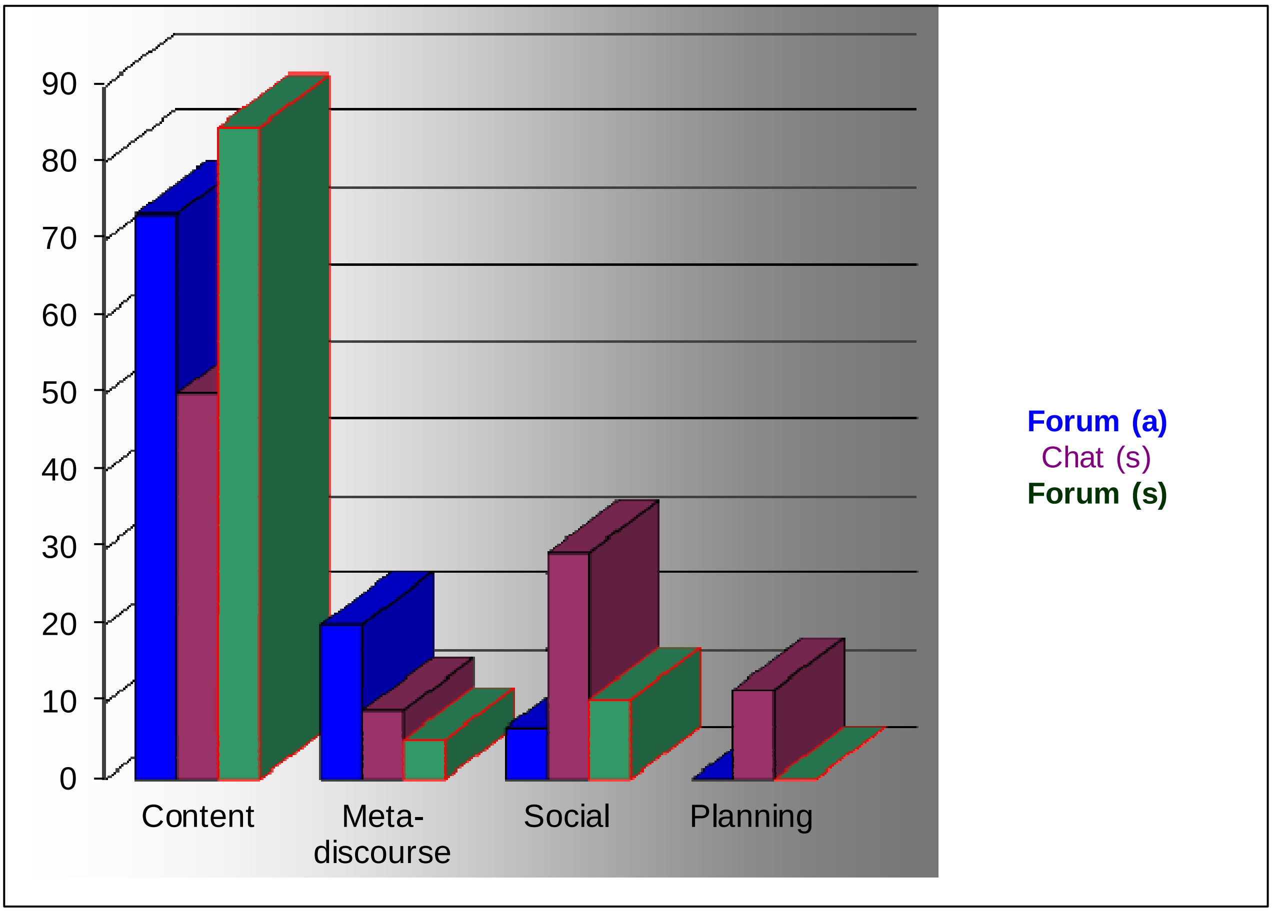

Figure 1. Sentences for each communicative aspect in the three e-modes

The proportion of sentences referring to content is even higher in the synchronic forum, whereas there are more meta-discoursive elements in the asynchronous one. Such items are also more formal than in chats (e.g., *como antes he mencionado* [*as I mentioned above*] versus *lo de investigación humanista* [about that of humanistic research]). Social support sentences are more frequent in chats, followed by some greetings and clarifications in synchronous forums. There are much fewer in the asynchronous forum. Planning is only recorded in chats, especially to refer to one's own research in the Master.

As regards the rhetorical functions observed in the sentences, Figure 2 provides a contrastive view of the proportions in the three devices (1 is the asynchronous forum, 2 is chat, and 3 is the synchronous forum).

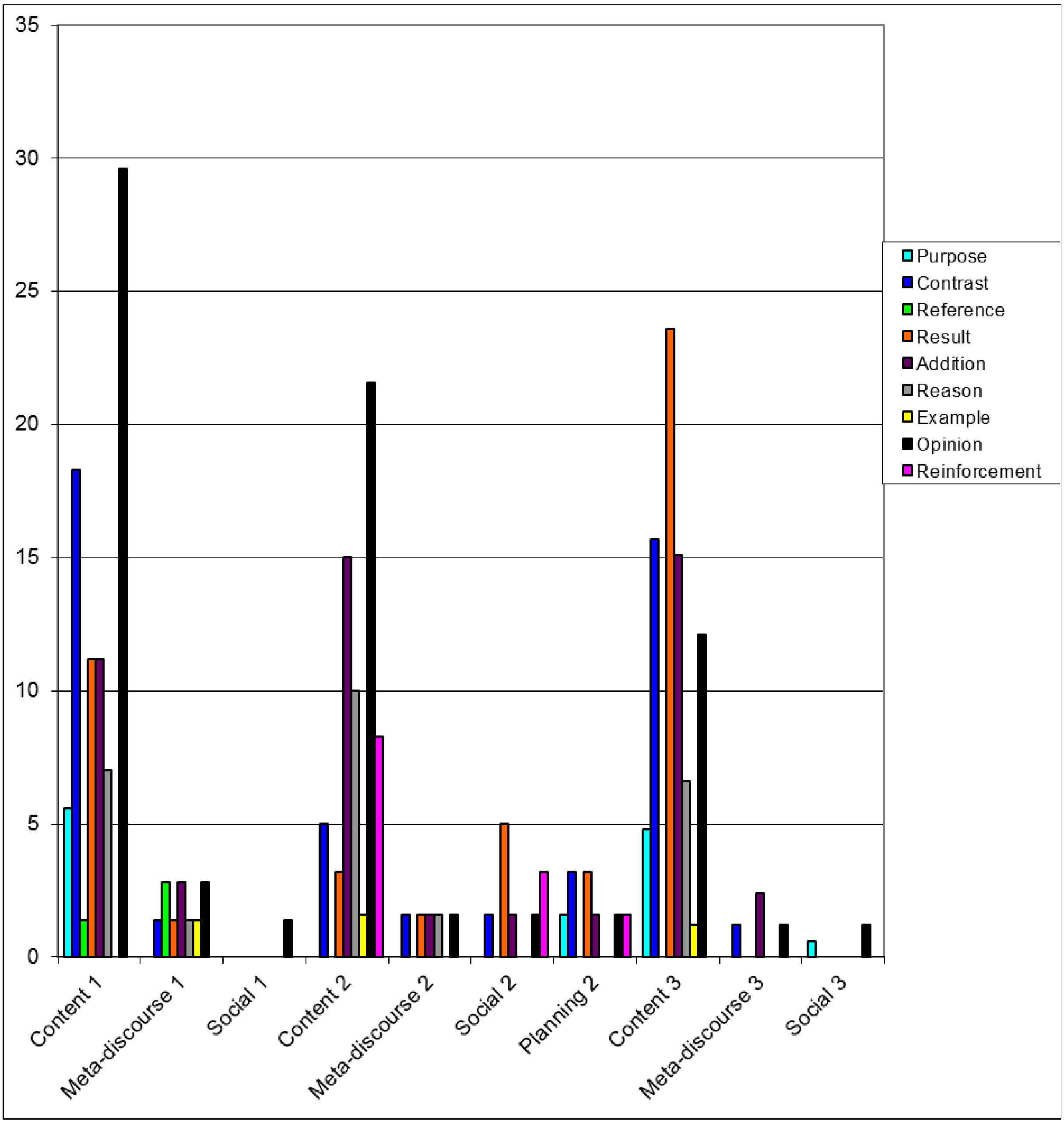

Figure 2. Proportions of rhetorical functions in the communicative categories in the three devices

Overall, as examined, in both forums there is a larger diversity of formal rhetorical items in the discussion of content, especially in case 1, where opinion is prominent, followed by contrast, results, and addition of information, whereas in case 3, results are the most frequent, followed by contrast, addition of information and opinion. In contrast, the diversity of items in content is smaller in chats, where opinion prevails, and then, to a lesser degree, addition of information and some reasons. In chats, in turn, there are more functions in the social support and task planning sections, especially results, contrast, and reinforcement (this last item only appears, in fact, in chats, a feature that resembles oral speech to some extent, as examined further below).

Most features are formal in both forums; there are 213 items in forum 1, and fewer (165) in real-time forums (device 3). In chats, there are 180 items, and although most are formal, there are also more informal / conversational elements than in the forums (the clearest examples are those recorded for reinforcement and addition of information). Table 1 illustrates these differences in register by displaying the most frequent items analysed. As highlighted in bold, device 3 (real-time forum) shares some formal items with the asynchronous forum (device 1) (e.g., in contrasts), but also some less formal ones (albeit fewer by comparison) with chats (e.g., to express opinion).

Most frequent rhetorical elements in devices			
	Forum (1)	Chat (2)	Forum (3)
Purpose	*con el fin*	***para***	***para* + V**
Contrast		*pero* (Plan.)	***sin embargo***
Reference	*En ese sentido*		
Result	*por lo que*	*pues + bien*	Por tanto
Addition of info.	*Además*	*y / y también*	*Para concluir*
Reason	*ya que*	*porque*	*pues*
Example	***por ejemplo***	***por ejemplo***	***por ejemplo***
Reinforcement		*OK*	
Opinion	*En mi opinión*	**Creo** */ pienso que*	*Desde mi punto*

Table 1. Examples of frequent items in the three devices

Finally, to illustrate the occurrence and context of the quantitative / qualitative linguistic-discoursive variation registered in the three media, some excerpts from texts written by students are discussed. First, Example 1 can give an idea of the greater focus made on content and formal language in asynchronous forum writing. Such content-related elements are underlined.

Por último, creo que el planteamiento del tercer tipo de investigación, que viene a plantear una postura intermedia entre las otras dos, es bastante interesante y productivo, ya que intenta aunar las características más significativas de las otras dos. La investigación de tipo humanista tiene un interés activista, en el sentido de que pretende mejorar las condiciones de vida de la humanidad y además el objetivo inmediato de su investigación es producir objeto útiles que contribuyan a mejorar el bienestar social de la humanidad. Por lo que quizás esta visión de la investigación podría ser, al menos desde mi punto de vista, la más acertada.

Example 1. Student's text from asynchronous forum (abundance of formal content items)

In another text from device 1, meta-discoursive elements are also significant (Example 2, where they are underlined and in italics). Such items are closely related to content and only appear more in asynchronous forums (few appear in chats and even fewer in rea-time forums). In this text, there is also one sentence (the only one in all the texts) that could classify as either social support or task planning (marked in italics and bold at the end of the paragraph). It was finally labeled as opinion alluding to the academic context / community, but could also be interpreted as implicit planning for the student's own research in the Master studies.

En las definiciones de Mario Bunge y Max Weber encuentro un aspecto común: el "hambre" de conocer más y más; aunque sin embargo, no encuentro *en su definición*, algo que para mí es fundamental; encontrar al conocimiento su utilidad para la sociedad. Investigar y descubrir, para luego no aplicar y avanzar no me parece positivo ni para la investigación ni para los investigadores, por lo que, creo, ***me encuentro en la corriente de la "investigación acción"(*)***

Example 2. Different items in asynchronous forum text

For device 2 (chats), Example 3 can illustrate a different type of discourse interacted with the teacher. As can be observed, there are fewer content-related items by comparison (underlined), and there are more social support elements to express opinion and reinforcement (in italics and underlined), and also planning task features (in bold and italics). One meta-discoursive element is also found in this text (in bold and underlined at the top).

Student: ...<u>bueno</u>, el link es que lo han ocultado más ahora, pero es éste: <u>http://www.ub.edu/biblio/citae-e.htm</u>
<u>Creo que</u> así, si uno quiere, <u>**al menos usarlo un poco de referencia**</u>– <u>también</u> la manera como se pone es lógica y simple, <u>así que</u> si alguno ya está en desuso o falla no da al lector ninguna alternativa-- dando más info. Se puede dar más datos-- <u>*pero bueno*</u>, <u>*creo que*</u> ***no se necesitaría totalmente para mi trabajo***

Student: <u>*Ah, OK, me parece bien*</u>!
Instructor: [Otra cosa, los 3 autores dicen cosas distintas, pero crees que hay algún nexo entre ellos? Es decir, su visión es paralela en el tiempo y se pueden dar todos los tipos, o no?]
Student: <u>No, yo creo que no</u>,... Bien puede haber cosas pero en la raíz no es para nada igual, <u>al menos desde mi punto de vista</u>

Instructor: [¿cómo llegas a esa conclusión?]
Student: <u>*Más que nada yo no sería capaz*</u> de concebir un mundo de investigación práctica ***para lo que quiero investigar***...<u>*No sé, creo que sería tb. alejarnos de las humanidades y eso no puede ser bueno tampoco*</u>

Example 3. Texts from chats with different rhetorical devices

Example 4 is a text from device 3 (synchronous forum writing). The language here is also more formal (compared to chats), as there are more formal content items (like in non-real time forums), underlined in the text. Some meta-discourse appears (although only in this text and one other text in device 3), underlined and in italics. The heading is interpreted as a social item (greetings to the community), marked in bold and italics at the top.

Buenas tardes, Desde mi punto de vista, el autor presenta la investigación "humanista" (tercera opción) como una solución a las debilidades de las dos anteriores, de manera que parece aportar la solución al dilema. Sin embargo, también parece mostrar deficiencias puesto que algo puede ser útil en un determinado ámbito, por ejemplo tecnológico, aunque no directamente para el resto de la sociedad. Por tanto, también está presente el aspecto económico, pues se crean muchos objetos que contribuyen al bienestar de la humanidad a los que solo tiene acceso una parte de la misma. Las tecnologías, *como digo*, que deben ser una pieza clave en este tipo de investigaciones utilitarias, no están al alcance de muchos.

Example 4. Text from real-time forum

In turn, the references to the social context / academic community are scarce in device 3, and when they happen, they are mainly used to express opinion. Example 5 illustrates this case in a student's conclusion, where an absence of explicit marking is noticed, and instead, the conditional verb tense is employed to express personal comments. This aspect is only found in synchronous forums, and not in asynchronous forum writing.

Lo ideal sería que se promovieran las investigaciones destinadas a aportar beneficios a nivel general, proporcionando soluciones a los diversos problemas de la sociedad y siendo este último un requisito imprescindible para aquellas financiadas con fondos públicos. ***De este modo***, la investigación científica ***estaría*** contribuyendo a la creación de un mundo más democrático.

Example 5. Text from device 3 with social support elements highlighted

Conclusions and prospects for future analyses

According to the results from this case study, the conclusions may be stated in the light of linguistic-discoursive variation related to specific electronic means. However, the type of media employed cannot be highlighted as the only determining factor. Closely linked are the type of tasks assigned (e.g., critical thinking and evaluative writing), time and space restrictions (e.g., deadlines), access mode (e.g., interactivity), and transmission channels (files or messages).

Thus, a clear difference exists in relation to the greater flexibility afforded by chats to be able to comment and discuss subject matter and tasks more freely as well as to integrate more bonding elements within the academic community. This type of communication is dialogic not only with the instructor, in this case, but also with the context (e.g., course and Master studies). In contrast, such a level of synchronicity that might have been found, at least partially, in real-time tasks in the synchronous forum, is barely detected. This level of formality is in fact closer to conventional forum writing for academic purposes.

The type of task submission may also influence the production of a more or less formal / academic language. This aspect could be investigated further by observing how different learners may write with a greater awareness of the essay genre in the development of critical thinking in the forum (e.g., by comparing items statistically with a larger corpus of essays) versus the same type of activity in chats (here, a large corpus of oral speech may be also useful as reference / contrast for the possible detection of similar features).
Another approach may include the age and background studies of the students as variables for statistical analysis. In this paper, the two factors were briefly mentioned, and, as examined, the older students used chats, while there were more Hispanic Philology students in both forums. These correlations should also be analysed in a larger sample to see if such factors may determine one level or another of writing production.

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Trabalhar com apresentações na interpretação *in situ* e na interpretação remota – um estudo experimental

Abstract
Interpretar é geralmente considerada uma actividade que pode causar algum stress. Gerir informação visual adicional proveniente de uma apresentação pode ser bastante útil – especialmente quando esta serve para esclarecer e ilustrar determinados conceitos e/ ou termos específicos referidos num determinado discurso. Contudo, poderá também ser ainda mais stressante, uma vez que obriga o intérprete a concentrar-se tanto na informação áudio como visual.

Conforme evidenciado em estudos anteriores, a introdução da modalidade da interpretação à distância, como resultado das tecnologias da informação e comunicação altamente desenvolvidas na era digital, tem causado alguma relutância e cepticismo na comunidade dos intérpretes de conferência. De um modo geral, trabalhar nestas condições é (ainda) visto de uma forma menos positiva, uma vez que esta modalidade pode influenciar negativamente a *performance* das interpretações. Tal deve-se a vários factores: lidar adicionalmente com tecnologias (não convencionais) de comunicação, sentimento de alienação em ambientes virtuais, etc.

Este estudo experimental, realizado com discentes do Curso de Mestrado em Tradução e Interpretação Especializadas do ISCAP, pretende fazer uma reflexão sobre a qualidade da interpretação em duas situações diferentes: por um lado, na interpretação *in situ* e, por outro lado, num ambiente de interpretação remota. Em ambas as situações foram utilizadas apresentações para apoio em *powerpoint*.

Concluímos que, em termos de qualidade, não existem diferenças significativas entre ambas as modalidades, embora o exercício da interpretação remota tenha sido menos bem sucedido.

Palavras chave: interpretação remota, interpretação *in situ*, estudo experimental, TIC, qualidade da interpretação

Introdução

Este estudo experimental insere-se no trabalho de investigação sobre a qualidade da interpretação, no qual é comparado e avaliado o desempenho de interpretações realizadas em duas modalidades de trabalho distintas: a interpretação *in situ* e a interpretação remota. Tal como já acontecera em estudos levados a cabo anteriormente, também esta experiência foi realizada, no âmbito da formação de intérpretes, i.e., neste estudo participaram alunos do Curso de Mestrado em Tradução e Interpretação Especializadas do ISCAP.

A interpretação *per se* é considerada uma actividade que pode causar algum stress. Se realizada remotamente, tal desconforto poderá ser agravado, devido a determinados factores próprios da modalidade à distância: a necessidade de lidar adicionalmente com tecnologias (não convencionais) de comunicação, sentimentos de alienação em ambientes virtuais, etc.

Nos exercícios deste estudo de interpretação foi introduzido em cada uma das modalidades de trabalho um elemento visual adicional, i.e., em cada uma das situações foram utilizadas apresentações para apoio em *powerpoint*. Este factor suplementar poderá ser bastante útil, uma vez que poderá esclarecer e ilustrar determinados conceitos e/ ou termos específicos referidos num determinado discurso. Contudo, os níveis de stress poderão ainda aumentar, pois com esta gestão o intérprete poder-se-á ver forçado a concentrar-se tanto na informação áudio como na visual.
Portanto, além de compararmos a *performance* das interpretações realizadas pelos discentes nas duas vertentes acima referidas, pretende-se com este trabalho reflectir se a qualidade de interpretação nas condições da segunda situação, i.e., num ambiente de interpretação à distância, foi influenciada negativamente pelo facto das interpretações destes alunos terem sido realizadas remotamente.

A utilização de *powerpoints* na interpretação

No seu artigo intitulado *The PowerPoint Presentation and its Corollaries: How Genres Shape Communicative Action in Organizations*, Orlikowski e Yates sublinham o facto de apresentações com informação visual serem utilizadas desde o início do século XX, i.e., antes da era da computação tal como a conhecemos no nosso quotidiano e mais concretamente no mundo empresarial. A este respeito, estas duas autoras afirmam o seguinte:

Business presentations with visual aids existed long before personal computers and PowerPoint software. In the early 20th century, firms were much smaller than they are today and semi-formal or formal presentations, especially those with visual aids, were not common. Presentations given at professional and trade association conferences were typically read from manuscripts, and within firms informal discussions were more common than presentations. The first visuals to emerge, graphs and charts based on numerical data, grew out of the systematic management movement's emphasis on recording and comparing data about business operations. (Orlikowski & Yates 2007: 75)

Neste trabalho Orlikowski e Yates ilustram a evolução da utilização de apresentações como um suporte de comunicações nas áreas mais diversificadas, ao longo do século XX, os respectivos materiais usados (por exemplo, o *flip chart*, *slides* de 35 mm, transparências e rectro-projectores, etc.), as normas a serem seguidas, nestas situações de comunicação, etc., concluindo posteriormente que, na era informática, o recurso a apresentações em *powerpoint* tornou-se prática comum. Baseando-se em Parker (2001), Orlikowski e Yates referem que

In the late 1980s, the idea of projecting directly from a computer first emerged […]. In 1987, PowerPoint 1.0 (for the Macintosh only) was released by Forethought, the small start-up company that developed it. Originally named "Presenter," the software generated black-and-white text and graphics pages that could be printed and converted into overhead transparencies via a photocopier. Shortly after the 1987 product launch, Microsoft acquired Forethought and by 1993, PowerPoint – now integrated with Word and Excel into Microsoft's Office Suite – was the dominant presentation software tool on the market". (Parker 2001; Orlikowski & Yates 2007: 77)

O *powerpoint* destaca-se assim como ferramenta dominante cuja utilização se tornou tão comum quanto ubíqua, que torna possível a inclusão de diversos formatos multimédia: texto, imagem, ficheiros áudio e vídeo, etc. A respeito desta característica geral deste utensílio, Lowenthal aponta que "The use of PowerPoint has become ubiquitous; whether in a corporate meeting or a classroom, PowerPoint is commonplace. In fact, it is estimated that over 30 million PowerPoint presentations are given each day" (Lowenthal 2009: 59)

No que concerne a utilização de *powerpoints* em discursos e respectivas interpretações, torna-se pertinente questionarmo-nos sobre que forma uma determinada apresentação poderá ajudar (ou não) o intérprete nas suas tarefas, i.e., se o intérprete realmente se serve deste suporte em determinada situação de interpretação. De certa forma, estes suportes poderão actuar como um auxílio ao intérprete, quando, por exemplo, em determinado discurso (técnico) surgem números que deverão ser vertidos de uma língua para outra, de forma exacta, e o intérprete tem a possibilidade de visualizar esses mesmos números. Uma outra forma que, seguramente, poderá facilitar a tarefa do intérprete será a estratégia da tradução à vista. Em muitas situações, estamos perante apresentações em *powerpoint* com textos consideravelmente longos cujo conteúdo é simplesmente lido por determinado orador. Tendo a possibilidade de uma boa visualização desses excertos nos *slides* e apercebendo-se que os mesmos estão apenas a serem lidos, o intérprete poderá tirar partido de todos estes elementos adicionais que estará a visualizar numa determinada situação de interpretação.

Certamente poderemos afirmar que a estratégia de recorrer a apresentações em *powerpoint* dependerá, de alguma forma, de hábitos e métodos de trabalho desenvolvidos, aquando da formação e, numa fase posterior, da experiência adquirida ao longo da carreira do intérprete. Furtado (2011a) aponta que, em diversos exercícios realizados com discentes, os mesmos geralmente revelam algum descontentamento em relação à interpretação com o auxílio da imagem, concentrando-se inicialmente mais no *input* áudio, uma vez que a informação visual adicional muitas vezes é conotada com um elemento de distracção, aquando da realização de determinados exercícios de interpretação. Nestes exercícios iniciais a prestação dos discentes é, de uma maneira geral, melhor quando estes são privados de toda a informação visual adicional. Baseando-se em Anderson (1994), Bacigalupe (1995) e em Almeida e Cunha (2005), Furtado conclui que, no que diz respeito à utilização da imagem, i.e., elementos visuais adicionais, na interpretação, a mesma pode não ser relevante para um melhor desempenho em determinada situação de interpretação. Pelo contrário, inicialmente este elemento adicional surge como um elemento perturbador. Portanto, apenas "Numa fase mais adiantada e após diversos exercícios de interpretação, com um auxílio de um elemento visual, i.e., a imagem do *rostrum* do orador, gráficos, *powerpoints*, etc. é de notar que este elemento adicional já não surge como um elemento perturbador". (Furtado 2011a: 185)

Contudo, não irei aprofundar neste trabalho a questão relacionada com o facto de *powerpoints* auxiliarem (ou não) o intérprete. O objectivo fundamental deste estudo experimental é analisar o desempenho de intérpretes-formandos durante os respectivos exercícios de interpretação, e verificar se a ausência do orador, i.e., uma situação de interpretação remota, influencia negativamente a *performance* dos discentes, num discurso dividido em duas partes, em que foram utilizadas uma apresentação em *powerpoint*, como elemento adicional de distracção, comparando esta modalidade com as interpretações realizadas num ambiente *in situ*.

A experiência – os participantes e os materiais utilizados

Como referido, este estudo foi realizado, no ano académico 2010/2011, com nove discentes do Curso de Mestrado em Tradução e Interpretação Especializadas. Ao contrário do procedimento descrito na experiência feita com os formandos no ano académico 2008/2009, em que um grupo, i.e., uma parte dos participantes realizou a interpretação de um discurso em condições semelhantes da interpretação *in situ* e o outro grupo trabalhou num ambiente de interpretação remota (*vide* Furtado 2011b), nesta experiência todos os alunos verteram a primeira parte do discurso de Inglês para Português, na modalidade da interpretação local e a outra parte, na mesma combinação de línguas, em condições da interpretação à distância.

O discurso proferido tinha como tema subjacente um voo simulado, do programa *Flight Simulator X* da *Microsoft*, entre Hamburgo e Frankfurt, na Alemanha, com um *Boeing* 747-400. Ambas as partes deste mesmo discurso tinham como suporte, como anteriormente mencionado, uma apresentação em *powerpoint*. Tratava-se, portanto, de um discurso de um tema técnico, no qual surgia uma vasta quantidade de números, nomes próprios e terminologia muito específica da área da aviação. Nesta tarefa, os formandos iam visualizando os *slides* da apresentação em *powerpoint* com algumas partes em texto escrito[20], diversas animações e, por último, dois *videoclips* com uma duração de cerca de 5 minutos cada, inseridos em ambas as partes da própria apresentação. Contudo, de forma a facilitar a tarefa aos formandos, foi distribuído um glossário com os termos específicos, antes da realização dos exercícios de interpretação. Além disso, foi utilizada, na maior parte do discurso uma linguagem comum do dia-a-dia.

As apresentações em *powerpoint* continham, como mencionado, diversas imagens retiradas do programa *Flight Simulator X*, i.e., das diversas fases do voo realizado.
Procedeu-se também à gravação de dois *videoclips* durante a mesma simulação do voo. Antes da inserção dos mesmos nas respectivas apresentações em powerpoint, os dois filmes de curta duração foram editados com um programa específico, que pudesse garantir uma resolução de 720x576 pixéis e com propriedades de som de 16 bits a uma frequência de 48 kHz, ou seja, trata-se de características semelhantes a um filme em DVD. Estas propriedades foram também utilizadas nos discursos pré-gravados e editados nos dois estudos experimentais anteriormente realizados (*vide* Furtado 2011b & 2013).

Para as condições semelhantes encontradas em ambientes da interpretação *in situ*, não foi necessário nenhuma preparação específica dos restantes materiais. O discurso com o respectivo suporte em *powerpoint* foi proferido, durante aproximadamente 24 minutos. No entanto, no que diz respeito à parte do discurso previsto para a interpretação à distância, recorreu-se à mesma estratégia utilizada nas experiências anteriores: o

[20] Numa parte do discurso proferido *in situ*, os alunos tiveram a possibilidade de realizar a respectiva interpretação, através da tradução à vista, uma vez que os excertos foram lidos pelo orador.

discurso foi previamente gravado em vídeo, editado com as mesmas características acima indicadas e posteriormente inserido na apresentação em *powerpoint*, numa janela de dimensão reduzida, mostrando apenas o *rostrum* do orador.

As respectivas animações foram ensaiadas e inseridas automaticamente, de acordo com o conteúdo do discurso, de forma a permitir a ausência física do orador no espaço em que os formados estavam a realizar a interpretação à distância. Também esta parte do discurso teve uma duração de cerca de 24 minutos.

O procedimento

Tal como acontecera nos dois estudos anteriormente referidos, também os formandos não tiveram conhecimento prévio que iriam participar numa experiência. Receberam instruções claras para se dirigirem ao laboratório de interpretação do Centro Multimédia do ISCAP, onde iriam realizar estas duas tarefas de interpretação simultânea, tendo sido a primeira feita na modalidade da interpretação *in situ* e a segunda parte em condições de interpretação remota. Entre uma tarefa e a outra foi dado um intervalo de cerca de 10 minutos aos formandos.

Todas as interpretações foram gravadas em ficheiros áudio através do gravador digital "SANAKO Lab 100" (*vide* Fig. 4) e respectivo *software* (*vide* Fig. 5), no formato mp3.

Fig. 1. – O gravador digital "SANAKO Lab 100".

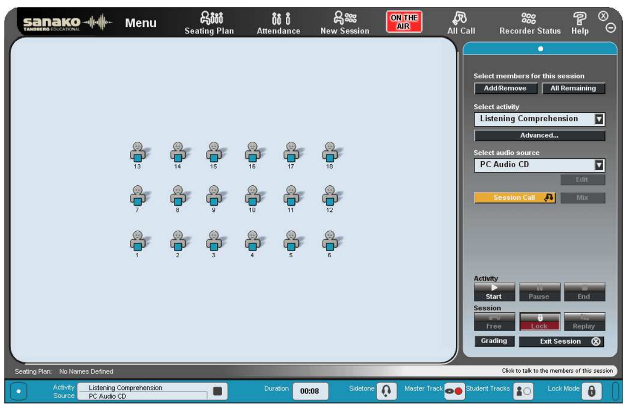

Fig. 2. – O *software* do equipamento "SANAKO Lab100, existente no posto do professor, no laboratório de interpretação, no CML do ISCAP.

Os respectivos ficheiros das interpretações *in situ* e remota foram recolhidos respectivamente com designações "sujeito_A_insitu.mp3", "sujeito_B_insitu.mp3", "sujeito_A_remota.mp3", "sujeito_B_remota.mp3", etc. Posteriormente, o conteúdo de cada interpretação foi transcrito e analisado, segundo os critérios de qualidade apresentados nos estudos anteriores (*vide* Furtado 2011a & 2013).

Os resultados da análise

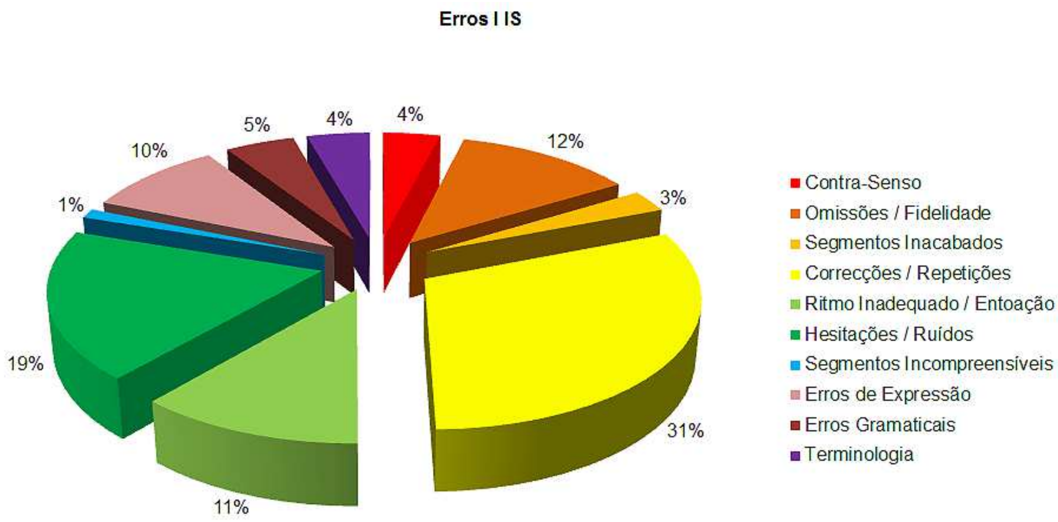

Fig. 3. – Percentagem da média dos erros na interpretação *in situ*

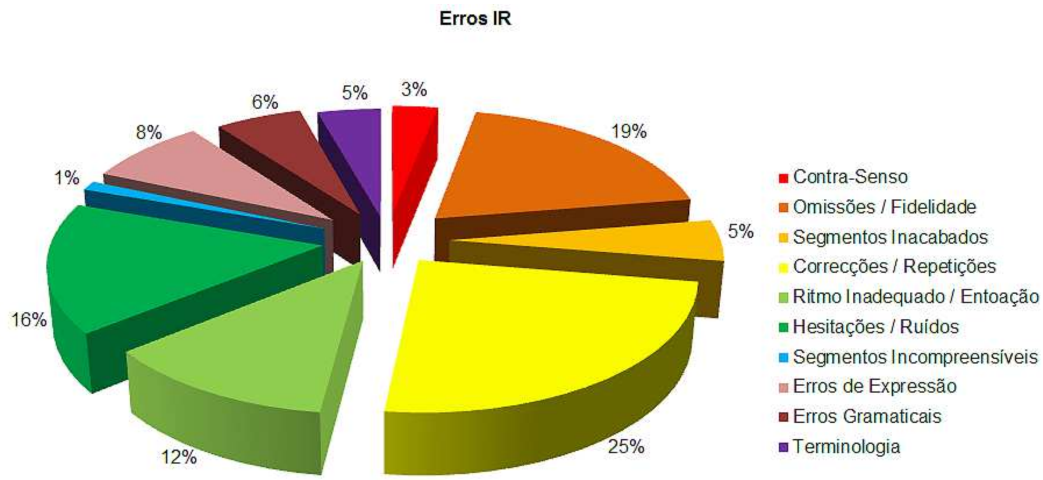

Fig. 4. – Percentagem da média dos erros na interpretação remota

Tal como se pode verificar nas figuras 6 e 7, não existem diferenças muito significativas entre a qualidade de uma modalidade de interpretação e de outra. Constata-se igualmente que os erros com maior ocorrência são referentes a "Omissões/ Fidelidade", "Correcções/ Repetições", "Ritmo Inadequado/ Entoação" e "Hesitações/ Ruídos".

Contudo, a diferença mais marcante entre ambas as situações de interpretação diz respeito ao parâmetro relativo a "Omissões/ Fidelidade" – 12% na interpretação local *versus* 19% na modalidade da interpretação remota. Considerando também a totalidade das percentagens relativa aos critérios que dizem respeito ao conteúdo da informação vertido, i.e., "Contra-Senso", "Omissões/ Fidelidade" e "Segmentos Inacabados", verificamos que houve mais ocorrências referentes a estes critérios na interpretação remota do que na interpretação *in situ* – respectivamente 27% *versus* 19%. Assim, a *performance* dos formandos poderá ser considerada, de uma forma geral, pior na modalidade da interpretação remota.

Conclusão

Face aos resultados acima apresentados, poderemos concluir que, em termos gerais, não existem diferenças significativas, no que respeita à qualidade das prestações dos formandos, ao realizarem estes trabalhos de interpretação de discursos com apresentações em *powerpoint*, nas modalidades *in situ* e remota[21]. Isto deve-se ao facto de os discentes terem salientado que sentiram poucas diferenças entre a presença física do orador na primeira variante da interpretação presencial e a imagem do mesmo, inserida na apresentação em *powerpoint*, enquanto realizavam a tarefa no ambiente da interpretação remota. Poderemos igualmente concluir que a utilização deste elemento visual das apresentações em *powerpoint* se tornou de igual forma eficaz nos dois ambientes observados.

No entanto, também como já referido, deveremos sublinhar que a prestação dos formandos foi menos bem sucedida no momento da interpretação efectuada remotamente. Esta observação poderá estar relacionado com os seguintes factores: deveremos referir que, para além das aulas da unidade curricular "Interpretação Remota e de Teleconferência" terem sido ministradas no último tempo lectivo, no regime pós-laboral, i.e., entre as 21h30 e as 23h00, a interpretação remota foi realizada após a interpretação *in situ*, o que poderá ter motivado um cansaço mais acentuado nesta segunda tarefa, que poderá igualmente ter influenciado negativamente a concentração durante a tarefa da interpretação remota.

[21] Os resultados do estudo levado a cabo com os mestrandos, no ano acdémico 2008/2009, apontam igualmente para diferenças mínimas entre uma e outra forma de trabalho (*vide* Furtado 2011b).

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Apps en ingles para negocios ¿Qué buscan los estudiantes?

Resumen
El uso del móvil está presente de manera permanente en nuestra vida. Su continuo desarrollo y la integración de nuevas herramientas en forma de aplicaciones internas o por descarga lo hacen ideal para el aprendizaje. Por consiguiente, recientemente se han venido incorporando más aplicaciones educativas incluyendo algunas para el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras. Este trabajo se centra en la observación de las reacciones de los estudiantes de inglés al uso de dichas aplicaciones. El trabajo comienza por describir el estado del arte en relación al aprendizaje a través de teléfonos móviles y específicamente del inglés para, a continuación, centrarse en una encuesta realizada en la facultad de Turismo sobre su uso y recomendaciones. El artículo concluye que éste es un tema de gran interés debido a tres aspectos fundamentales: la edad de los usuarios, su capacidad de uso y la motivación que les confiere a los estudiantes el uso del móvil para el aprendizaje.
Palabras clave: Aplicaciones, móviles, actitudes, motivación, variables, uso, cuantitativo.

Introducción
Actualmente el uso del móvil se ha convertido en uno de nuestros acompañantes más cercanos en todos los momentos y lugares de nuestra vida ¿Quién no ha mandado callar a alguien cuyo timbre suena en mitad del cine? Los teléfonos móviles o celulares, las PDAs y smartphones también han cambiado su faz o, más bien, sus interfaces o funcionalidades (Martínez Pavón et al., 2006) aunque, sin duda, la combinación de tablets en entornos formales (Saorín Pérez, 2011) y las apps para entornos informales, abren numerosas oportunidades a nuevos tipos de aprendizaje (García Laborda y Giménez López, 2008; Herranz, 2009). Este trabajo se centra en la observación de las reacciones de los estudiantes de inglés al uso de dichos dispositivos, más concretamente a las aplicaciones de teléfonos móviles (coloquialmente llamadas apps, témino que

también usaremos nosotros de aquí en adelante). El trabajo comienza por describir el estado del arte en relación al aprendizaje a través de teléfonos móviles y específicamente del inglés para, a continuación, centrarse en una encuesta realizada en una facultad de Turismo sobre su uso y recomendaciones. El artículo concluye que este es un tema de gran interés debido a tres aspectos fundamentales: la edad de los usuarios, su capacidad de uso y la motivación que les da el uso del móvil para el aprendizaje.

Estado del arte

Los sistemas y entornos como Android con gran flexibilidad para aplicaciones Java (Lozano Ortega, 2004) han permitido un mejor flujo de datos haciendo accesible Internet y poniendo las web sociales al alcance de muchos estudiantes. Por tanto, para ellos, al contrario de la mayor parte de nosotros, el móvil es parte de su personalidad. Por ello, no solamente los entienden y han internalizado su lógica sino que se sienten cómodos con su uso. Recientemente la publicación Quo (abril 2012, http://www.quo.es/ciencia/noticias/nomofobia_o_el_sindrome_smartphone) mostraba una serie de enfermedades y problemas psicológicos asociados a su uso. Por eso, cabe pensar que su utilización en el aprendizaje sea bien acogida. Por ejemplo, Jiménez (2005) propone que los mensajes pueden ser utilizados como medios educativos y motivadores de aprendizaje a través de herramientas de comunicación, acciones formativas virtuales siempre que sean incorporadas a los LMS (Learning Management Systems). Chinnery (2006) examinó el estado de la cuestión sobre el aprendizaje de la lengua a través de teléfonos móviles. Su trabajo muestra proyectos que utilizan teléfonos móviles para la práctica de vocabulario, miniexámenes, tutorías en vivo, y la entrega de tareas a través del correo electrónico, así como otros proyectos que utilizan las PDA para compartir archivos, la reproducción de vídeos y el uso del lápiz óptico de texto. Goh y Hooper (2007) muestran formas en las que la comunicación e interacción promovidas a través de actividades comunicativas con el móvil en clases grandes heterogéneas son atractivas pero, señalan que su gran coste puede dificultar el uso. Sin embargo, puede que algunas actividades relacionadas con la web social puedan ser realizadas a través de teléfonos móviles. Más recientemente, Sandberg et al. (2011) realizaron un estudio sobre la importancia de la tecnología móvil para el aprendizaje de inglés como segunda lengua para estudiantes de primaria. Un primer grupo recibió clases en el aula de inglés sobre los animales del zoológico y sus características.

Un segundo grupo estudió los mismos contenidos en el aula y trabajó con una aplicación móvil en el lugar, en un zoológico público. Un tercer grupo recibió el mismo trato que el segundo, pero, como extensión, se le permitió el uso de aplicaciones móviles en casa durante dos semanas. Los pre y post-tests mostraron que el grupo que usaba el móvil en casa aprendió mejor los contenidos explicados. Los resultados indican que los estudiantes se sienten motivados a utilizar el teléfono móvil en su tiempo libre y que esto beneficia a su aprendizaje. Aunque los resultados parecen muy positivos, recientemente, los investigadores se han fijado, sin embargo, en las limitaciones. Por ejemplo, García Laborda at al. (2011) se fijan en las limitaciones del uso de teléfonos móviles para realización de tests por medio de móviles (tal y como sucedía en el examen oral PhonePass® , http://tap.uconn.edu/ita/testing/) entre éstas, está su limitación para escribir textos incluso usando teclados Qwerty.

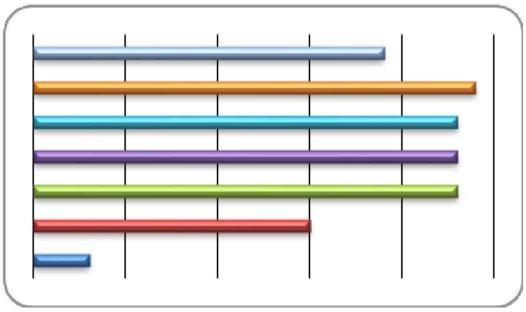
Todas estas ventajas e inconvenientes que se perciben afectan a la hora de seleccionar los estilos cognitivos y procesos mentales de aprendizaje así como, fundamentalmente, la teoría de adquisición de la lengua, mayormente asociada al constructivismo social (Vygotsky, 1978; Bandura, 1986). Efectivamente, a través del uso continuo de ejercicios específicos descargados en el móvil (y su aprendizaje a través del aprendizaje repetitivo -“core learning”-) los estudiantes aprenden a utilizar el lenguaje primero en el entorno de aprendizaje y finalmente en la vida real. Por eso, la selección de las apps utilizadas para el aprendizaje es fundamental. Este trabajo tratará de analizar el uso de apps por los estudiantes de lenguas extranjeras, específicamente de inglés en la asignatura de Inglés I de la Facultad de Turismo de la Universidad de Jaén. A través del mismo, tratamos de averiguar el uso que los estudiantes dan al móvil, si lo aplicarían al aprendizaje de idiomas, cuando lo harían y si utilizarían las apps que se les sugiere.

Metodología y procedimiento de experimentación

Muestra

50 estudiantes de primer curso del Grado de Turismo de la Universidad de Jaén. La edad media de los estudiantes era 19.3 años. 30 estudiantes eran de sexo femenino. Todos ellos poseen ordenador. En cuanto a su capacidad de uso de ordenador, solamente dos estudiantes (4%) reportó ser un usuario bajo, mientras que 18 (36%)

dijeron ser usuarios medios y 30 (60%) usuarios avanzados. En lo referente al uso del teléfono móvil, más allá de la comunicación telefónica (figura 1), la mayoría de los estudiantes hacen un uso muy alto para comunicación, adquisición de información en red y desarrollo de redes sociales, pero muy pocos, lo usan para jugar (12%).

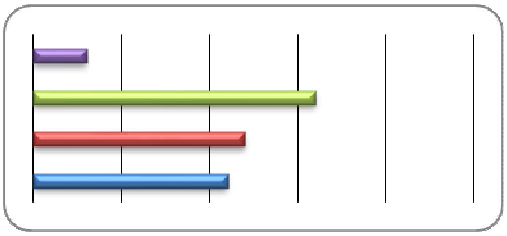


Cámara	38	76%
Oir música	48	96%
Chatear	46	92%
Red social (facebook, twitter, linkedin, vimeo, you tube…)	46	92%
Consultar información en internet	46	92%
Aprender	30	60%
Otros (juegos…etc.)	6	12%

*Los usuarios pueden seleccionar más de una casilla de verificación. Por lo que los porcentajes pueden superar el 100%.

Tabla 1. Uso del teléfono móvil fuera de la comunicación telefónica.

En cuanto al momento en que se usa el móvil (figura 2), no aparece suficientemente claro sobre el momento del día. Aparentemente la mayoría de los entrevistados afirma que suelen utilizarlo más frecuentemente por la tarde (64%), en momentos en que la actividad productiva es baja como los transportes (48%) o las esperas (42%).



Mañana	6	12%
Tarde	32	64%
Mientras voy en transporte público	24	48%
Mientras espero (p. ej. En el médico… etc.)	22	44%

*Los usuarios pueden seleccionar más de una casilla de verificación. Por lo que los porcentajes pueden superar el 100%.

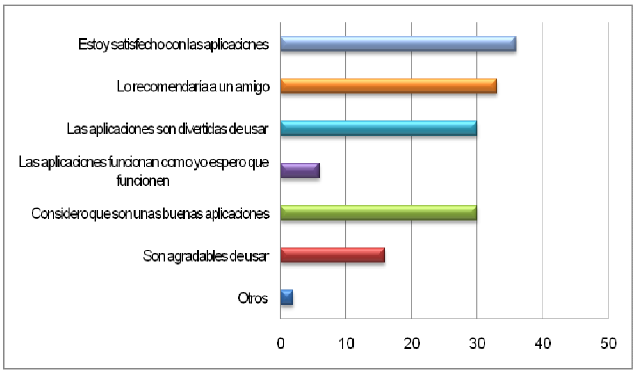
Tabla2. Temporalizarían del uso de teléfonos móviles.

Metodología

Para este experimento se distribuyó un cuestionario a través de google docs a los 50 estudiantes ya citados. Los estudiantes tenían que descargarse cuatro aplicaciones de la página del British Council (http://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/mobile-learning). Una vez consultada la página web, se descargarían 4 aplicaciones gratuitamente y tratarían de trabajar con ellas. La página es muy informativa y da detalles de cada aplicación. Los resultados se analizaron a través de un sistema percentil. En lo referente a las respuestas cualitativas, las hemos clasificado según su grado de positividad aunque no se ha hecho un análisis exhaustivo por dificultad a la hora de codificarlas y por no considerarse necesario el uso de programas como CAQDAS (Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software), NUDIST o AQUAD.

Resultados

Como se ve en el cuestionario (Anexo), nuestro interés era saber el grado de satisfacción que produce el uso y el aprendizaje en entornos móviles. Por ello, nos centramos en la opinión respecto a su adecuación para el aprendizaje. En la figura 3, se muestra un alto grado de satisfacción de los estudiantes (72%).



Estoy satisfecho con las aplicaciones	36	72%
Lo recomendaría a un amigo	33	66%
Las aplicaciones son divertidas de usar	30	60%
Las aplicaciones funcionan como yo espero que funcionen	6	12%
Considero que son unas buenas aplicaciones	30	60%
Son agradables de usar	16	32%
Otros	2	4%

*Los usuarios pueden seleccionar más de una casilla de verificación. Por lo que los porcentajes pueden superar el 100%.

Tabla 3. Grado de satisfacción con las aplicaciones utilizadas.

Asimismo, un 66% lo recomendaría a sus amigos y un 60% considera que son aplicaciones divertidas para usar. Sorprende, sin embargo, la opinión sobre el funcionamiento de las apps ya que solamente un 12% afirman que funcionan como se desearía y aunque los estudiantes consideran que son buenas aplicaciones, no parecen agradables de usar 32%.

En lo referente a su recomendación (¿Recomendaría el aprendizaje de inglés a través de móviles? ¿A quién y por qué?) Las repuestas son varias. En general, sin embargo, las respuestas concentran sus razonamientos en tres factores principales: edad, dominio informático y ubicuidad y, finalmente, por la motivación.

Edad/ubicuidad	Estudiante 4	Sí, se lo recomendaría a cualquier tipo de persona pero especialmente a los jóvenes, ya que son los que más usamos el móvil para este tipo de cosas y así puede resultar más sencillo el aprendizaje de inglés, esto es, porque se puede hacer cuándo y dónde se quiera.
Edad / motivación/desventaja	Estudiante 28	Sí, sobretodo recomendaría las aplicaciones a los niños a los que ayudo con inglés. Creo que son aplicaciones divertidas, a través de las cuales uno puede aprender. La gran desventaja es que no todos tienen los móviles que se necesitan para descargar las aplicaciones y este factor puede influir negativamente.
Capacidad como usuario/ubicuidad/motivación	Estudiante 6	Sí, porque creo que hoy casi todo pasa a través de los móviles. Los estudiantes pasan como mínimo 12 horas al día con los móviles, y si pueden estudiar sin tener que separarse de ellos, es más, si pueden aprender usándolos y encima de manera interactiva y entretenida, creo que eso fomentará el estudio y el aprendizaje notablemente.
Motivación/ubicuidad	Estudiante 22	Si, lo recomendaría a la gente que quiere aprender inglés de una forma sencilla y entretenida a la vez. Ademas, las tienes en el móvil así que ya no tienes escusa para no aprender ingles de una forma efectiva y rápida.

Tabla 4. Razones para recomendar el uso de apps para el aprendizaje de inglés

Conclusiones

Este estudio ha presentado las actitudes de los estudiantes de inglés I de la Universidad de Jaén ante la utilización de apps para el aprendizaje de idiomas. Como hemos visto, y basándonos en razones de uso, motivación y edad, hemos observado una tendencia positiva hacia el mismo. Los estudiantes de primer año obtienen un buen rendimiento de las distintas funcionalidades y aplicaciones de sus teléfonos móviles y generalmente la mayor parte de la interacción con el móvil se hace por la tarde y en tiempo libre o de esperas. Por ello, es fácil comprender que el entorno les resulta familiar y se pueden adaptar al mismo para su propio aprendizaje. Asimismo, se ven animados a recomendar su uso a otros compañeros y personas. Aunque los resultados son eminentemente positivos, el estudio presenta la limitación del tamaño de la muestra. También cabría preguntarse, si todos los alumnos tendrían acceso a teléfonos móviles modernos y multifuncionales capaces de incorporar estas apps. Por tanto, los resultados deben ser tomados como un mero indicador, sin considerarse ni un estudio exhaustivo ni concluyente. Para el futuro, debería probarse cuestionarios similares en entornos educativos más abiertos, con una variedad de alumnos de distintos estratos culturales y económicos. Sin embargo, nuestro acercamiento resulta interesante de cara a una posterior investigación ya que, hasta el momento, apenas se ha observado el efecto de las apps en el aprendizaje general o específico. Por tanto, este tema queda abierto a futuras y, sin duda, interesantes investigaciones.

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ANEXO

Va realizar una encuesta sobre el uso de apps para el aprendizaje de inglés. Tendrá que descargar cuatro aplicaciones de la página http://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/mobile-learning y contestar al siguiente cuestionario. Aunque los resultados o los niveles de dificultad sean sencillos en la mayor parte de los casos, realice el cuestionario.

Muchas gracias

----

1) ¿Dispone de ordenador propio? Sí / No / Uso mayormente uno que no es mío
2) Nivel de experiencia en el uso de ordenador: Bajo / Medio / Alto
3) ¿Utiliza el teléfono móvil para otras funciones que no sean llamar? *
    a. Cámara
    b. Oir música
    c. Chatear
    d. Red social (facebook, twitter, linkedin, vimeo, you tube,...)
    e. Consultar información en Internet
    f. Aprender
    g. Otro:
4) Si respondió a cualquiera de las anteriores ¿Cuándo lo usa más? *
    a. Mañana / Tarde
    b. Mientras voy en transporte público
    c. Mientras espero (p. ej. en el médico, en la espera de algo...)
5) En general, respecto a las aplicaciones analizadas:
    a. Estoy satisfecho con las aplicaciones
    b. Las recomendaría a un amigo
    c. Las aplicaciones son divertidas de usar
    d. Las aplicaciones funcionan como yo espero que funcionen
    e. Considero que son unas buenas aplicaciones
    f. Son agradables de utilizar
6) ¿Recomendaría el aprendizaje de inglés a través de móviles? ¿A quién y por qué?

*En las preguntas 3, 4 y 5 los usuarios pueden seleccionar más de una casilla de verificación.

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Aplicación del nuevo canal de comunicación backchannel, por medio de la red generalista twitter, en una presentación o en una conferencia

Resumen

Vivimos en un mundo digitalizado en el que la conectividad y el uso de las Redes Sociales forman parte de la actividad académica y personal de los alumnos universitarios. Por este motivo, pensamos que dichos usuarios, denominados también *Multitasking Generation* que, por su capacidad de interactuar con muchos medios al mismo tiempo, deberán iniciarse en el uso del Backchannel, como nuevo canal de comunicación multidireccional en la práctica de las presentaciones orales, llevando a cabo un concepto de conferencia diferente, en la que los asistentes participan escribiendo comentarios en sus *smartphones*, tabletas o cualquier otro dispositivo móvil, pasando, de esta manera, de ser una audiencia pasiva a activa.

En este trabajo de investigación, mostraremos la experiencia altamente positiva obtenida con un grupo de estudiantes de la Escuela Técnica Superior de Ingenieros de Caminos, Canales y Puertos de la Universidad Politécnica de Valencia, durante tres sesiones de prácticas de una asignatura cuyo objetivo es hablar en público en contextos profesionales. El *microblogging* Twitter ha sido el elegido como herramienta para la aplicación del Backchannel, ya que el redactar un comentario solo en 140 caracteres supone un ejercicio de síntesis de lo que se está escuchando y facilita el intercambio de opiniones. Para la creación del evento se ha partido de la lectura de un texto digital relacionado con la necesidad de internacionalizarse de los futuros ingenieros y se ha creado un *hashtag* que les ha servido para interactuar con el orador durante la exposición de las diferentes presentaciones.

Palabras clave: Redes Sociales, cibergénero, Twitter, Backchannel, rederos

Introducción

Dado que el objetivo del presente congreso es promover el intercambio de experiencias de trabajos entre la comunidad académica y científica internacional, para mejorar la enseñanza-aprendizaje y optimizar la futura inserción de los alumnos en el mercado de trabajo, expondremos parte de un proyecto llevado a cabo por el grupo de Enseñanza Colaborativa de Lenguas en Red (GECOLER) del Departamento de Lingüística Aplicada de la Universidad Politécnica de Valencia.

Sabemos que la formación de los estudiantes de ingeniería precisa de contenidos tanto de carácter técnico como de la mejora de su propia lengua. Durante el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje en la Universidad, se ha podido constatar que gran parte de los problemas y dificultades a los que se tienen que enfrentar los alumnos derivan de una insuficiente y, cada vez más empobrecida capacidad para comprender y, posteriormente, producir textos orales dentro del entorno académico. Estas carencias son las que les supondrán una rémora a la hora de llevar a cabo una presentación o conferencia.

Por todo ello, uno de los objetivos primordiales de esta experiencia es que los estudiantes –futuros ingenieros- cuando accedan al mundo del trabajo, bien si se dedican a la docencia universitaria, bien si realizan su actividad en la empresa pública o privada, hayan adquirido en nuestra aulas las competencias que les permitan expresarse de manera eficaz en contextos donde la tecnología y las redes sociales han cambiado el método tradicional en las conferencias o presentaciones, es decir, la forma unidireccional en la que el ponente se dirige a una audiencia pasiva, por la bidireccional o participación activa de la misma. Dado que la audiencia a la que se dirigen ha cambiado en los últimos años, el modo de las presentaciones o conferencias deberá serlo también.

Perfil redero y audiencia

Los jóvenes entre 16 y 29 años, que están irrumpiendo con fuerza en el mercado en los centros de trabajo, en las universidades y en cada rincón de la sociedad:

> *Son los representantes de una nueva cultura -la de la colaboración a través de los medios digitales- que acabará por imponerse, y que ya está cambiando el mundo tal y como lo conocemos. El perfil de los creadores*

> *del entorno de las Redes Sociales pertenece a la generación de nativos digitales.* (Sanz Álava, 2010)
>
> *What should we call these "new" students of today? Some refer to them as the N-[for Net]-gen or D-[for digital]-gen. But the most useful designation I have found for them is* ***Digital Natives.*** *Our students today are all "native speakers" of the digital language of computers, video games and the Internet (Prensky, M. 2001).*

Ahora, también se les describe como generación *multitasking*, es decir, multitarea, capaces de llevar a cabo varias actividades de forma simultánea. Esta nueva denominación se publicó en la Revista "Time" en el 2006.

Otro punto importante es el concepto de audiencia que según Stephan Fuetterer (2011) se debería cambiar por el de: ***"transceptores" cuando deseemos designar a las personas que reciben, pero también emiten mensajes en el proceso de la comunicación, sobre todo en el relacionado con los medios sociales.*** Gonzalo Álvarez Marañón (2011) comparte también la idea de que las audiencias han cambiado de forma radical: *ya no acuden a las presentaciones como única fuente de información, sus expectativas en las charlas han aumentado drásticamente, quieren mayor participación y, por último, se marchan si no encuentran lo que desean.*

¿Qué es el Backchannel?

> *Es el nuevo canal de comunicación multidireccional que surge gracias a las nuevas tecnologías y que, liderado por twitter, permite transmitir lo que está ocurriendo en tiempo real durante un evento, como un congreso, una conferencia, etc. Es decir, mientras el ponente está hablando los asistentes al evento están reescribiendo e interpretando lo expuesto en Twitter o en chat paralelo* (Marco, 2011).
>
> *En la mayoría de las conferencias, el backchannel es proyectado en una segunda pantalla al lado de la pantalla principal que el conferenciante*

utiliza para su presentación, permitiendo así a los asistentes enviar mensajes al backchannel mediante herramientas como Twitter, Meebo o simples salas de chat desde sus portátiles o teléfonos móviles y, en el caso de conferencias que son emitidas además en tiempo real a través de la web, posibilitando además la intervención de personas que no se encuentra físicamente en la sala de conferencias (en este caso es recomendable además indicar en la web la existencia del backchannel con un enlace o ventana (Dans, 2009).

Esta herramienta canaliza lo que ya es una realidad en las conferencias tanto de empresa como universitarias. Al público que la usa se le llama también *prosumidor* (productor/profesional y consumidor) y acude al evento con *smartphones* ¸ **tabletas… Para poder llevar a cabo un** Backchannel es necesario contar con el permiso del orador, debido a que requiere mucha seguridad impartir unos contenidos que son contestados en tiempo real por mensajes, a través del cibergénero Twitter, y que van apareciendo a la vista de la audiencia y también a todos los que están conectados al evento por Internet.

Práctica del resumen

Un artículo aparecido en Expansión.com (2011) comenta cómo seis universidades francesas, que trabajan colectivamente con Twitter, han conseguido utilizar esta red social para que los alumnos se instruyan en lugar de perder el tiempo mandándose mensajes superficiales. Sigue el artículo informando de que en Lille los estudiantes exponen su tema en 140 caracteres llevando a cabo un trabajo de síntesis. “Los alumnos aprenden a resumir, a ir a lo importante del texto y a organizar su discurso”.

Antes de comenzar el experimento, es necesario recordar a los estudiantes que los contenidos que van a presentar parten de un artículo publicado en una revista de la Ingeniería Civil que trata de las expectativas laborales de su profesión en estos momentos de crisis económica. Dicho artículo es: “La salida al mercado internacional. Entre Escila y Caribdis” que aparece en el número 154 de la Revista Cauce 2000.

Después de la lectura del mismo, deberán resumir dicho artículo según la práctica del resumen y adaptarlo al discurso oral, ya que una forma altamente eficaz para obtener presentaciones orales similares a las que tendrán que realizar los futuros ingenieros, parte de la lectura comprensiva de textos producidos por autores de su misma profesión o cercana a ella. De este modo, asumirán paulatinamente el contenido de su exposición a la que llegarán como auténticos expertos en la materia.

Un resumen mantiene exactamente la información básica, aunque no con las mismas palabras. Los resúmenes deben respetar los contenidos del original sin mezclar nuestras opiniones. Es la representación abreviada de la información básica de un texto. Al resumir, se elimina toda la información accesoria, esto no significa tachar para retener la información esencial sino que se redactará otro texto.

Los pasos que realizarán los estudiantes hasta producir una presentación oral delante de una audiencia son los siguientes:

a. Lectura comprensiva del texto antes citado y relacionado con la Ingeniería Civil.
b. Redacción de un resumen.
c. Revisión de lo realizado.
d. Adaptación del texto escrito a las características de lo oral.
e. Diseño y redacción de diapositivas para el programa *power point.*
f. Práctica de lo redactado para un tiempo de 5 minutos.
g. Presentación oral frente a una audiencia real simulada. (Sanz Álava 2003).
h. Aplicación de la herramienta Backchannel por la audiencia.

Metodología

Para conformar este trabajo organizado para tres sesiones de prácticas de la asignatura “Expresión Oral en la Ingeniería Civil” en el aula informática de la ETSICCP, se informa a los 25 alumnos del Grupo A de la posibilidad de involucrarse en el proyecto. (Previamente los alumnos han cumplimentado un test de análisis de necesidades preparado para este fin). Todos aceptan participar porque les parece novedoso, además de divertido, y con muchas posibilidades de ponerlo en práctica en un futuro laboral y académico.

Se organizan en 5 grupos y eligen a un responsable que va a ser el que haga la exposición. El trabajo será en equipo y colaborativo, y antes de cada sesión se conectarán por alguna red social y/o por Mi PoliformaT para compartir criterios y repartir el trabajo. En la sección Wiki la profesora irá introduciendo las direcciones y comentarios que crea convenientes. También se comenta la importancia de crear un *hashtag* que sea motivante y relacionado con el texto que tienen que preparar. Lo interesante es que los cinco oradores también serán audiencia. Una vez que el proceso es entendido y se contesta a las dudas planteadas, se da paso a las diferentes sesiones.

Primera sesión

1- Fase: Revisión de páginas web que pueden ser de utilidad para el alumno y las opciones disponibles en Poliforma-T, plataforma de teleformción de la UPV que sirve de apoyo en la docencia presencial *on line.* (Marco2011)

- Mi PoliformaT
- Zona de Ayuda
- ExpeMis sitios activos
- Wiki

2- Fase: Explicación del uso del *Backchannel* como obra colectiva en un entorno tecnológico y sus posibles ventajas como son la evaluación en tiempo real, la atención, la motivación, la difusión y la participación colectiva.

Segunda sesión

3. Alta en Twiter (si no lo están) y lectura de la siguiente dirección de Nancy Duarte *Change the world in 140 characters or less. Twitter*

4. Creación de un *hashtag.* **:** #ingenierobuscaempleo

5. Lectura del artículo que trata de la problemática a la hora de encontrar trabajo que tienen los ingenieros de Caminos, Canales y Puertos a los que la crisis les ha afectado de forma sangrante: **La salida al mercado internacional. Entre Escila y Caribdis**

"Navegar entre estos dos riesgos, desaparecer por carencia de trabajo en nuestro país, o pasarse de osados en aventuras para las que no se está preparado, es la tarea de estos tiempos. Dentro de diez años si algo bueno queda de esta crisis será la amplia internacionalización de nuestra industria, y la experiencia recogida en los hombres que la han hecho posible y con ello han salvado el futuro".

6. Revisión de los pasos para hacer un resumen, especialmente a y b.

   a. Adaptación del texto escrito a las características de lo oral.
   b. Aplicación de la herramienta Backchannel.

Tercera sesión

7- Presentaciones de los cinco alumnos sobre el tema elegido durante cinco minutos. Para evitar inseguridad al ponente se acuerda no escribir *tweets* mientras esté hablando y hacerlo al finalizar la exposición.

La profesora comienza con ·**#ingenierobuscaempleo** Los de la UPV somos los mejores. Y aparecen en pantalla entre otros:

- **#ingenierobuscaempleo** ¿se prodría pensar en una beca leonardo de prácticas?

-**#ingenierobuscaempleo** vente a Alemania ingeniero Pepe!

- **#ingenierobuscaempleo** nos cambiamos de carrera?

-**#ingenierobuscaempleo** hay que internacionalizarse!!

- **#ingenierobuscaempleo** Es la suerte de tener los medios económicos para estudiar lo que se quiera....

--**#ingenierobuscaempleo** ahora aparte de saber inglés hay que saber alemán...

#ingenierobuscaempleo en el sofá con tu familia o en el extranjero con tu dinero, habrá que elegir

- **@juanpa7sg** Grande! Hay que aprovechar los recursos del poli

Al mismo tiempo y de forma espontánea se plantea un intercambio de opiniones entre los alumnos (audiencia) sobre la necesidad del salir de España e internacionalizarse. La participación y la motivación durante las diferentes sesiones ha sido altamente positiva y, mediante la redacción de tweets, han ido exponiendo el criterio de lo que va ser su futuro laboral.

Pasados unos días se les pide que opinen a través de Twitter su experiencia con el Backchannel y la respuesta es la siguiente:

Tweets *Destacados*

#ingenierobuscaempleo sin duda alguna una forma novedosa de participar en conferencias, me gusta mucho!!

#ingenierobuscaempleo Fue interesante, una nueva experiencia. Recomendable para cursos posteriores. Saludos

#ingenierobuscaempleo estuvieron bien las prácticas, fueron diferentes

#ingenierobuscaempleo una práctica novedosa e interesante

#ingenierobuscaempleo y lo sigue buscando..suerte a tod@s!Grupo A

Conclusiones

Sabemos que los estudiantes universitarios necesitan relacionarse con los géneros relevantes que circulan por la Red, es decir, cibergéneros (Sanz Álava, 2008) y este trabajo es un exponente de ello. Como hemos comentado anteriormente, si cambia la audiencia, tendremos que cambiar el método y aplicar las nuevas herramientas de las que disponemos. El tweet:. #ingenierobuscaempleo fue algo novedoso y muy interesante. La UPV innovando, como siempre. :) "anima a seguir en ese camino.

Los alumnos de los grupos B y C de la asignatura han cumplido los objetivos planteados al inicio de la misma, pero carecerán de la práctica de esta herramienta. De ahí que el próximo curso y dada las posibilidades del *Backchannel* su aplicación se extenderá a la totalidad de los grupos. Todavía nos faltan más sesiones para llegar a valorar con datos cuantitativos la mejora de la expresión oral con respecto a los que no han llevado a cabo el *Backchannel,* pero esa tarea queda pendiente para próximos trabajos.

Para finalizar, en la ponencia que llevamos al IX Congreso de AELFE de 2010: Las Redes Sociales ¿moda o futuro? Decíamos: *Las dos cosas ¿Seremos todos rederos? Sí, la red a la que pertenezcamos dependerá de nuestro perfil: Twitter tiene muchas posibilidades de convertirse en la más usada en el ámbito universitario* (Sanz Álava, 2010:11). Han pasado dos años y lo que era algo futurible se ha convertido en una realidad.

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7. 5º painel: Didáctica e Aquisição das Línguas

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The Relevance of the Teacher's Awareness of the ESP Students' Learning Styles and Strategies

Abstract

There are many characteristics associated with a good ESP teacher (Bocanegra-Valle, 2012) since teaching is a profession that involves continuous development of skills and knowledge. However, sometimes we tend to forget the psychological aspect in the education process, and the fact that cognition plays an important role in ESP learning should be borne in mind. When dealing with language teaching and the acquisition of language in general, we have to take into account learning strategies and cognitive styles, which has been an important field of growth in recent years. As Fenner & Newby (2006) state, learning styles and strategies are basic cognition-related aspects and here we are going to focus on the importance they get in ESP teaching.

It is generally accepted that a student's preferred method of learning depends on the task and situation. In this article we will concentrate on the direct relationship between language, cognition and ESP teaching as well as on the relevance of the awareness on the teacher's part so that he can organise his teaching bearing in mind the different learning styles and strategies in order to create and adjust tasks and activities.
Keywords: Learning styles, ESP teacher, cognition and thinking skills, tasks and activities.

Introduction

Teaching is a dynamic profession that is in constant change and such a change is due to several reasons: different kinds of teachers, varied groups of students, distinct teaching methods, several learning styles and strategies, etc. Involved ESP teachers constantly try to learn new techniques from their colleagues and from their students when they interact with them. They need to know the new regulations in teaching that are discussed in journals and made evident in new textbooks and they should also set specific objectives to be achieved in their class. The fact that the teacher is aware of all these variables will improve the quality of his teaching, as we will see throughout this article. Some aspects to be taken into account include needs analysis, effective lesson planning, different learning styles and strategies together with students' cognition since learners evolve not just when we refer to language and cognitive skills; they also evolve as learners, which is why we have to bear in mind lesson planning since effective lesson planning is crucial when helping to engage your students in their learning process. In the 21st century one of the objectives of ESP teaching is that students become more autonomous and do not depend on their teacher all the time.

Therefore, in order to become a successful ESP teacher, professionals should identify their students' learning styles and select several teaching strategies from different methods; moreover, they should blend them to suit the needs of their students as well as adjust, adapt and create the materials necessary to achieve the best teaching practice, which is something we are going to analyse in this study.

Cognition and Different Learning Styles

Cognitive psychology is the branch of (educational) psychology that studies mental processes including how people think, perceive, remember and learn. As part of the larger field of cognitive science, this branch of psychology is related to other disciplines including neuroscience, philosophy and linguistics.

The core focus of cognitive psychology is on how people acquire, process and store information. There are numerous practical applications for cognitive research, such as improving memory, increasing decision-making accuracy and structuring educational curricula to enhance learning. Regarding language and cognition, cognitive psychology concerns both language and thought and has been popular only since the 1950s. Cognitive psychologists explore such questions as how language affects thought, whether it is possible to create a "thinking" machine, and why humans are motivated to create art. Regarding the structure of cognition, it can be underlined that cognition, or thinking, involves mental activities such as understanding, problem solving, and decision making. Cognition also makes creativity possible. Here we are going to focus on cognition in its broadest sense, that is, attention will be paid to the learner and the learning styles s/he uses.

In language teaching research into learning strategies and cognitive styles has been an important field of growth in recent years. Nunan (2000) reviews this research and considers its implications for language teaching. The implications for methodology are important since accommodating learning style and strategy preferences in the classroom "can result in improved learner satisfaction and attainment" (Willing 1988: 1), which is crucial if we want to get a good result of our teaching process. Next we are going to have a closer look at learning styles and strategies.

Learning styles

We will start by having a look at the definition of learning styles and strategies. According to Nunan (2000: 168), "Learning style refers to any individual's preferred ways of going about learning. It is generally considered that one's learning style will result from personality variables, including psychological and cognitive make-up, socio-cultural background, and educational experience". Quoting Willing (1988), Nunan confirms that some aspects of the learning style of a person may be alterable whereas other aspects may not.

"Learning strategies […] are the mental processes which learners employ to learn and use the target language" (Nunan 2000: 168). In fact, Fenner & Newby (2006) refer to three general cognition-related aspects which cognitive approaches focus on, but we will mention only two:

- Learning styles - a learner's personal sensory and cognitive preferences for perceiving incoming stimuli and processing and organising information.
- Learning strategies - deliberate and conscious measures taken by learners to make their learning more efficient.

Once we have seen the definition for learning style and learning strategy, the following should also be highlighted: How one student learns depends on many variables and the way you learn impacts your learning experience and the outcomes of that experience.

There is no right or wrong way to learn, we all learn differently and at a different pace. Some things we pick up faster than others. How you gain information is influenced by many things – how you feel on a given day, the trainer, the environment, temperature, light, time of day, time of year, the weather, comfort of the chair, the medium you are using to learn, the language that is used, etc. The list is endless, on top of this there is your learning style, but there are several learning styles depending on the kind of student you are.

Kolb (1984) presented a model about his learning cycle in the 1970's but in the 1980's he showed how the four categories work together:

- Do something (Activist)
- Think about something (Reflector)
- Make sense of it (Theorist)
- Test it out (Pragmatist)

Traditionally, there are three different components to the model of Learning Styles.

* Sensory learning style
* Personality learning style
* Aptitude learning style (An emerging model look at Neo-millennial learning styles)

A person's learning style is influenced by their preferred sensory learning mode, their personality type and their aptitude. If we were to test each, you would probably use VARK, Myers-Briggs and Gardner's Multiple intelligences for each of these respectively.

The personality Model put forward by Myers-Briggs (Briggs & Myers, 1987) has to do, as its very name indicates, with the learner's personality. We have a Sensory Mode by Neil Fleming (2001), also known as VARK, which stands for Visual, Aural, Read/Write and Kinesthetic. Students perceive information when they are learning and there are different ways of perceiving such information. When we gather information about the world around us (including the information we need in order to study), we employ all our senses, but some of us employ one sense more than others:

- Sight (Visual)
- Hearing (Auditory)

- Reading/Writing and
- Other sensations (Kinesthetic, which includes touch and temperature as well as movement)

From the total population, 60-65% are visual learners; 30% are auditory learners and 5-10% are kinesthetic learners. However, we cannot avoid mentioned the "Aptitude Model" associated with Gardner's (1983) multiple intelligences. According to Howard Gardner (1983), people possess at least eight separate intelligences in varying amounts. Each type of intelligence allows students to absorb and retain information via their strongest intelligence.

- Verbal/linguistic intelligence (Word smart): ability to express oneself through language.
- Mathematical/logical intelligence: (Number smart): ability to understand the underlying principles of systems and discern logical or numerical patterns.
- Spatial/visual intelligence (Picture smart): ability to perceive and present the visual world accurately.
- Body/kinesthetic intelligence (Body smart): ability to use one's body and handle object in a skilled way.
- Musical/rhythmic intelligence (Music smart): ability to understand, appreciate and create music.
- Interpersonal/social intelligence (People smart): ability to understand other people – their moods, desires and motivations.
- Intrapersonal/individualistic intelligence (Self smart): ability to understand one's self emotions, feelings, strengths, weaknesses, identity and purpose.
- Naturalistic/environmental intelligence (Nature smart): ability to recognise and classify natural elements: plants, minerals and animals.

Another element is added by other authors: media based learning. It relates to the students who through long exposure to digital technologies, who are wired differently to us. Prensky (2001) calls them Digital natives, and he argues that our students have changed radically. Today students are no longer the people our educational system was designed to teach. He refers to the N-gen (net generation) or D-gen (digital generation). D-gen teachers assume that the generation they are teaching is the same as the one they used to teach some years ago but things have changed. Prensky (2001) gives us an example of a kindergarten student saying "www.hungry.com" at lunchtime some years ago. Consequently, we have to take into account, apart from the learning style of our students, the different situation we are living at the moment. Prensky (2001) also mentions 'digital immigrants', which refers to someone who was not raised in a digital environment but still uses and adopts many aspects of technology. Other authors (Dieterle, Dede & Schrier, 2007) refer to "neo-millennial learners" and they also argue that we have to bear in mind the different contexts we have to face nowadays in teaching. Another author -Warfield (2007)- suggests the following styles that describe today's learners:

Interrupted	Needs motion to attract their attention like Jurassic Park's TRex
Deferred	Wants time to digest a relatively static scene
Text	Prefers written words
Video/Multimedia	Loves videos and other rich media
Freeform	Thrives on chaos
Structured	Prefers structure
Watcher	Likes to watch
Participator/Shaper	Driven to participate

Hence we have seen that everyone has a learning style and as a student, especially as an adult student, it may be very useful for you to know your own learning style. Knowing your learning style can help you to plan your strategies to get more out of education and learning in general. As teachers, we should be aware of the importance this has on our students' success in the classroom. Based on each student's needs we, teachers, should develop strategies and techniques to learn that can help students to succeed in their learning process.

As learners, what we have to keep in mind is that we all should keep learning!! As teachers, we should take into account different learning styles to use some techniques or others with our students, to be able to classify and sequence pedagogic tasks in the class and to teach our students different thinking skills in ESP learning. That is, we should learn how to use learning styles as an educator.

What is extremely complicated is to be able to create learning materials that work for all the students in a class, especially now with a high number of students per class and each of them having different backgrounds and different learning styles. But what is true is that being aware of different learning styles in class can influence teaching practices and can result in better teaching and an improved learning process in the end. However, the role of the ESP teacher is crucial when dealing with his students' learning styles in order to organise his teaching and the way to obtain the best result in the class. Therefore, we will deal with the teacher's role in the next section.

Teaching skills and the Role of the ESP Teacher

It is true that there are many types of teachers and that teaching is a profession that involves continuous development of skills and knowledge. Being an ESP teacher is not an easy task because it is not only a question of teaching a specific kind of English but we, teachers should show some concern about what our students think and feel at every specific moment. Teachers-students relationship is something extremely important for successful classroom practice, which means that teachers make a difference. The quality of teaching is extremely important when dealing with effective learning. Good teachers are not so common. According to an article by Mike Baker (2008) from the BBC News on education, teachers with the highest qualifications are not necessarily and automatically the "best" teachers in the classroom. It is true that teachers need a good knowledge of their subject but there are many other aspects to be taken into account so as to fulfill their profession in a successful way. Some of the characteristics a good teacher should have are the following:

- A strong vocation
- Good classroom management
- Creative ways of presenting class
- Being able to motivate and engage students in their learning process (connective capacity)
- Expectations of success for all students
- Not limited to academic achievement (humour, flexibility, open-minded, etc.)

- Being reflective

When dealing with teaching in general, we should also consider the principles of language learning. According to Brown (1994), they are divided into three sub-groupings: Cognitive, affective and linguistic principles. We acknowledge these are three important aspects to bear in mind throughout the teaching/learning process because they are seen as theory derived from research, and teachers need to match their classroom practices to such principles. There could be different ideas about learning principles but what is true is that however you view language learning principles, these should form the basis of the techniques you choose to use and the choices you make in the language learner classroom. Moreover, as House (2011: 144) stresses, being a teacher "requires an attentive and sensitive capacity to deal with the day-to-day workings of the classroom".

Teachers should bear in mind important concepts such as motivation; it is basic to encourage students to get involved in their learning by motivating them and giving them different kinds of opportunities in the class. We should remember that the way students act depends on the teacher's attitude; for example, the teacher can help students by building their self-esteem in the case of shy students, etc. As McLaren & Madrid (2005: 212), stress, "It is clear that whether an EFL class succeeds or not depends to a great extent on the personality of the classroom teacher". We cannot change our personality but we can try to give a specific impression in class by smiling and trying to respond in a natural way, by trying to find out about our students, by showing we enjoy teaching them.

There are different techniques we can resort to in order to make our class flow. For instance, we can mention the importance of eye-contact, which means you are "talking" to somebody who is listening to you; the good use of eye-contact, gesture and voice is very important in the class. Teacher movement is something to mention as well: if a teacher remains still, we cannot emphasize specific aspects in our teaching; exactly the same happens with our voice, we have to learn to play with our tone of voice. Gesture or non-verbal communication (facial expression, mime, etc.) are resources to call our students' attention. Another important aspect is our attitude towards the student since we have to get everyone to participate in class, we should remember to consider them individually. The final objective is to get some learner autonomy and to teach the student to work by themselves and deduce some aspects of the language since everything does not have to be overtly taught, but in order to achieve this, teachers should carry out a careful and detailed lesson planning.

Effective Lesson Planning in ESP

Among the characteristics associated to good teachers we find the knowledge of the subject and how to organise that knowledge. Planning and preparation is crucial in teaching. Butt (2008: 1) quotes Peter Hyman, previously a key political strategist for the Labour Party in the U.K. When Hyman he started to plan lessons for the first time, he mentioned the following:

These lessons give me a real insight into the extraordinary alchemy of teaching. One day it all works, I'm in good form, the students are focused, I think they are understanding the point, thinking for themselves. The next time, perhaps because I have done less preparation, perhaps because the students have had a bad day, the lesson is lacklustre, the students less sparky. For that hour though the class is in my hands. I am in charge, I can inspire or bore, shout or cajole, laugh or get fed up. It's all about pace, interest and variation. I can tell after a few lessons that I have stuck to the same formula for too long. I am becoming predictable. Instead of this being a different type of lesson that they look forward to, it's becoming a routine and I will have to change things round. ... What seems to be common to all teaching is the need for meticulous planning and pacy lessons that sweep the children along. (Hyman, 2005: 214; quoted in Butt, 2008: 1)

The very name of Hyman's book (*1 out of 10: From Downing Street Vision to Classroom Reality*) reflects the contrast between theoretical issues in teaching and the real world. Thus, even if other people might think that teaching is easy, that teachers just turn up to the classroom, teach for an hour and leave, things are not so simple. As Butt (2008: 2) goes on saying, "the act of teaching appears almost effortless". Nevertheless, this is not really true and the key to good teaching lies in effective preparation and planning. Learning does not occur by chance; it is quite strange that a good lesson results from the teacher entering the class without any previous preparation beforehand. It is usually the opposite: poor teaching is usually linked to inadequate lesson planning.

Actually, experienced teachers might bring into the class subject-related knowledge and their experience, which they lacked at the beginning of their careers. Once you have taught for some years, you might have built up a bank of lesson activities and your classes will not require as much as planning and preparation as at the start of your teaching career. Effective lesson planning takes time and a range of skills that all teachers need to master quickly. Another important aspect is reflective teaching, which is directly associated with your experience as a teacher. Poor classroom practice, disruptive student behaviour, inadequate progression and poorly devised assessment tasks can all be linked to some aspect of unsatisfactory planning. Underneath the surface of a good lesson lies a teacher's understanding about the principles of sound pedagogic practice. These principles are constructed from an appreciation of how students learn - their learning styles- and from the self-knowledge that results from being a reflective teacher, skilled in understanding why things happen in the classroom and how one might correct any problems that occur. Therefore, successful lesson planning is linked to the evaluation of lessons previously taught. Students learn because their learning process in organised on the part of the teacher in the appropriate way.

If your lesson planning is not good, this may result in new teachers becoming frustrated. All new teachers need some advice on this aspect. It is true that teaching is a highly personal activity. However, there are similarities between the practices of good teachers in the classroom, just as there are similarities between the approaches they adopt to achieve effective lesson planning and preparation. Lesson planning could be considered, especially at the beginning, problematic and overly time-consuming. New teachers are often alarmed at just how long it takes to plan a single lesson, calculating that planning a whole week's worth of lessons will allow little time for anything else. One of the main difficulties when planning lessons is achieving a clear definition of what we, as teachers, are trying to convey to students about the subject. Butt (2008: 4) asks teachers the following questions:

- Are we trying to teach the students a specific context, facts, concepts or skills?
- How will these be received by a given group of students, of a particular age and range of abilities?
- Are the students ready for our chosen approach(es) to teaching?

We stressed before that teachers should take students into account, that is, their opinions, their beliefs and their progress. Therefore, it is important to also see things from the student's perspective. On the other hand, the types of difficulties that teachers have with planning lessons vary considerably. Many teachers, whether new or experienced, face real problems when trying to plan out what will happen in their classrooms, which is why we are going to see the most important elements to bear in mind in the planning and preparation phase of teaching English for Specific Purposes.

We have to consider that sometimes there are not many materials available in some fields of ESP. On other occasions there are different textbooks, which sometimes are not appropriate for different students and distinct learning situations. Using textbooks has some advantages. As Harmer (1983: 219) remarks, "they provide a sensible progression on language items, clearly showing what has to be learnt and in some cases summarising what has been studied so that students can revise grammatical and functional points that they have been concentrating on (…). But textbooks can also have an adverse effect on teaching for a number of reasons". Harmer also refers to the teacher "who over-uses a textbook" (1983: 219). Nowadays teachers can create and adapt activities from authentic materials, which will be an excellent way of motivating students once they are involved in their field.

As Butt (2008: 35) highlights, "There is never a 'single' way of teaching. Each area of content, each skill, topic and theme opens up a variety of possibilities of how it could be taught". What is real is that every teacher has a unique way of teaching but, according to Kyriacou (2007: 20), there are some skills in planning that every teacher should focus on:
- planning for progression across the age and ability range.
- designing effective learning sequences within lessons and across series of lessons.
- designing opportunities for pupils to develop literacy, numeracy and ICT skills.

- planning homework and other out-of-class work to sustain pupils' progress.
- incorporating a range of teaching strategies and resources, including e-learning.
- building upon pupils' prior knowledge.

Lesson plans should be designed in a clear and progressive way. It has to be useful for you and for your students' progress. Moreover, the way of organising a lesson plan should motivate students; otherwise, it does not make sense to draw one. As Cowley (2009: 17) states, it should be 'engaging':

To my mind, one of the most vital qualities of a good teacher is that he or she is able to engage the children in what they are learning. A large part of this engagement is to do with planning appropriate, interesting, imaginative and creative tasks for your students (…).

Hadley (2001) adds a different perspective: she highlights the importance of context in teaching; the very name of her book (*Teaching Language in Context*) points at that. She argues that lessons should be planned to include "contextualized and personalized practice, small-group interaction, creative language use, culturally authentic listening and reading practice, and functional tasks similar to those that might be encountered in the target culture" (2001: 462).

Hadley (2001: 462-464) goes on stressing the following guidelines when preparing effective lessons:

1. Develop a plan that is contextualized and encourages students to use the language actively to explore a particular theme (…): In order to contextualize your lesson activities, think of how the language structures and vocabulary you are teaching relate to the chapter theme.
2. Plan activities that will help students reach functional objectives (…): It is best to plan activities that are primarily student-centered rather than teacher-centered; that is, plan activities that involve *all* students actively during the class hour.
3. Plan a variety of activities to accommodate learner differences: Students are individuals whose preferences and styles of learning differ (…). Having students work on a variety of tasks, both in whole-class and small group activities, adds interest to a class hour and gives the impression of a faster pace, which tends to enliven instructions for most learners.

4. Plan activities that are appropriate to the proficiency level of your students: Students will not experience success and will be frustrated if they are asked to engage in language practice activities for which they don't have the prerequisite knowledge or skills. Teachers should carefully consider the level of proficiency that is necessary for carrying out tasks that they choose for a given lesson (…).

5. For each lesson that you plan, prepare a brief outline of what you intend to do during the class period: It is helpful to write down the set of activities that you are planning to use, as this can help you evaluate your plan (…).

6. Evaluate your plan after the class is over: Decide whether you would do the same things if you were to reteach the lesson, or if you would want to make some changes (…).

7. Over the course of the semester, plan lessons to include the full range of course goals: Obviously, no one lesson can include activities that will address all of the course goals at once. However, over the course of the semester, lessons should be planned in a balanced fashion to ensure.

Therefore, we should realise, as teachers, that there are many aspects involved in lesson planning. Something is clear: when teachers elaborate lesson plans, they are supposed to communicate. It is simple: effective lesson plans communicate, ineffective ones do not. For your lesson plan to be effective, there are many aspects to be taken into account; lesson planning is not an isolated phenomenon in the teaching/learning process, but it is closely related to your teaching, the resources you use and your students' needs.

As we can see, everything is integrated in language teaching. We cannot really separate some aspects from others, since all of them are interrelated. Creating a lesson plan involves many different aspects, such as setting realistic goals, deciding how to incorporate textbooks and other required materials, and developing activities that will promote learning, which is why we are going to have a closer look at different tasks and activities as well as the importance of using authentic materials.

Tasks and Activities: authenticity

All of us have probably felt the need to adjust or adapt you teaching guide to the needs of our students (needs analysis). That is, we should be prepared to have some flexibility and to be responsive to our students and to their learning environment. Effective teaching basically consists in setting up a learning activity for each student which in the end is successful in achieving the kind of learning that the teacher aims at. Kyriacou (2007: 1) stresses the difference between knowing what to do and being able to do it and he makes an analogy with playing tennis. He writes the following:

A player may know that in a particular situation a lob over the opponent's head is required, but whether that shot can be played successfully may be an entirely different matter! The player's skills involve three elements. First, the knowledge about possible types of shots; second, the decision-making involved in deciding that a lob is in fact the most appropriate shot required; and third, the action involved in executing that shot.

That is, a teacher should know the different activities for different learning situations and students (taking into account their age, level, etc.) and also their learning styles; moreover, the teacher should know which is the appropriate kind of activity in every situation; and finally, s/he should be able to put that into practice (action) so that the activities chosen work for his/her students. Thus, teachers have to make a great number of decisions during the teaching/learning process and they are in the classroom to arrange matters so that their students do the writing, talking or listening.
In fact, students are aware of the objective of some learning activities. As Littlewood (1984: 91) stressed many years ago,

In the majority of traditional language-teaching activities, the conscious element is strong: we specify dialogues to be learnt, structures to be practised, words to be memorised, and so on. The subconscious element demands a new range of activities, where learners are focused not on the language itself, but on the communication of meanings.

This fact is really important, to integrate content with language, and not to focus only on grammatical issues, especially when we deal with ESP since there are many materials and situations available we can make use of in the English class nowadays. As learning is a cognitive process, we should select and organise the activities to be used in the class, because in the case of language acquisition -being a cognitive process- the internal representations that regulate and guide performance are based on the language

system and include procedures for selecting appropriate vocabulary, grammar rules and -on an advanced level- pragmatic conventions governing language use.
As teachers, we are supposed to give our learners access to the English language. Teachers rejoice when his or her students begin actively to understand what is being said or what they are reading. As Cameron and McKay (2010: 19) state:

Teachers need to make this happen by choosing activities that engage learners. These activities need to encourage your learners to guess or predict the meaning of the language they hear, using contextual clues like gestures, facial expressions, movement, and the visuals and object you show to them.

The activities we choose as teachers depend on the kind of approach we adopt in order to teach the language. For many years most approaches to language teaching and learning have usually focused on form. Such approaches consider language as an inventory of forms which can be presented to the learner and practiced as a series of discrete items. For the last 25 years Task-based language teaching has attracted the attention of many researchers, teacher trainers, curriculum developers and language teachers all over the world. Task-based language teaching emerged as a reaction to teacher-dominated classroom practice as well as form-oriented teaching in second language classrooms. During the 1980s and 1990s the term "task" got considerable attention because the need for innovation was clear.

As Sánchez-Reyes (2011: 40) points out, "While an exercise has a purely linguistic application, a task has a real world outcome. The students do meaningful and familiar tasks in the target language, and assessment is based on task completion, thus developing fluency and student confidence instead of setting the goal of accuracy of language forms. Students have to negotiate meaning and produce communication to carry out the task and are allowed to use all the language they know, not just the language items of the lesson".

This is the main reason why tasks are supposed to be authentic, that is, they should be real-world tasks. In the Tourism field, we could ask students to answer the phone in a travel agency in order to book a flight or we could ask them to receive a guest at the reception of a luxury hotel. Ellis (2003: 6) refers to this kind of tasks as “survival tasks”, but we can develop different kinds of tasks. University teachers tend to teach the theoretical aspects of our subject and what we do have to do is to make the student put that into practice and exploit the creative capacities our students have, since most of the times our students themselves get surprised when they realise and become aware of the amount of creative and productive things they can do. It is only a matter of providing them with the appropriate activities and tasks that take them to achieve such a result.

According to Thornbury (2006), there are different criteria to classify tasks since tasks can be open-ended and closed. Thornbury (2006: 223) describes an open-ended task as “one in which learners know there is no predetermined solution. It might be planning an excursion, or debating a topical issue. A closed task […] requires learners to discover the solution to a problem, such as identifying the differences in a *spot-the-difference* task”. There are distinct factors that affect the degree of difficulty of a task and therefore which influences the grading of tasks. As Sánchez-Reyes (2011: 40) highlights, “Tasks can be graded to make allowances for different language proficiency in a mixed-ability class”. Moreover, Thornbury (2006: 223) refers to three different factors:
- Linguistic factors: How complex is the language that learners will need to draw on, in order to do the task? How much help, either before, or during the task, will they get with their language needs?
- Cognitive factors: Does the task require the processing of complex data? Is the task type familiar to learners?
- Performance factors: Do the learners have to interact in real time in order to do the task? Do they have time to rehearse? Do they have to ‘go public’?

This approach is associated with whole language learning since there are many variables taken into account. The syllabuses that follow this approach do not separate language into different items but, as Van den Branden (2006) states, take holistic, functional and communicative tasks, instead of any particular linguistic item, as the basic unit for the design of educational activity and he goes on quoting Long & Crookes (1993: 39):

It is claimed, rather, that (pedagogic) tasks provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners – input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities –and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty. New form-function relationships in the target language are perceived by the learner as a result. The strengthening of the subset of those that are not destabilized by negative feedback, their increased accessibility and incorporation in more intricate associations in long-term memory, complexifies the grammar and constitutes SL development.

Candlin (2009: 25) quotes Michael Breen when he refers to the criteria for "good" language learning tasks. Candlin (2009) takes both lists of criteria from the presentation by Breen at the 1982 TESOL Convention in Honolulu, Hawaii and he offers us two lists.

Criteria for "Good" language learning tasks

List 1

Balanced	between open-endedness and limited learner resource
Motivating	requiring participation, interesting, challenging, rewarding, valuable
Co-operative	developing social and management skills for learning
Strategic	stimulating personal strategies for language learning
Differentiated	varied for different levels, skills, styles, objectives of learners
Focused	unambiguous, targeted, relevant to the needs and goals of learners
Open	extendable, permeable, accessible by/to learners
Structured	gradable, variable, orderable, organized for learners' time, place and availability
Critical	evaluative, formative, offering feedback, problem-posing

List 2

1. Should promote attention to meaning, purpose, negotiation.
2. Should encourage attention to relevant data.
3. Should draw objectives from the communicative needs of learners.
4. Should allow for flexible approaches to the task, offering different routes, media, modes of participation, procedures.
5. Can allow for different solutions depending on the skills and strategies drawn on by learners.

6. Should involve learner contributions, attitudes and affects.
7. Should be challenging but not threatening to promote risk-taking.
8. Should require input from all learners in terms of knowledge, skills, participation.
9. Should define a problem to be worked through by learners, centred on learners but guided by the teacher.
10. Should involve language use in the solving of the task.
11. Should allow for co-evaluation by learner and teacher of the task of the performance of the task.
12. Should develop the learners' capacities to estimate consequences and repercussions of the task in question.
13. Should provide opportunities for metacommunication and metacognition.
14. Should provide opportunities for language practice.
15. Should promote learner-training for problem-sensing and problem-solving.
16. Should promote sharing of information and expertise.
17. Should provide monitoring and feedback, of the learner and of the task.
18. Should heighten learners' consciousness of the process and be reflexive.
19. Should promote a critical awareness about data and the processes of language learning.
20. Should offer a high return on investment and be cost-effective.

All these criteria overlap and can be restructured. They consider three important aspects in language teaching: "pragmatics" in the emphasis placed on value-negotiation and critical metacommunication; "second language acquisition" in the emphasis placed on input and interaction, learning strategy and reflective consciousness; "classroom management" in the emphasis placed on data, information and activity, participation and flexible differentiation, evaluation and effectiveness. Also, the process of communication among participants is given importance.

Restricting students experience to single pieces of target language is unnatural. We could remind Prahbu's (1987) words when he argued that a focus on language form actually inhibited language learning. On the other hand, the Task-based approach emphasizes meaningful communication, which is crucial in any kind of learning and this is directly related with an increase in learner interest and motivation. Therefore, as teachers, we should create activities and tasks since learning has to do with the design and sequencing of tasks, and the determination of how best to encourage learners to focus on language form in a way that helps language use and development. What we always have to bear in mind is that one of the most challenging tasks that language teachers face is to get the interest of his/her students so that they will be motivated to learn. The developing of new materials may contribute to the overall effectiveness of the learning process because the student sees the activity as relevant to him/her. Thus, the right combination of activities is the ideal thing in order to achieve an excellent teaching, and learning on the part of our students.

We should remember the different aspects that motivate students. One of them is humour and fun. As Senior (2006: 182) highlights:

Activities that allow students to have fun are often highly successful. By engaging in activities that generate feelings of involvement, urgency and excitement, language students find themselves forgetting their inhibitions and expressing themselves more readily in the target language.

Again, the use of amusement and humour as well as usefulness are some elements that contribute to the organisation of active and dynamic classes. A general recommendation is that teachers should try to find out what his/her students' interests are and plan lessons accordingly (e.g., the Internet, activities using parts of a film or songs, etc.).

As we have highlighted throughout this article, effective teaching requires basic elements but something very useful are the ideas put forward by Sir Ken Robinson, who is known worldwide for his thoughts about education, creativity and innovation. He is the author of the book *The Element: How Finding your Passion changes Everything*. Penguin/Viking, published in 2009. Actually, if you like your profession, you will enjoy teaching and you will make the most out of it and, what is more important, your students will achieve the best results and they will become competent professionals in the field.

Conclusion

As we have seen, there is a wide variety of learners in class but sometimes our group may have one learning style due to the situation and the degree they are studying; therefore, we should take advantage of such a situation. Another good idea is to develop different graded activities so that learners can choose them and establish the sequence depending on their level and/or preferences. Making our teaching and consequently our students' learning process flexible is always important and a very positive aspect in the teacher-student relationship. Thus, we should highlight that effective teaching requires people who really enjoy their profession and who care about the well-being of his students. Summing up, we can highlight that all teachers should respect, care, instruct and guide their students so that these become successful in their learning process in order to also be successful in their future life, which is the way to be able to become "the best teacher".

Planning and preparation are basic when teaching but sometimes even if we have prepared a good lesson plan carefully, we will have to adapt it to a specific group of ESP students or to particular classroom situation. Teaching is a very dynamic profession; therefore, as teachers, we have to adjust and adapt our plans to the conditions of a group of students in particular and to their learning styles. In recent years we have witnessed some important changes due to technological developments, such as the integration of ICTs in the last few years, which should also be borne in mind.

To conclude, it can be stated that teachers are a crucial piece in the teaching-learning process. Some of the basic competences for teachers at the beginning of the 21st century are their ability to be flexible and their awareness of their students' learning styles as well as the use of specific tasks adapted to the student's level and situation. In a nutshell, an ESP teacher should be sensitive to his students' needs as well as to their background in order to be aware of different learning styles so that he can make use of different strategies and techniques to achieve the best result in his class.

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Didática dos idiomatismos relacionados com a expressão da doença em árabe marroquino – Aproximação cognitivo-linguística

Resumo

A falta de mútuo entendimento entre os profissionais de saúde dos países recetores de imigração e os pacientes marroquinos imigrantes que falam deficitariamente a(s) língua(s) desses estados pode dar origem a vários problemas, nomeadamente, dificuldades em realizar o diagnóstico. Muitas vezes esses profissionais e outros que trabalham com imigrantes, seguindo a ideia da formação contínua, chave no ensino pós-Bolonha, procuram formar-se aprendendo noções básicas de árabe marroquino que lhes possam ser úteis na sua atividade profissional diária.

No árabe marroquino, a expressão linguística da doença é feita de modo quase exclusivo por meio de idiomatismos. Nesta comunicação refletimos sobre a introdução desses idiomatismos num nível inicial de árabe marroquino para fins específicos, ou seja, um curso de comunicação com pacientes. Kovecses & Szabcó (1996: 331) defendem que uma motivação cognitiva para os idiomatismos pode favorecer a sua aprendizagem e a sua retenção. Devido à dificuldade da introdução de idiomatismos num nível inicial, a nossa proposta baseia-se na adaptação de aspetos teóricos da Linguística Cognitiva para a aula de árabe marroquino. Os objetivos são os de facilitar a aquisição e retenção de um conjunto básico de idiomatismos relacionados com a expressão linguística do conceito de doença, bem como dotar os alunos de ferramentas que possibilitem a futura compreensão de novos idiomatismos nesse campo.

Palavras-chave: idiomatismos; doença; árabe marroquino para fins específicos; Linguística Cognitiva.

Teaching of idioms related to linguistic expression of 'illness' in Moroccan Arabic

- **Cognitive-linguistic approach**

Abstract: The inability of health professionals from countries that receive immigrants to communicate well with Moroccan patients, namely those who can hardly speak the local languages of their respective host countries can lead to several problems, including difficulties in making medical diagnosis. Thus, influenced by lifelong learning as a key concept in post-Bologna teaching, these professionals and others who work with immigrants seek learning the rudiments of Moroccan Arabic, which would help them in their daily routine at work.

In Moroccan Arabic, the linguistic expression for 'illness' is done almost exclusively, using idioms. For that matter, this paper attempts to shed light on these idioms, starting with an initial level of teaching Moroccan Arabic for specific purposes, that is to say, focusing on communicative aspect of it with patients. Kovecses & Szabcó (1996: 331) argue that a cognitive motivation for idiomatic expressions can facilitate their learning and retention. Due to the difficulty of introducing idioms in an initial level, our proposal is based on the adaptation of theoretical aspects of cognitive linguistics for the Moroccan Arabic class. The objectives are to facilitate the acquisition and retention of a basic set of idioms related to the linguistic expression for 'illness' as well as to equip learners with tools that would allow a understanding of new idioms in this area.
Keywords: idioms, illness, Moroccan Arabic for specific purposes, Cognitive Linguistics.

Introdução

O interesse de estudar árabe marroquino tem vários e diversos motivos. Ter a intenção de viver pelo menos durante um período da sua vida em Marrocos (quer seja por trabalho quer por voluntariado), ter o cônjuge ou namorado/a marroquino/a, complementar o estudo do árabe padrão moderno, levar a cabo uma investigação em Marrocos ou trabalhar com imigrantes marroquinos, estão entre os motivos que mais se escutam quando se pergunta a um estudante de árabe marroquino as razões do seu interesse. Cabe notar que a situação linguística é peculiar e que nem todos os marroquinos têm como língua materna o árabe marroquino, uma vez que são berberes. Não obstante, muitos destes últimos comunicam em árabe marroquino.

Às vezes, as razões que motivam situam-se em âmbitos de comunicação bem concretos como o médico. Muitos dos imigrantes quando chegam aos países recetores de imigração não conhecem a(s) língua(s) desses países (Domingo et al., 1995). No âmbito médico a falta de uma adequada comunicação entre paciente marroquino e profissionais de saúde pode ser problemático para a realização do diagnóstico e do tratamento. Ao longo da nossa experiência como alunos de árabe marroquino (em Marrocos e no estrangeiro), foi-nos possível observar o perfil de alguns alunos que tinham interesses muito concretos no âmbito sanitário. Profissionais de saúde dos países recetores de imigração que confrontando-se no dia-a-dia com problemas de comunicação e tendo um particular interesse pela cultura marroquina decidem estudar este idioma. Profissionais de diferentes áreas, não só de saúde, realizam em Marrocos voluntariado na área sanitária. Existem também profissionais de saúde, essencialmente de países subsaarianos que trabalham em instituições sanitárias em Marrocos (muitos deles fizeram os seus estudos naquele país) e que ainda que usem o francês como língua de trabalho têm alguns problemas de comunicação com alguns pacientes que não dominam esse idioma. Outras pessoas trabalham diariamente com imigrantes (entre eles encontram-se os mediadores socioculturais) e frequentemente servem de ponte entre os profissionais de saúde e os imigrantes. Trata-se então de um perfil de aluno adulto que possui necessidades muito específicas, ou seja, poder comunicar com pacientes marroquinos. São profissionais que decidem realizar uma formação contínua ao longo da vida, neste caso a nível linguístico. Segundo o Comunicado de Praga de 19 de maio (União Europeia, 2001), que acrescenta alguns aspetos ao Processo de Bolonha, esta aprendizagem ao longo da vida é considerada um elemento fundamental no Espaço Europeu do Ensino Superior para que se possa aumentar a competitividade económica.

Para satisfazer essa procura, criam-se cursos de árabe marroquino que embora não sejam designados especificamente como cursos de fins específicos se direcionam para umas necessidades particulares dos alunos, neste caso dentro do âmbito médico. Há que destacar que a didática do árabe marroquino não está desenvolvida como a de outros idiomas, nomeadamente o inglês e o espanhol. Além disso, existem nativos que creem que o árabe marroquino não é passível duma aprendizagem formal, nem possui uma gramática.

Dos dados ainda em análise do trabalho de campo que levamos a cabo para realização da tese de doutoramento intitulada “A expressão da doença em árabe marroquino”, salientou-se um grande número de idiomatismos no campo médico usados pelos nativos. Da mesma forma que nos confrontámos frequentemente com estes idiomatismos, haverá que preparar os alunos acima mencionados, ainda que num nível inicial, para o mesmo fenómeno.

Os objetivos desta comunicação são os seguintes:

1. Analisar a frequência de idiomatismos relacionados com a doença em entrevistas feitas a pacientes; analisar a presença/ausência de idiomatismos relacionados com a doença nos manuais de iniciação ao árabe marroquino e relacioná-los.
2. Discutir a introdução do ensino de idiomatismos num nível inicial de ensino/aprendizagem de um idioma.
3. Fazer uma proposta didática de idiomatismos em árabe marroquino relacionados com a doença, para aplicação a níveis iniciais de aprendizagem. Esta proposta será baseada em princípios cognitivos.

Idiomatismos relacionados com doença: frequência na fala dos nativos e nos manuais de árabe marroquino

Nos dados do trabalho de campo que levamos a cabo para a realização da tese de doutoramento sobre a expressão da doença em árabe marroquino é considerável a presença de idiomatismos sobre a mencionada temática. Somente a título ilustrativo, escolheu-se de modo aleatório a transcrição de três entrevistas abertas de pessoas com diferentes perfis.

Duração da entrevista	Ocorrência de idiomatismos (frequência absoluta)
10 min. e 34 seg.	9
12 min	14
10 min e 10 seg.	24

Quadro 1 – Ocorrência de idiomatismos relacionados com doença na fala de nativos (alguns exemplos)

Os manuais de texto de não são os únicos materiais que devem ser usados na aprendizagem de um idioma, mas frequentemente constituem uma fonte significativa das atividades didáticas que o aluno usa, quer na sala de aula, quer de modo autónomo. Segundo esta perspetiva, a análise dos seus conteúdos pode dar pistas interessantes do que se considera essencial num determinado nível de ensino.

Em muitos manuais de língua estrangeira de nível básico, existe algum capítulo ou parte dele cuja temática está relacionada com o corpo humano, com saúde e ou doença. O objetivo é que o aluno de nível básico possa munir-se das ferramentas fundamentais para comunicar de modo rudimentar numa situação essencialmente urgente cujo emissor seja ele próprio. Os manuais de árabe marroquino não constituem uma exceção e na maioria deles pode-se encontrar uma abordagem às mencionadas temáticas.

Existem dois grandes grupos de manuais de árabe marroquino. Um reúne aqueles manuais realizados simultaneamente aos protetorados francês e espanhol em Marrocos. Ao outro grupo pertencem manuais mais recentes, com exceção de um que é dos anos sessenta, mas que foi reeditado no início do século XXI (Harrel, 2003). Atualmente levamos a cabo um estudo sobre manuais de árabe marroquino (os antigos e os mais recentes) que será publicado quando estiver terminado. Não obstante, utilizaremos alguns dados desse estudo, em concreto os que se referem aos idiomatismos respeitantes à doença e saúde nos manuais mais recentes.

Dos seis manuais de nível inicial que foram analisados até agora (Djebli, 1988; Harrel, 2003; Herrero Muñoz-Cobo, 2003; Mermoud, 2005; Moscoso, 2006; Peace Corps, 2004), estudaram-se aqueles que incidem sobre estes temas e somente três introduziam idiomatismos relacionados com a doença nas respetivas secções ou capítulos. Os tipos de idiomatismos encontrados nos três manuais são os seguintes:

Tipos de idiomatismos relacionados com a doença[1]	Significado idiomático	Ocorrência do aparecimento desses idiomatismos (soma das frequências absoluta)
f + pronome [doença ou sintoma]	estar doente com / ter [doença ou sintoma]	8
ʕand + pronome [doença ou sintoma]	estar doente com / ter [doença ou sintoma]	5
ḍrəb l + pronome *l-bərd*	apanhar uma constipação, constipar-se, estar constipado	2
ḍrəb l + pronome *šūka*	levar uma injeção; dar uma injeção	1

Quadro 2 – Tipos de idiomatismos relacionados com a doença encontrados nos manuais de árabe marroquino e a soma das suas frequências absolutas.

Como nos é possível verificar nos mencionados manuais, a presença de idiomatismos é reduzida e utilizam-se quase sempre dois idiomatismos, o que está provavelmente relacionado com o facto de os diálogos e as atividades didáticas que aparecem se referirem a situações de urgência ou pequenas moléstias (dor de cabeça, constipações). Talvez por se tratar de um nível básico de árabe marroquino, os autores desses manuais consideraram que não é o momento apropriado para se introduzirem os idiomatismos. Devido à quase inexistência de manuais de níveis superiores, não se dispõe de meios para avaliar em que nível é que os autores introduziriam esses idiomatismos.

Confrontando os dados ainda provisórios da análise dos manuais de árabe marroquino com os dados do nosso estudo cabe refletir sobre a necessidade do estudo dos idiomatismos mais frequentes em níveis básicos. Provavelmente os autores dos manuais, nalguns casos usando dois dos idiomatismos mais usados, creem dotar o aluno dos conhecimentos básicos para expressar a maioria das doenças ou sintomas, ou seja, que o aluno seja capaz de produzir enunciados relacionados com aquela temática. Não obstante, o aluno não está preparado para entender os nativos, ainda que conheça muito vocabulário. Este tipo de enfoques e escolhas deixam parcialmente de lado as necessidades específicas já discutidas na introdução.

Ensino de idiomatismos: aproximação cognitivo-linguística

Numa visão tradicionalista, como dificilmente se pode entender o idiomatismo a partir do significado dos seus elementos constituintes, o significado é arbitrário e a única possibilidade para os alunos de língua estrangeira é memorizá-lo. Autores como Weinreich (1969, citado por Steinel 2007: 456) defenderam que os idiomatismos eram não-composicionais, ou seja que o significado das palavras que os constituem, tomadas de modo individual, não ajudam a entender o seu significado idiomático (significado especial da totalidade do idiomatismo). Numberg, Sag e Wasow (1994, citado por Steinel, 2007: 456), pelo contrário, sustentam que os idiomatismos são composicionais, posição que foi defendida por vários estudos dentro do âmbito da psicolinguística. Dentro do quadro da Linguística Cognitiva, o significado advém do nosso conhecimento do mundo (corporeidade do sistema conceptual). Os idiomatismos não são linguísticos, mas sim conceptuais e, por isso, o seu significado é motivado e não arbitrário, dado que o conjunto de palavras que os constitui está intimamente relacionado com o seu significado (Lakoff, 1987, 1993, Gibbs, 1990, 1994, citados por Kövecses & Szabc, 1996: 330).

Lakoff (1987) distingue entre motivação e predição. Quando se menciona que o significado da maioria dos idiomatismos é motivado, não significa que se possa predizer o seu significado idiomático (Kövecses & Szabc, 1996: 331), a partir do significado não idiomático (ou seja, o significado literal das suas partes constituintes). É motivado porque mecanismos conceptuais estabelecem uma ligação que torna possível relacionar o significado literal e idiomático do idiomatismo. Kövecses e Szabz (1996: 332-333) defendem que o facto de muitos idiomatismos (ainda que não todos) serem conceptualmente motivados advém do fato de que têm por base metáforas conceptuais ou outros mecanismos, havendo uma ligação inseparável do sistema conceptual. São vários os mecanismos cognitivos que podem motivar idiomatismos como, por exemplo, a metáfora, a metonímia e o conhecimento convencional (*conventional knowledge*). É de salientar que podem atuar simultaneamente na motivação do mesmo idiomatismo.

A nível pedagógico, considerar o significado da maioria dos idiomatismos como motivado tem implicações. Em teoria, deveria facilitar o seu ensino, reduzindo o tempo de aprendizagem e aumentando o período de retenção na memória (Irujo, 1986, citado por Kövecses & Szabc 1996: 331).

Kövecses e Szabc (1996: 327-8) apoiando-se em classificações de dicionários de expressões idiomáticas inglesas, consideram que na categoria dos idiomatismos cabem tipos muito diversos como metáforas, metonímias, pares de palavras, ditos, etc. No caso do árabe marroquino faltam estudos sobre esta temática. Não obstante, pelo nosso conhecimento empírico, será uma categoria igualmente variada, ainda que a tipologia não corresponda totalmente aos idiomatismos de língua inglesa. Estudos desse género são importantes dado que podem servir de base a outros no âmbito da didática.
As recomendações dos linguistas cognitivos na área do ensino de idiomas envolvem frequentemente tarefas com elucidação pictórica. A atividade didática que apresentamos pertence ao enfoque de Ensino da Linguagem baseado em Tarefas (*Task-Based Language Teaching*). Segundo Willis e Willis (2007, citado por Farsani, 2012: 500) este enfoque define-se por centrar a atenção do aluno e aumentar a consciência de um aspeto específico da linguagem. No caso específico de uma tarefa baseada na elucidação pictórica (*picture-elucidation task*) é uma tarefa cognitiva na qual a atenção do aluno é direcionada para características destacáveis das imagens, fotos ou cartoons que ilustram um aspeto concreto do significado da expressão linguística (Skehan, 1998, citado por Farsani, 2012: 500). Uma característica fundamental neste tipo de tarefas é o componente de descoberta (“discovery”) que direciona os alunos a cumprir os objetivos daquelas (Breen, 1987, Littlewood, 2004, citados por Farsani 2012: 500). O objetivo é o de estabelecer uma associação entre a linguagem e a imagem. Há vários autores como Gombrich e Fodor que defendem que nas imagens existe uma grande ambiguidade. A estes críticos, Boers et al (2008: 190-191) respondem que não se trata de comunicar com precisão o significado, mas sim de criar associações cerebrais que ajudem a reter a informação de modo mais fácil e duradouro.

Há vários pontos a considerar quando se planeiam atividades baseadas em imagens. Em primeiro lugar, há que ter em conta dois aspetos. Nem todas as palavras ou idiomatismos são passíveis de serem elucidados através de imagens (Hupka 1989, citado por Boers et al. 2008: 190). Em Linguística Cognitiva as que são facilmente elucidados através de imagens são as que são eleitas criteriosamente para serem transmitidas por esta forma. E ainda que nem todas as imagens ajudam de igual modo na elucidação, pois está presente o fator da qualidade. Em segundo lugar, o facto de o sentido ter ficado memorizado com a ajuda da elucidação pictórica não garante que também a forma da composição léxica tenha ficado memorizada. O aluno pode lembrar-se do significado, mas não das palavras a usar exatamente, ou seja, não é garantia de uma produção ativa sem problemas por parte do aluno (Boers et al., 2008: 190).

Existem vários estudos que contêm experimentos realizados no âmbito pedagógico com os quais se tentou avaliar a eficácia do uso de imagens na aprendizagem. Passamos a sintetizar as conclusões mais relevantes para o nosso trabalho.

- Influência na extrapolação de significado:

a) O uso de imagens por si só pode não ser suficiente para que os estudantes façam uma adequada interpretação. Este facto é explicado dado que não se trata de predizer o significado tal como se explicou anteriormente, mas sim de usar a motivação inerente. O melhor será usar imagens combinadas com explicações verbais (Boers et al., 2008: 192).

- Influencia na retenção:

a) Alguns autores (Nelson et al., 1976; Kinjo and Snodgrass 2000, citados por Boers et al., 2008: 192) apoiam a ideia de que a retenção de léxico em L2 melhora se se usam imagens em vez de palavras. É o chamado efeito de superioridade da imagem (*picture superiority effect*).

b) Outros autores (Amrhein et al. 2002, citado por Boers et al, 2008: 192-193) são muito céticos em relação a esse efeito. Por exemplo, não está claro se as imagens ajudam à retenção da forma linguística ou ao significado.

c) Boers et al. (2008: 193) especulam sobre os fatores que influenciam o efeito mnemónico das imagens e considera três. O primeiro é o objetivo da atividade didática. Se se procura somente um conhecimento recetivo, retendo o significado e/ou, se além disto, há que preparar o aluno para o conhecimento produtivo, ou seja, que memorize a forma linguística e que a saiba utilizar. No caso da proposta didática que apresentamos baseada nas necessidades específicas comentadas na introdução, para esse curso com fins específicos, o objetivo é fundamentalmente o primeiro, ou seja que o aluno entenda o que lhe comunicam (conhecimento recetivo). O falante nativo não vai pensar se está a usar idiomatismos ou não, nem que o seu uso pode afetar a comunicação entre ambos. O aluno estrangeiro que participa neste tipo de formação quer perceber o que lhe dizem e vai estar submetido a escutar uma variada panóplia de idiomatismos. Em contrapartida, para estes alunos, a produção verbal usando somente um ou dois dos idiomatismos mais usados pode ser, de modo geral, suficiente para questionar o falante nativo sobre o seu estado de saúde. Quando fazemos considerações sobre o que é dum modo geral suficiente ou não para um aluno, estamos a considerar que o número de horas de contato do aluno num nível inicial com a nova língua é ainda reduzido, mas que há que prepará-lo desde o início para realizar os seus objetivos comunicativos. Para muitos, esse escasso contato com a língua vai ser o único, dado que não vão prosseguir a sua aprendizagem. O segundo fator que propõe Boers et al (2008) é o momento da elucidação pictórica do processo da aprendizagem. Se as imagens devem ser apresentadas antes, ao mesmo tempo ou depois de outro tipo de explicações (verbais ou proposicionais). O terceiro são as características individuais dos participantes: aptidão, estratégias de aprendizagem habituais e o estilo cognitivo individual. Em relação a este último, existem pessoas que têm um estilo cognitivo que os leva a pensar mais à base de imagens (são os designados *high imagers*) que diferem dos *low imagers* que funcionam de modo oposto (Boers & Littlemore, 2000).

Introdução de idiomatismos em níveis iniciais

O “Quadro europeu comum de referência para as línguas” não menciona exatamente o nível em que se deverá começar a incluir o ensino de expressões idiomáticas. Dá contudo algumas pistas de que no nível A1 o aluno não está preparado para compreender questões pessoais que façam uso de linguagem idiomática (Conselho de Europa, 2001: 122) e de que o aluno que atingiu o nível B1 deve ser capaz, a nível oral, de compreender o essencial do que se lhe diz na sua área, sempre que os seus interlocutores evitem o “uso de expressões demasiado idiomáticas” (Conselho da Europa, 2001: 118). Um bom domínio de expressões idiomáticas atinge-se nos níveis C1 e C2. Do exposto se pressupõe que os idiomatismos começar-se-ão a introduzir entre o nível A2 e B1, mas que há um claro domínio de níveis mais avançados. Forment Férnandez (1998) defende que há várias razões para que se evite o uso de idiomatismos nas primeiras etapas da aprendizagem de um idioma, das quais destaca duas. A primeira é a de que a maioria possui significados idiomáticos que podem ser expressos de outro modo, podendo-se evitar o uso de idiomatismos. A segunda é que têm características sintáticas que só dificultariam a retenção de alguns aspetos sintáticos paradigmáticos do sistema linguístico e seria mais conveniente não introduzi-los até que regras básicas estejam dominadas.

Detry (2009: 34) contrapõe esses argumentos dando exemplos de idiomatismos na língua espanhola. Defende em primeiro lugar que nem todos os sintagmas dos idiomatismos, literalmente, são difíceis de aprender. Em segundo lugar que nem todos têm um significado idiomático complexo. Em terceiro, que estas expressões são úteis a nível comunicativo dado que são recursos económicos a nível discursivo e não seria necessariamente a forma linguística mais complicada para o aluno. Outros autores (Sugano, 1981, Irujo, 1986a/b, Vázquez Fernández & Bueso Fernández, 1998, Penadés Martínez, 1999, González Rey, 2007, citados por Detry 2009: 34-35) sustentam que se devem introduzir em níveis iniciais e justificam a sua posição com a importância da sua função comunicativa e o seu uso frequente.

Assim, para que se pudesse introduzir em níveis iniciais haveria que ajustar-se a metodologia e atividades didáticas, bem como selecionar os idiomatismos de acordo como os níveis dos alunos (Detry, 2009: 35). Por isso haveria que classificar-se os idiomatismos segundo o seu grau de complexidade para o estudante (Sugano, 1981, Cooper, 1998, Irujo, 1986a,b, González Rey, 2007, citados por Detry, 2009: 35).
A proposta didática que se apresenta seguidamente foi pensada para níveis iniciais, ainda que possa ser aplicada noutros níveis. No caso específico da nossa proposta, pensada para um curso para fins específicos, como é o caso de um curso de comunicação com pacientes, o docente deverá estar ciente de que a introdução de alguns idiomatismos são indispensáveis para expressar algumas ideias. Os significados idiomáticos de alguns dos idiomatismos escolhidos dificilmente podem ser expressos de outro modo, não se fazendo uso de mais idiomatismos. É o caso da ideia de ter um aborto. Na proposta a apresentar foi escolhido *ṭāḥ lha bnādəm* (figura 6 do apêndice A). Dificilmente a mesma ideia de ter um aborto pode ser expressa sem usar, pelo menos, outros idiomatismos como *ṭāḥ lha drari* (literalmente “caiu-lhe os filhos”) *xsər lha bnādəm* (“perdeu-se-lhe o ser humano”) ou *ṭāḥ lha l-ʕyāl* (“caiu-lhe o filhos”, esta

última na variedade nortenha). Outros dos significados idiomáticos que fazem parte da proposta que se apresenta podiam sem expressados sem fazer uso de idiomatismos, mas a sua seleção está relacionada essencialmente com o perfil dos alunos que têm como objetivo entender o que o doente marroquino diz e os nativos fazem-no das mais variadas formas sem refletir sobre a forma linguística. Provavelmente num curso geral de iniciação ao árabe marroquino, evitar estes idiomatismos não afetaria significativamente os objetivos dos alunos que desejam maioritariamente viajar até Marrocos em férias ou em trabalho. As necessidades nesse caso seriam as de poder expressar-se de modo básico no caso de adoecerem. Não obstante, para atingir os objetivos de um curso de comunicação com doentes, será necessário fazê-lo. Cabe ao professor selecionar aqueles idiomatismos que respondem às necessidades reais de comunicação dos alunos. Uma segunda questão que merece reflexão está relacionada com o perfil dos alunos de árabe marroquino. Não é fácil encontrar cursos e manuais de nível avançado, ou seja, maioritariamente os objetivos dos alunos são poderem manter uma conversa de nível básico (alguns poderão considerar alcançar um nível intermédio). Esperar até níveis avançados para introduzir idiomatismos que vão ser necessários para comunicarem não é razoável, dado que não será na esmagadora maioria das vezes factível.

Um último ponto que foi considerado na nossa proposta didática é o de um ajuste da metodologia usada quando se leciona idiomatismos em níveis iniciais, tal como mencionado anteriormente. O facto dos alunos, por exemplo, não conhecerem ainda algum vocabulário que lhes permita entender o sentido literal da expressão linguística pode ser contornado pelo uso de ilustrações.

Proposta didática

Tal como mencionado anteriormente, o professor deve eleger criteriosamente os idiomatismos a utilizar. Os designados idiomatismos *imageables* (de imagens) (Lakoff, 1987: 447) são aqueles que “têm associados imagens convencionais”, ou seja, expressões que tendem a evocar uma cena na mente dos falantes nativos. Nem todos os idiomatismos evocam com a mesma facilidade uma cena mental. Estas diferenças devem ser tidas em conta quando se escolhem os idiomatismos a empregar nestas atividades, evitando-se usar aqueles que mais dificilmente evocam uma cena mental.

Nesta escolha, o professor ou o que realiza manuais ou atividades didáticas tem que considerar também as diferenças culturais. Devido aos convencionalismos culturais as imagens evocadas na mente dos falantes nativos podem ser diferentes das dos alunos de árabe marroquino. Um determinado idiomatismo *imageable* (de imagens) segundo os padrões de uma determinada cultura de origem, pode não evocar as mesmas cenas convencionais na mente de alunos de outras culturas (Fernando 1996: 124-32, citado por Boers & Demecheller 2001: 256). Este facto tem também implicações na aplicação da mesma atividade didática se se tratar de estudantes de diferentes culturas presentes no mesmo grupo.

Tendo em conta a frequência com que aparecem no corpus da nossa tese de doutoramento que estamos a analisar, bem como outras considerações descritas até agora, foram escolhidos os seguintes idiomatismos para a realização da atividade[2]:

1. TR[3]: *xarrəž lu dwa* (TL[4]: tirou para ele medicamento; SI[5]: Receitou-lhe medicamentos).

2. TR: *šəddu* + doença ou sintoma (TL: apanhou-o [a doença ou sintoma]; SI: Ter [doença ou sintoma]).

3. TR: *əl-ḥassāsiyya klātu / yəddu klātu (*TL: a alergia comeu-o / a mão dele comeu-o*;* SI: A alergia dá-lhe comichão / Ter comichão na mão / no braço).

4. TR*: jāw* + doença ou sintoma (TL: veio-lhe [a doença ou sintoma]; SI: Ter [doença ou sintoma]).

5. TR: *ḍrəbu l-bərḍ* (TL: bateu-lhe o frio*;* SI: Estar constipado. Constipar-se. Apanhar uma constipação).

1. TR: *ṭāḥ lha bnādəm* (TL: caiu-lhe [a ela] o ser humano; SI: Ter um aborto).

A proposta requere a preparação dos materiais a serem usados, em particular dos desenhos que expressam os sentidos literais dos idiomatismos. No apêndice A apresentam-se os desenhos concebidos para esta proposta didática. Passaremos a explicar sucintamente algumas das características dos desenhos que foram relevantes no momento da sua elaboração. Somente o desenho do idiomatismo número seis dá ao mesmo tempo indicações sobre o significado literal e idiomático, dado que se trata de uma mulher da qual um homem em miniatura lhe cai de entre as pernas. Deste modo faz-se alguma evocação ao âmbito obstétrico do significado idiomático. Noutros idiomatismos usou-se um código de cores que auxilia no entendimento do desenho. Por exemplo, pintou-se o homem representado na fig. 3.2, dado que seria importante entender que é a própria mão do homem (pintada com a mesma cor bege do restante braço) que comia o próprio individuo. No caso do idiomatismo número 4, pintar as camisolas dos dois homens participantes de modo distinto, ajuda a perceber melhor o deslocamento do homem da esquerda que representa a doença ou sintoma na direção do doente que fica sempre no mesmo lugar. Por último, as cores usadas na fig. 5 têm como objetivo destacar que o individuo posicionado do lado esquerdo e que bate no outro é o "frio". Há que mencionar também que para os alunos percebam que as figuras 3.1 e 3.2 representam o mesmo idiomatismo, colocou-se uma separação diferente entre as duas imagens.

Na produção dos elementos visuais há que ter especial cuidado para que estes não possuam demasiada informação que "distraia" os alunos do sentido literal da expressão e lhes leve a fazer inferências erróneas. É o que Svensén (1993: 169) designa por «ruido "visual"» que pode afetar os objetivos da atividade. Na preparação da atividade foi solicitada a outra pessoa, não marroquina, que efetuasse os desenhos. Foram-lhe dados os idiomatismos traduzidos literalmente e foi-lhe explicado como queríamos os desenhos e o que devia estar ou não presente. Mesmo com todas as explicações foram descartados alguns desenhos que não refletiam exatamente o que pretendíamos. Esses desenhos foram refeitos. Posteriormente foram apresentados a várias pessoas (nativos marroquinos e não nativos), para que as comentassem e pudéssemos ver se os desenhos estavam suficientemente explícitos de acordo com os objetivos.

Juntamente com as figuras está escrita a transliteração dos idiomatismos. Mais que explicações esquemáticas utilizadas na lista de apresentação dos idiomatismos que poderiam ser demasiado abstratas, escreveram-se frases completas que pudessem representar o desenho. Em negrito e em itálico, destacou-se a expressão idiomática. Veja-se as traduções literais das frases usadas.

Fig.1- O médico tirou para ele o medicamento.

Fig.2 – Agarrou-o a dor / as anginas.

Fig.3.1 – Comeu-o a alergia.

Fig. 3.2 – Comeu-o a mão dele.

Fig. 4 – Veio-lhe [a ele] o cancro. Veio-lhe [a ele] a febre.

(A flexão verbal em árabe marroquino é distinta dado que existem terceira pessoa do singular masculino e feminino).
Fig. 5 – Bateu-lhe [a ele] o frio.
Fig. 6 – Caiu-lhe [a ela] o ser humano.

A escolha destas frases está relacionada com a conjugação de verbos e sufixos de complemento direto e indireto presentes nos idiomatismos. Está ligada também com o facto de se poder usar nalguns deles diversos sintomas e doenças no mesmo idiomatismo. Deste modo, os alunos terão contato com a variabilidade da forma linguística do idiomatismo desde o primeiro instante.

Ao iniciar a tarefa, os alunos sabem que se trata de idiomatismos relacionados com a doença e o âmbito médico. Isto proporciona uma contextualização parcial dos mesmos que é importante para a compreensão. Este pormenor, em níveis não iniciais do ensino de idiomas, pode ser substituído pelo aparecimento dos idiomatismos em contexto.

A proposta que apresentamos tem quatro fases na sala de aula:
1ª Observação do apêndice A, no qual estão incluídos as ilustrações e as expressões idiomáticas transcritas. O objetivo desta etapa é a de desfazer potenciais equívocos sobre o que está desenhado. Distribuir-se-á pelos alunos o apêndice A e pedir-se-lhes-á que observem atentamente os desenhos que expressam o sentido literal dos idiomatismos. Seguidamente, os alunos comentam em voz alta o que observam. É bastante importante que nesta fase o professor vá destacando características pictóricas comentadas oralmente pelos alunos. Cabe ao docente ajudar a salientar as que sejam importantes com perguntas ou pequenos comentários que ajudem os alunos a centrarem-se em aspetos que podem passar despercebidos como, por exemplo, o movimento que é difícil destacar em imagens estáticas. Esta participação do professor é chave para o desenvolvimento da tarefa. Por exemplo, no idiomatismo “a doença veio-lhe” o desenho pode não ser suficientemente esclarecedor. A ideia dada pelo verbo “vir” pode ser facilmente trocada por “ir” dado que o uso de ambos os verbos depende somente da perspetiva do falante que as enuncia. Expressar isso no desenho acrescentando, por exemplo, uma terceira pessoa que estivesse ao lado do individuo doente para transmitir essa perspetiva podia criar ruido visual. Por esse motivo, a orientação do professor pode

ajudar a desfazer esse possível equívoco e a centrar a atenção do aluno em características chave que não devem ser descuradas. Esta orientação e supervisão por parte do docente são incentivadas por estudos como o de Boers (2011), Farsani el al. (2012) e Tyler & Evans (2005). O professor poderá usar ainda mimica ou então representar o que terá a mesma função das imagens (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008; Lindstromberg & Boers, 2005). No caso específico desta proposta didática a ideia de movimento de alguns idiomatismos pode ser realçada com mímica.

O objetivo desta primeira fase é que os alunos entendam a literalidade da expressão linguística, ou seja, que se consciencializem do significado literal das palavras contidas nos idiomatismos. Segundo Boers (2000: 563) isto estimula a imagem mental (*mental imagery*) e associar imagem com vocabulário ajuda a reter a informação.
Como se trata de um nível inicial a discussão pode ser feita no idioma dos estudantes. A introdução do árabe marroquino pode ser usada parcialmente em alguns comentários, com vocabulário que os alunos já conheçam. No caso de alguma palavra desconhecida em árabe marroquino por parte dos alunos, o docente pode aproveitar os desenhos e as expressões escritas.

2ª Descodificação dos idiomatismos. Pedir-se-á aos alunos que tentem "adivinhar" o significado idiomático desses idiomatismos. Nesta primeira fase da atividade os alunos são encorajados a descodificar os idiomatismos *imageables* (de imagens), de modo independente. Este facto transforma esta atividade numa tarefa na qual há que resolver um problema que é o de descobrir os significados figurados dos idiomatismos. Este tipo de tarefas exige um grau elevado de processamento cognitivo (Lenon, 1998, citado por Boers & Demecheleer, 2001: 260) antes que se proceda à corroboração ou rejeição das hipóteses apresentadas pelos alunos. Este elevado nível de processamento cognitivo é benéfico para o armazenamento na memória de longo prazo (Ellis, 1994, citado por Boers & Demecheleer, 2001: 260). A elucidação pictórica do domínio fonte de enunciado de significado figurado fornece um estímulo extra ao código duplo (*dual coding*) e por isso facilita a retenção a sua retenção (Paivio & Desrochers, 1979, Paivio,1986, citados por Boers 2011: 230, 244).

Foi realizado um estudo que incluía uma tarefa similar à apresentada na nossa proposta, com alunos cuja língua materna era o francês que estudavam a língua inglesa e aos quais foi pedido que tentassem adivinhar o significado figurado de idiomatismos ingleses de transparência semântica de nível intermédio, ou seja, não demasiado opacos. O acerto total ou ao menos parcial das respostas foi de quase 35% (Boers & Demecheleer, 2001: 260). Ainda que os alunos não consigam decifrar os significados figurados ou somente se aproximem parcialmente, são os frutos do processamento cognitivo que constituem os objetivos desta segunda etapa. Os alunos fariam a reflexão em pares e posteriormente far-se-ia a partilha com os restantes membros da turma. A proposta é que se reserve uns cinco minutos para a discussão em pares. Deste modo segue-se a Boers & Demecheller (2001: 260) que sugerem que será mais frutífero se a resolução da tarefa-problema não se faz de modo individual, mas em conjunto. Estes autores defendem que no processo de corroboração ou rejeição das hipóteses dos alunos é importante, uma vez mais, a orientação do professor, continuando a guiá-los até à completa interpretação no caso de estarem no caminho certo ou clarificando-os se eles permanecem sem resultados. Por último, há que salientar que a apresentação do apêndice A a diversas pessoas não nativas indiciou uma certa opacidade do idiomatismo número três dado que nenhum dos entrevistados se aproximou do seu significado figurado.

3ª Uso dos novos idiomatismos. Os idiomatismos escolhidos são variáveis na conjugação verbal e nos pronomes de complemento direto e indireto, sendo alguns deles possíveis de utilizar fazendo referência a uma variedade de doenças e sintomas. O objetivo desta etapa é o de baseando-se no *input* dado pelo código de cores mencionado anteriormente e da observação de desenhos e escrita dos idiomatismos, plasmado no apêndice A, os alunos possam perceber como devem fazer variar o idiomatismo de modo a adaptar-se ao contexto. A sugestão é que se procure em *WWW - World Wide Web* (Rede de alcance mundial) imagens (desenhos, fotos, vídeos) com pessoas com diversos problemas de saúde (constipação, dor de cabeça, febre, dor de barriga, cancro, varicela, alergia, prurido, etc). Os alunos terão de descrever essas situações usando os novos idiomatismos. Neste caso far-se-á uso da terceira pessoa. No caso de o professor querer complementar a atividade introduzindo mais variação (primeira e segunda pessoas) podem-se preparar jogos de rol. Cada aluno recebe um pequeno pedaço de papel onde se lhe dá a conhecer o novo nome e a sua hipotética doença (ou a medicação receitada pelo médico ou uma situação de aborto espontâneo pela qual passou). Os alunos assumem as novas identidades e têm que deslocar-se pela sala de aula, questionando os seus colegas, simultaneamente sobre a sua nova condição. As respostas permitidas são "sim" ou não", além do nome da personagem que assumem no momento. No quadro escrever-se-á todos os nomes que fazem parte das identidades deste jogo de rol. O objetivo da tarefa é que cada participante conheça o quadro clínico de cada uma das "personagens" do jogo.

4ª Consciencialização dos alunos da variação entre culturas. Uma comparação com os equivalentes dos idiomatismos na L1 dos alunos pode ajudar os mesmos a entenderem e a reterem os idiomatismos (Deignan et al, 1997). Tomando como exemplo o idiomatismo cinco, *ḍrəbu l-bərḍ* (TL: bateu-lhe o frio), estimular uma comparação com outros idiomas em que a doença não assume um papel ativo, mas sim passivo é bastante significativo. Em francês, o idiomatismo equivalente é *attraper un rhume*, em inglês *to catch a cold*, em espanhol *coger un catarro (un resfriado)*, em italiano *prendersi un raffreddore* e em português *apanhar uma constipação*. Depois desta comparação o aluno está consciente de que em árabe marroquino a constipação (a doença é personificada e assume um papel ativo, ao contrário do que acontece noutros idiomas nos quais é a pessoa que fica doente que desencadeia uma ação. Os alunos poderão ver a mesma característica nos idiomatismos 2, 3 e 4. Fazer os alunos conscientes destes aspetos ajuda a preparar o aluno a encontrar-se com idiomatismos novos neste campo. É o caso de *dāz ʕlīh [a doença]* (TL: passou por ele [a doença]; SI: estar/ ficar doente; ter [doença]) cuja motivação é dada pela mesma metáfora concetual do idiomatismo 4 (Borges, 2013).

Conclusões

A reflexão que levamos a cabo está baseada no desfasamento que existe entre a frequência de idiomatismos relacionados com doença no discurso espontâneo e a atenção que se lhes dá nos manuais de texto.

A proposta didática apresentada sugere que se se tiver em conta vários fatores fundamentais a introdução de idiomatismos nos níveis iniciais com alunos de certos perfis, não é problemática, mas bem pelo contrário benéfica à concretização dos seus objetivos. Fatores como a seleção criteriosa dos idiomatismos (salienta-se a *imageability* - capacidade de evocar uma cena mental-, a não opacidade e a elevada frequência de uso), baseada no conhecimento que o professor tem da língua meta e também nas diferenças linguísticas e culturais da L1 dos alunos, bem como um ajuste da metodologia empregada na atividade, aplicando princípios cognitivos, podem ser chaves para que se consigam lograr os objetivos e para que se dotem os estudantes de "ferramentas" que lhes permitam entender mais facilmente novos idiomatismos dentro do mesmo âmbito.

Sugerimos que o enquadramento teórico que serviu de base à proposta didática que apresentamos seja aplicado a outros idiomatismos do árabe marroquino, não só dentro do mesmo âmbito, ou seja, da doença, mas de um modo generalizado, especialmente quando se trata de níveis iniciais de aprendizagem. A linguística cognitiva pode contribuir para inovar alguma das metodologias usadas no ensino do árabe marroquino, não só no campo dos idiomatismos, mas também no dos conteúdos gramaticais, lexicais e semânticos, diminuindo a arbitrariedade presente na aprendizagem formal. Não obstante, previamente fazem faltam obras e estudos prévios que nos possibilitem conhecer melhor determinados aspetos teóricos do árabe marroquino, sobretudo na área da linguística-cognitiva.

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Apêndice A

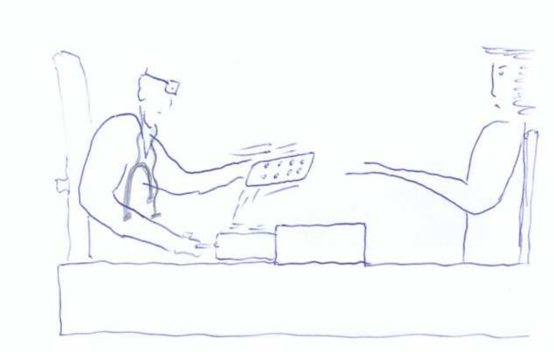

Fig. 1 - Ṭbib ***xarrəž lu dwa***

Fig. 2 - ***Šəddu*** l-ḥrīq/ l-ḥlāqam

Fig. 3.1 - ***Klātu*** l-ḥassāsiyya

Fig.3.2 - ***Klātu*** yəddu

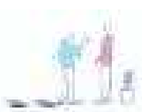

Fig. 4 - ***Jāw*** l-kōnṣēr. ***Jātu*** s-sxāna	Fig. 5 - ***Ḍrəbu l-bərḍ***

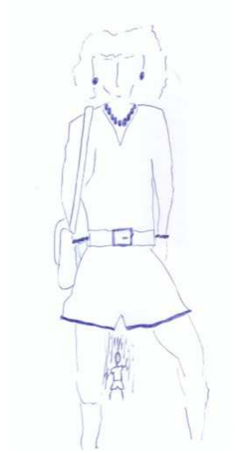

Fig. 6 - ***Ṭāḥ lha bnādəm***

Notas

[1] Transcrição do árabe: 1. Vogais longas: ā ([a:], [ɑ:], [æ:]), ī ([i:], [ɪ:], [e:]), ō ([ʊ:], [o:]) y ū ([u:]), sem indicar os alofones; 2. Vogais breves: ə ≠ ŭ; reduziram-se os seus alofones, em algumas circunstâncias a: ă ([ă], [ɑ]), ĕ ([ĕ]), ĭ ([ĭ], [ɪ]), ŏ ([ʊ], [o]) y ŭ ([ŭ]) ≠ ŭ). Em posição final não se indica a quantidade vocálica já que esta pode ser longa, breve ou de média duração. 3. Consoantes: /b/: oclusiva bilabial sonora, /m/: nasal bilabial, /f/ fricativa labiodental surda, /d/: oclusiva dental sonora, /ḍ/ oclusiva dental sonora faringalizada, /t/ oclusiva dental surda, [ţ]: africada dental surda (realização de *t* exceto [tţ]), /ṭ/ oclusiva dental surda faringalizada, /n/: nasal dental, /s/: sibilante alveolar surda, /ṣ/: sibilante alveolar surda faringalizada /z/: sibilante alveolar sonora, /ẓ/: sibilante alveolar sonora faringalizada, /l/: lateral, /ḷ/: lateral faringalizada, /r/: vibrante, /ṛ/ vibrante faringalizada, /š/: fricativa surda, /ž/ fricativa sonora, /k/: oclusiva pós-palatal surda, /g/: oclusiva pós-palatal sonora, /q/: oclusiva uvular surda, /x/: fricativa uvular surda, /ġ/: fricativa uvular sonora, /ḥ/: fricativa faringal surda, /ʕ/: fricativa faringal sonora, /h/: fricativa glotal surdo, /'/: oclusiva glotal surdo, /w/: semiconsoante bilabial, /y/: semiconsoante pré-palatal. Relativamente aos vocábulos

procedentes do árabe clássico, manteremos a transcrição vocálica seguinte: *a, i* e *u* para as breves y *ā*, *ī* e *ū* para as longas.

[2] Cabe destacar que como não existe infinitivo em árabe marroquino usou-se na transcrição o que convencionalmente se usa quando se quer nomear um verbo: o perfectivo em terceira pessoa masculina do singular, exceto no caso do sexto idiomatismo visto que forçosamente se refere a uma mulher e por isso foi usada a terceira pessoa feminina do singular. Os verbos presentes nos idiomatismos – verbos de suporte – conjugam-se e a eles se sufixam pronomes de complemento direto e indireto

[3] Transcrição do árabe (Cf. a nota 1).

[4] Tradução literal para o português. Em vez da transliteração que se utiliza frequentemente nos estudos que analisam metáforas e metonímias concetuais quando o artigo ou comunicação é escrito numa língua diferente das expressões linguísticas a analisar, foi escolhida a tradução literal que é suficiente para a explicação da atividade didática que se propõe.

[5] Sentido idiomático.

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When simply 'thank you' is not enough: Analysis of the acknowledgement section in thesis and dissertations

Abstract
With the implementation of the Bologna Process, most European countries now rely on a higher education degree structure based on a sequence of bachelor, master and doctoral degrees, which has changed academic life and increased the production of theses and dissertations. Acknowledgments are an important part of academic life: researchers feel indebted to others and are driven to show their gratitude not only because they believe all those who have helped them in their research are entitled to be acknowledged, but also because expressing that gratitude to other researchers is a form of conferring dignity to their own work. Acknowledgements are also socially-driven, which means that apart from academic or financial-related references, the other elements acknowledged may vary according to cultural references. Building from this assumption, we have collected a corpus of theses and dissertations with the aim of comparing the data we have gathered with studies made in other countries and ascertain whether Portuguese acknowledgement sections show the same moves and the same entities. We start by presenting a short literature review on the topic of acknowledgements as an academic genre, then we move on to present our findings based on the data set we collected and conclude with a prototypical description of what can be considered the acknowledgement section of Portuguese theses and dissertations.
Keywords: acknowledgement section, corpus linguistics, languages for academic purposes.

Introduction

Showing gratitude in writing is not a new trend: acknowledgements have existed for at least some 500 years. According to Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza, & Pabón Berbesí (2010), acknowledgements were first used both as a means to show gratitude towards those that provided financial support for the writers' endeavours and as a display of humbleness towards the official religious or secular body that allowed for the book to be printed. Only later did these start to appear in academic writing and publishing for 'strategic reasons and for underlining academic network dependence and belonging' (Salager-Meyer et al., 2010: 43).

Textbooks aimed at helping students writing their theses or dissertations mention the acknowledgement section as a compulsory one, although not much is said regarding its content. Students usually have some vague idea that they need to thank their supervisors, but not much more than that. However, the hard labour they have carried out through months, in the case of master dissertations, or years, in the case of doctoral theses, was not accomplished solely on their own. Researchers do not usually work isolated and they count on effective or at least moral support from a variety of people and institutions. Therefore, the acknowledgement section 'has become an institutionalised element of the scholarly communication process, reflecting the growing cognitive and structural complexity of contemporary research' (Cronin, 2001: 427).
Acknowledgements are not exclusive to theses and dissertations, being an integral part of most written form of scientific communication and 'have slowly become a constitutive paratextual feature of the modern research article' (Salager-Meyer et al., 2009: 3). However, for the purpose of our study, we decided to concentrate our efforts on the acknowledgement section as it appears in most, if not all, theses and dissertations presented in Portuguese higher education institutions. In order to do so, we have collected a sample of eleven theses and thirty-nine dissertations.

We start by presenting a short literature review on the topic of acknowledgements as an academic genre, then we move on to present our findings based on the data set we collected and conclude with a prototypical description of what can be considered the acknowledgement section of Portuguese theses and dissertations: we compare typical moves in the data set with those presented by other researchers namely for theses and dissertations written in English and propose an organization for the acknowledgement section in Portuguese.

The acknowledgement section as an academic genre

When faced with the need to write the acknowledgement section of their thesis or dissertation, researchers feel they have an almost total lack of knowledge about this genre, not only in terms of its structure, but also regarding its content. Therefore, researchers tend to draw inspiration from what others have written in similar situations, often copying phrases almost verbatim (Scrivner, 2009). However, acknowledgements can indeed be considered a genre, with typified structure and content, which makes it possible for us to analyse its movements and vocabulary, and suggest guidelines for researchers who are often in desperate need for them at the time of writing this section – one they usually reserve for the final week of their deadline.

The notion of genre has been widely analysed in the context of literature, starting with Plato and Aristotle and moving on to contemporary authors that continue to further discuss this matter. Although for Todorov (1990: 17) genres are more than simple classes of texts, the term should be applied only to those classes of texts 'that have been historically perceived as such'. Genres cannot be seen in isolation, since they are envisaged in relation to other genres (Bhatia, 2004) and imply the codification of discursive properties based on form and content (Todorov, 1990).

Moving away from such views of literary genres, the term is more freely used in corpus linguistics and terminology studies, where it is essential to organize texts according to their typology, which implies collecting and classifying texts under the same label:

> [p]our cela, les textes doivent maintenir entre eux des relations de ressemblance au niveau des macro et des microstructures à travers l'identification de régularités propres à un ensemble de textes, par opposition aux régularités d'autres ensembles de textes (Costa & Silva, 2008: 7).

When compared with the other sections that comprise theses and dissertations – such as introduction, literature review, methodology, analysis and discussion and conclusions – 'acknowledgements constitute an interactive rhetorical section which allows the writer to construct an identity located within a network of interlocking relationships' (Afful & Mwinlaaru, 2010: 2). Hyland (2003) considers acknowledgements as a 'Cinderella' genre that intertwines the academic and the personal.

Under the scope of what is considered languages for academic purposes, acknowledgements comply with the condition that

> los elementos retóricos de los textos son el producto de la relación existente entre los escritores y la audiencia en cada una de las comunidades discursivas, es decir, que son los miembros de las comunidades científicas quienes establecen la configuración textual de los géneros (Martín Martín, 2010: 109).

Empirical study: analysis and discussion

Our aim was to analyse the acknowledgement section as used in theses and dissertations written in Portugal and compare these with data provided by studies made on other languages (mostly Hyland, 2004) in order to understand whether this section – which is the least scientific or academic one in this type of documents – depends on cultural constraints.

Our corpus was composed of 50 documents – 39 master dissertations and 11 doctoral theses – presented in higher education institutions in Portugal. In order to facilitate the collection of the documents that would compose the corpus, we decided to use RCAAP – Repositório Científico de Acesso Aberto de Portugal, a portal that collects open-access scientific content made available by a series of Portuguese (and Brazilian) universities, polytechnic institutes and other research facilities in their own institutional repositories. The advantages of using RCAAP were: (i) the documents are already stored in a digital format, most of them in the form of searchable files; and (ii) this portal provides access to thousands of scientific and scholarly publications, retrievable with a single query. From the 42 repositories aggregated in this portal, we selected 25 repositories pertaining to Portuguese universities and polytechnic institutes to start our search. We intended to do away with any geographical bias, so we selected repositories from all over the country (mainland and isles) adding another constraint: we selected solely institutions that provide courses in Business Studies, since that would be the focus of our study. This distinction was important because we had to consider the possibility that the scientific background of the students writing that sort of scholarly document might have some influence in *what* and *how* they write.

Another relevant constraint in our search was the language and the country of origin of the institutions whose repositories we would use. Since we posited that culture might have some influence over the acknowledgement section, our focus was exclusively the Portuguese language and dissertations and theses defended in Portugal. We did get some documents that although written in Portuguese and presented to Portuguese institutions were written by Brazilian speakers, which – as we will later describe – showed up very interestingly in our data. Finally, we chose a maximum of 5 documents per institution and only documents issued within a 5-year time frame: from 2007 to 2011. After applying all these constraints to our search, we selected documents that contained the word ‘gestão’ in their title, subject, or abstract.

We gathered initially 125 documents. From those we discarded the ones that were incomplete, that were some other sort of scholarly document – such as an internship report – the ones that pertained to specific areas such as hospital management, IT systems management, educational sciences, or psychology. Some documents we had to discard because of internal errors that prevented us from reading them. (Noteworthy is that all 125 dissertations and theses that we retrieved had an acknowledgement section, which attests the ‘compulsory’ nature of this section.) After this process we were left with fifty documents.

When the corpus was complete, we printed each acknowledgement section to a separate document. This section seems to be conventionally limited to one separate page, such as dedications or meaningful and inspiring quotes. However, 6 acknowledgement sections in our corpus have more than 1 page. After all the acknowledgement sections had been isolated we proceeded to analyse our corpus using AntConc, a freeware concordance program developed by Laurence Anthony of Waseda University, Japan.
Given that our aim was to find out whom researchers were acknowledging, we ran a unique word search that yielded a total of 2104 word types. We then proceeded to sort these word types into five categories – (1) whom is being acknowledged, (2) what is being acknowledged, (3) references to the work itself, (4) proper names, and (5) other words. At this initial stage, we concentrated our efforts on the first of these groups. Table 1 below shows the most common word types sorted into group 1.

Table 1 Word types sorted into group 1 – whom is being acknowledged.

Rank	No. of occurrences	Word type
29	48	Professor
31	45	Doutor
48	32	Colegas
58	27	Amigos
63	26	Pessoas
65	24	Doutora
68	23	Pais
71	22	Família
85	18	Dr
86	18	Professora
93	16	Orientador
96	15	Orientadora
113	13	Prof
136	10	Amiga
184	7	Colega
192	7	Irmã
193	7	Irmãos

The first column on Table 1 above shows the position occupied by the word types in the list of 2104 word types of our corpus according to the number of occurrences of each particular type (column 2). For the purpose of this paper we have omitted from that list all the word types that were not included in the first of the categories we considered, i.e., whom is being acknowledged.

From empirical knowledge – gathered from our experience of many years helping students writing their dissertations – we had posited that supervisors, close family members (parents and siblings), friends and colleagues (co-workers and co-students) would be widely mentioned in the acknowledgment section. Our data have suggested that same pattern. *Professor* ('professor', masculine), *Doutor* ('doctor', masculine), ranking at 29 and 31. To these we can add *Doutora* ('doctor', feminine) and *Professora* ('Professor', feminine), ranking a bit lower down the list (at 65 and 86, respectively), but also a probable indicative of the supervisor. However, not each and every instance of these words corresponds to the actual supervisors, given that the authors may simply be thanking other faculty members. The words *Orientador* (‘supervisor’, masculine) and *Orientadora* (‘supervisor’, feminine) are unmistakable though and are ranked on the first 100 word types in this list (at 93 and 95 respectively).

Based on the word type list, we coded all 50 documents individually using 14 categories, which correspond to the entities (or groups of entities) acknowledged. The results can be seen on Table 2.

Table 2 Categories

Supervisor(s)	**49**	**98%**
Parents	33	66%
Friends	30	60%
Partner	28	56%
Colleagues	25	50%
Institutions	21	42%
Participants in the study	20	40%
Other faculty members	19	38%
Family	18	36%
Siblings	18	36%
Technical support	14	28%
Other family members	9	18%
Children	9	18%
God	5	10%

Unsurprisingly, supervisors were mentioned in all but one of the documents. The exception was one of the 5 documents written using Brazilian Portuguese, which could indicate the author’s lack of knowledge of the Portuguese tradition of acknowledging academic guidance, help and inspiration.

Authors also feel indebted to other faculty members (38%) who have been influential throughout their academic career. Colleagues (50%) – both co-workers and those that underwent the same post-graduation program are also mentioned, as well as several institutions (42%) – which include the university or institute where the degree was obtained, as well as employers that facilitated the task or companies that allowed the authors to use their data in their study. The actual participants in the study (40%) – for example, respondents – and those that have granted some sort of technical support (28%) fall within the scope of facilitators of the author's work.

In the personal sphere, parents (66%) together with partners (56%) – in the form of spouses, fiancés, boyfriends and girlfriends – seem to be those that suffer the greatest burden of alleviating the pressure authors feel during the period of their writing. Friends (60%) also play an important role in this regard, being often mentioned by name.

The fact that 5 of the authors saw it fit to thank God for strength and perseverance to conclude their project was somewhat unexpected since nowadays Portuguese people do not show such public displays of religious affiliation. However, on closer inspection, we have found that 3 of those documents were clearly written using Brazilian Portuguese.

Structure of the acknowledgement section

Based on Hyland's (2004) proposal for the organization of the acknowledgement section (see Table 3), we have analysed our corpus and found that Portuguese acknowledgement sections follow a very similar structure for the first and second moves, but the third move is absent from the documents in our corpus.

Table 3 Hyland's three-tier structure

1	**Reflecting move**
2	Thanking move
	Presenting participants
	Thanking for academic assistance
	Thanking for resources
	Thanking for moral support
3	Announcing move
	Accepting responsibility
	Dedicating the thesis

Source: adapted from Hyland (2004: 308).

Similarly to what Hyland (2004) has found, the Thanking move in Portuguese acknowledgements is obligatory. In fact, that is the main and only purpose of that section and therefore it constitutes its single most important part.

The reflecting move was present in 58% of the documents with authors taking that advantage to express what they feel they have gained with their research experience and the struggle it meant to them. Interesting is also the fact that 59% of those that decided to start the acknowledgement section with such an introductory paragraph also felt the need to conclude that section with a general expression of gratitude in the lines of 'thank you all'.

The Announcing move is absent from each and every document in our corpus. First, authors do not feel the need to announce their responsibility for what they have written. This is probably something they take for granted and their audiences as well. Secondly, as for dedicating their work, Portuguese authors prefer to use a dedication on a separate page, always right before the acknowledgement section. However, only 40% of the documents in our corpus featured a dedication. Strikingly, 9 out of the 11 doctoral theses include a dedication, which can be tied to the fact that these are longer works – often considered by the authors the work of a lifetime – and therefore worth dedicating to someone.

Based on Hyland's three-tier structure, we have posited a similar three-tier structure for Portuguese acknowledgements (see Table 4), with a different third tier, which we have called Closuring move since it seems to give a sense of closure not only to that specific section, but also to the author's project itself given that it is often the last section to be written. While the Thanking move is obligatory, both the Announcing and Closuring moves are optional.

Table 4 Structure of Portuguese Acknowledgement sections
in theses and dissertations

1	**Reflecting move**
2	Thanking move
	Thanking for academic assistance

		Thanking for resources
		Thanking for moral support
3	Closuring move	
		General expression of gratitude

Conclusions and future research

This research stemmed from the realization that students who wish to write the acknowledgement section of their scholarly works cannot find any formal guidance or training on how to write them – at most they learn they are supposed to thank their supervisors and other relevant entities. Our aim was then to provide the groundwork for that training starting with the structure of the acknowledgement section. Although there is no fixed textbook structure for this section of scholarly works, we have found that graduate and post-graduate students tend to follow a common structure. We have therefore outlined that structure for theses and dissertations presented in Portugal, aiming at facilitating the work of those who have no idea of how to begin writing their acknowledgement section.

Since we made a thorough distinction in terms of the expertise area of the authors of the documents that constituted our corpus, we can now collect different corpora – for example with documents written by researchers working in the area of medicine, arts, or sports – and compare data. It will then be possible to ascertain whether the scientific background of the authors of this type of scholarly documents bears any influence on how or whom they acknowledge.

We also insisted on imposing a time-frame over the documents we selected because we would like to leave the door open to a diachronic study on this matter. The oldest dissertations and theses bearing the word ‘gestão’ and currently available at RCAAP date back to 1987. A 20-year span is not much and comparisons between data collected from documents written in 2007 and those written in 1987 would probably yield no relevant differences, but further on this is a path that might prove interesting to travel. If we replace the word ‘gestão’ for example by ‘tese’ the oldest document dates back to 1964. And if we replace it by ‘estudo’ we start retrieving documents from 1919 onwards. Just out of curiosity: looking at those documents from the beginning of the

20th century, we can state that acknowledgements were indeed different – not only because they had the form of dedications, but also because they were more formal and spread through a wider audience: people acknowledged and dedicated their work not only to their parents and siblings, but also to aunts, uncles, nephews, nieces and cousins, usually calling them by name.

Further work will now be made to ascertain the most common order for those being acknowledged. We have a preliminary idea that supervisors come first, followed by other faculty members moving through colleagues, professional relationships, participants in the studies and technical support, and ending with personal relationships – friends, extended family, parents, siblings, partners and children, but more work needs to be done on this.

We have found that the acknowledgement section of theses and dissertations is a world in itself and that there are many more aspects to study regarding this subgenre. Therefore, we will continue our work and will explore geographical, diachronic and academic discipline differences, as well as formality of language and commonly-used vocabulary structures.

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Looking at LSP in the post Bologna scenario: the case of ESEIG and ISCAP

Abstract

AIMS OF THE PAPER:

In this paper I'll present some of the goals the Bologna process set up, concerning teaching (an approach focused on the high demand teaching system), and students' learning attitudes (emphasis on autonomy and self-study and other transversal skills) hoping that, with those tools, they would cope better with their professional problems, have better job offers, becoming citizens of the world, once that they had already built their self-personal growth "relying on "lifelong learning and employability (…) important missions of higher education"

BACKGROUND:

Bearing these facts in mind, it is assumed that presently and in the future there will be a continuous growing demand for knowledge in foreign languages and, furthermore, in mastering LSP settings.

Nowadays the fierce competition and the lack of jobs impose on students a comprehensive knowledge in the specific/technical domains, which may enable them to find a suitable position somewhere in the world. So the demand focuses on students' high competent linguistic skills, on the one side, and on multi task super teachers on the other, whose aim is, at the same time, to implement lifelong learning, master new methodologies and curricula, be proficient in the continuously updating digital era, enrol on mobility teaching programs, aim at experience sharing and attend doctoral programs too. We shouldn't forget the continuous and never ending bureaucratic work that is always to-be-done-yesterday. All these are the outcomes put forward by Bologna, so that teaching and learning standardization are reached:

- adopt a system of easily readable and comparable degrees (in terms of curricular development and inter-institutional cooperation);
- establish a system of credits (such as ECTS);

- support the mobility of students, teachers, researchers and administrative staff;
- promote European cooperation in quality assurance;

METHOD:

Taking the above mentioned statements along with the 12 Bologna years, this paper will first present the various idiosyncrasies of this European Higher Education model, compared to other possible teaching and learning scenarios available, pointing out both the benefits and disadvantages.

I'll take into consideration and analyse our teaching experience, as well as the different mobility programs in which we were involved, along these years and will compare them with other foreign higher education scenarios, whose demands are completely different from ours.

I'll also question what the point of this "standardization" is, (in theory) if, in practice, each country doesn´t follow the directives resulting from the different meetings held for the past 12 years?

Key words: LSP, post Bologna, high demand, teaching, learners' low achievement

The meaning of today's education imposes knowing underlying concepts such as information society, knowledge society, globalization, innovation and particularly teaching/learning all along with the changes imposed by the Bologna process. All these areas are overlapping and changes are taking place at a hallucinating rhythm.

Presently society imposes us flexibility, adaptability, comprehensive and specific knowledge. So we need to be engaged in a lifelong learning and have professional formation, as well as being socially "citizens of success", mastering different competences as self-esteem, different foreign languages, to know how to get along with pairs individually and in group. As for the educational system each country should create "permanent learning societies" (Simão, Santos & Costa, 2002), in response to the imperatives of the technological and information societies, with multiple knowledge to answer simultaneously to globalization and internationalization. Its ultimate goal is to create responsible, creative, reflexive citizens capable of generating significant changes at economic, social and cultural levels.

When Portugal subscribed the Bologna Process the purpose was to keep pace with its pairs in the construction of an European High Education space.

The challenge was to turn it into a qualitative, competitive, broad but specialized ambiance, capable of creating reflective and critical knowledge without forgetting the acquisition of multi competences, required by the global marketplace.

Looking back to ten years of European higher education reform, it was particularly highlighted the increased compatibility and comparability of European education systems through the implementation of structural changes and the use of ECTS and the Diploma Supplement. Acknowledging that the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) is not yet a reality but aims to be, there are priorities for the decade until 2020 that must be yet be achieved:

- each country should set measurable targets for widening overall participation and increasing the participation of under-represented social groups in higher education by the end of the next decade;
- at least 20 % of those graduating in the EHEA should have had a study or training period abroad;
- lifelong learning and employability are important missions of higher education;
- student-centered learning should be the goal of ongoing curriculum reform.

In the case of these above mentioned points Portugal is suffering economic constraints that are blocking the normal implementation of these goals. It is important to recognize that “Backtrack in tertiary education is absolutely crucial for a nation as Portugal which hasn’t got any future as a low cost”….in education. Unfortunately the signs that emanate from our government, point out a dangerous path that is going to mortgage our future. An additional problem is that autonomy is continuously inhibited and endangered as institutions seldom use the income they generate in their own benefit.

We should try to captivate more partnerships with the entrepreneurial world, in order to boost research and job creation towards excellence.

We can compare this situation to the Portuguese tax system. Our tax income that is centralized in the capital and not in the regions, as it is done in countries like Spain, Belgium only to mention a few.

Being so, it's difficult to compete with its European pairs.
Since the beginning of these meetings in 1998 (Sorbonne Declaration) the aim was still very restrictive, having a narrow scope, by establishing the general framework for the modernization and reform of European higher education, and considering all of increasing the international competitiveness of the European system of higher education, stressing the need to ensure that this system would attract significant attention from around the world.
As far as Bologna Declaration is concerned it should have:

- adopt a system of easily readable and comparable degrees;
- implement a system based essentially on two main cycles;
- establish a system of credits (such as ECTS);
- support the mobility of students, teachers, researchers and administrative staff;
- promote European cooperation in quality assurance;
- promote the European dimensions in higher education (in set the terms of curricular development and inter-institutional cooperation);
- promote the attractiveness of the European Higher Education Area (cf. Tuning Educational Structures in Europe).

After analysing the above mentioned objectives, we can say that despite national and cultural differences that can be easily overcome, the structural part has been successfully accomplished, but in terms of quality, it should be checked and emphasized the academic relevance of teachers' qualifications to teach the disciplines they are qualified to teach and not others, which in some cases is not a current practise, and is against the so preconized “quality assurance”. But to understand this state of affairs it is important to know Portuguese tertiary education scenario.

As Portugal is a country with a dual high education system - university and polytechnic - this system could give the opportunity for the different politechnic schools to reinforce their role in the learning system, by developing its own culture through research in the learning and teaching domains strengthening its connections with the labour market, and implementing specific formation directed to an high demand working european market.

With the passing of years, proposals acquired a larger scope, such as in the Berlin´s Communiqué (2003) where there was the need of:

- elaborate an overarching framework of qualifications for the EHEA;
- include the doctoral level as the third cycle;
- reinforce the social dimension and remove obstacles to mobility, implementing the standards and guidelines for quality Assurance - Bergen Communiqué (2005).

In the 2009, EU conclusions stated of paramount importance the development of educational systems of member states, bearing in mind:

- personal social and professional outcomes of all citizens;
- sustainable economic prosperity and employability, by promoting simultaneously the democratic values, social cohesion and citizenship, intercultural dialogue (2009, p. 3);

I’m persuaded all these objectives would be reached if the tertiary education panorama of all the countries involved were similar, with the equivalent quality standards of the teaching staff as well students’ previous background knowledge, since in all the documents that were issued at that time the emphasis of paramount importance was to rely on teachers’ formation (initial, continuous, lifelong), together with the reliance on previous students’ skills. And problems began precisely at this point, taking Portuguese reality.

Portuguese polytechnic schools were not allowed to minister/confer third cycle studies, despite its focus on curricula directed to the future labor market. Mobility of students, teachers, researchers and administrative staff boomed, but presently suffered a huge decrease, but there also other impediments that could have been changed if other policies concerning foreign languages could have been taken.

With the new state of affairs/changes provoked by Bologna, the teacher's role is not only to teach, but mainly make them learn. And learning means that the information they receive is anchored on preexisting consolidated knowledge that makes sense to the student giving him/her the possibility to acquire competences. Furthermore, it is a system requirement that they will be more responsible for their own learning process.
To turn it into a successful process it is of upmost importance to potentiate and enhance cultural environments, where both teachers and students not only cooperate in building knowledge, but all the other actors contribute with innovative projects, autonomous objectives propitiating continuous learning and lifelong learning.

As far as curricula is concerned it was a *sine qua non* condition that they should be trans disciplinary, overcoming the specific and contextualized aims of each unit and they should cross the different curricular units, creating bonds going beyond contents, constituting a shared construction process capable of providing innovative and contextualized answers. But it is fundamental to add to the above mentioned process another important premise: the affective domain of learning, which involves developing listening skills and knowing how to deal with people, adaptation skills, having ethical and judgment behavior and readapt to new evidence that may appear (Sheppard, 2008).
When these premises would be conjugated all the actors involved in the teaching learning process they would build knowledge supported in the development of a nonlinear matrix and of self-organization where it is privileged the construction of a kind of knowledge supported in theory and developed in practical terms, leading to the creation of alternative and flexible curricula settled in socio-cultural needs of students, which coped with the requirements of flexibility and openness of labor market in constant mutation, which was associated to the pretensions to the Bologna Process (Fernandes 2000). In terms of FL, the changes weren´t felt so much on the shift of the

teacher's role, but on the shortage of semesters and time of classroom exposure, as I'm going to explain later.

Although, much has been improved for the better, to understanding the problems Portugal is still facing it is important to explain the functioning of our tertiary education.

Characterization of Higher Education in Portugal

The mission of Higher Education is related to the transmission of high level knowledge, framed in space and time and opened to all social and economic groups, whatever their previous studies may be (Delors, 1996). This teaching level should be the example in the fields of innovation, research and its divulgation and in terms of new learning perspectives and in the creation of teaching syllabuses pertinent to lifelong learning and articulated to the labor market (Torres 2010). Besides it must also aim at forming professionals capable of fostering social development (Bolivar 2007).

Having these premises in mind, tertiary education institutions should enhance learning based on learning how to learn, providing students with implicit academic fundaments at this level, being the example of reflexive ambiances, where problems' identification and its consequent solution exploration and creation should be a priority. In fact, all these above mentioned achievements have been undeniable in the documents issued, but reality proves a different scenario.

Though the attribution of its relevant role, public high education in Portugal for the past decades has been paralyzed, due to fragmented educative reforms unadjusted courses to labor market, almost practically inexistent pedagogic formation of its teachers and smaller financing from the successive governments in the past decades, and the present shortage of family revenue income, due to conjuncture and economic constraints.

Instead of increasing the number of effective teachers as the "Estatuto da Carreira Docente" demands– from 50% to 70% this ratio is backing away, with the fatal consequences it implies, once schools cease to have a qualified teaching staff (spn. informação, 2013:12). It has increased from 3.172 to 3.717 between the years 2009 – 2011, but only represents 37% from all the staff needed.

In the majority of the cases these teachers are carrying out functions that should be of the competence of teachers of the top categories which they could apply as they possess the qualification that enables them to reach those top categories, as well as the working service years, but by the interpretation of the in vigor law prevents them for acceding. Being so, the there is no perspective of future progression, in their careers for the ones that have been investing, but are stagnated or simply nonexistent at all.

That brings along another problem. By diminishing the number of teachers belonging to the school boards is being compensated by the increase of invited teachers (16%) and cooperators (70%), with no bond whatsoever to the school, whose functions can be ceased whenever boars decide he/she is no longer useful. They hire them with 50% partial (part) time contracts being or with contracts paid by the hour, rising precariousness, underemployment and badly paid teaching work, as they don´t have the right to exclusivity, even though there are teachers in those top categories who retire, but even so, there isn't compensation at all, once the number of coordinators and main coordinators are less than 20% of the overall teachers of the career (spn. informação, 2013:13).

I'm going refer my personal experience and focus in two IPP schools ESEIG – where I taught for five years, but I don't work anymore – and ISCAP where I'm a FL teacher for the past 22 years.

As far as the two schools where I've taught, being part of Oporto Polytechnic Institute there is no homogeneity.

Formation:

When there was the need to adapt the courses to the Bologna aims, and teach new disciplines that were incorporated in the new curricula, IPP schools used their own "rota system" teaching staff and the same teacher could be part of two schools at the same time, being in his "mother" school as a full time teacher (12h schedule teaching per week) and cooperating with another institution of IPP (4h schedule teaching per week).
Tertiary schools in some cases still have this way of working, because a teacher who is a cooperator represents a good asset as for being provisionally "borowed" to the second school, earns less per year and yet performs almost all the tasks as a full time teacher

does. So these teachers are a handy cheap labor force and a way of saving money. Yet in some cases these teachers haven't had their contracts renewed.

ESEIG, for the past 3 years replaced some of their cooperator teachers, due to budgetary constraints, for other who belong to the school board but who presently don´t have any academic formation to teach the subjects they have been assigned. But this is not an isolated case; at ISCAP the same principle is applied. There are teachers who don't have the academic requirements to teach some disciplines, but they are teaching them. This represents a paradox, if we have in mind the principles of Bologna Declaration that defends the recognition of qualifications to provide a quality teaching.

So this situation is jeopardizing the principles of "quality standards" Bologna is so hardly defending and stands for.

Because if the underlying principle behind that premise is that by the fact of being a teacher of the board of a certain school it enables him/her to teach a certain subject, because he/she doesn't have a full schedule at the institutions where he/she was hired (his/her mother school), or the institution can´t hire another teacher, for economic budgetary limitations, under that (dangerous) perspective, any teacher can teach anything.

Who assesses and how are assessed teachers' qualifications for their jobs?

According to Bologna, High Schools should open themselves to society and form researchers and professionals who know to adapt their superior technical and scientific knowlwdge, creating exchange networks and establishing research partnerships (but shouldn't it be referred that to achieve these above mentioned goals teacher's formation should be focused and directed to the areas teachers would be teaching?) Wasn't that so important in the 2003 CCE meeting?

But there are other problems that already come from other former teaching levels, namely in secondary school, where only a small percentage of students are really prepared to face the challenges of higher education.

Due to this situation most of the students don't possess the basics that would empower them to cope with different kind of demand polytechnic schools require.

And that is even more evident in the case of students' mobility - if they want to be citizens of the world - they need to have a threshold linguistic level that may enable them to go outside with a minimum of confidence.

The analysis I'm going to present focuses on two institutions belonging to the same Polytechnic Institute – IPP - Porto's Polytechnic Institute, and on some of their degrees, before and after Bologna.
The first one is ISCAP where I've been teaching for the past 22 years and the other is ESEIG another school of the same Polytechnic Institute where I taught for five years. Both schools have an accounting degree.

At ISCAP before Bologna, in the accounting course, students had 3 years of English with an exposure of 6h per week to this FL. In classes both teachers and students had time to teach and learn with a certain depth all important and specific domains they were required to be confident professionally in their future work. All skills were given a special emphasis and homework was required as feedback tool to be proficient in that language.

With the advent of Bologna FL contact hours have been reduced to 3h per week and the exposition to that FL is occurring only in two semesters. Furthermore class time was also shortened from two hours to one hour and a half.

From my teaching experience the introduction of these changes represented a treble loss: most of classroom activities were transferred to on line platforms which have positive points as repository of some on line activities, but lack the immediate effect of correction *in situ* which is much more important than *ad posteriori*, since, most of the times students don't read what teachers write on the feedback comments given on the assignments' correction delivered by the *Moodle*.

Now teachers are relying much more on students' autonomous learning, but with the changes in the different curricula, there are so many assignments to do for each subject, that some of them don´t have enough time to dedicate to this new profile of the

independent learner, and they often take advantage of internet to copy and paste some partial and even integral assignments made by other people.
I'm sure that isn't the ideal of autonomous learning that Bologna wanted to implement, back in 2003.

Furthermore it also brings extra working hours to the teachers, who need to check the provenience of bibliographic sources as well as the rise of the ratio of students per teacher, due to enlarged number of students (spn informação, 2013:13).
Students are complaining all the time about the overload of group and individual assignments they have to do and teachers are also overwhelmed with all they have to correct, due to its multitask super teacher profile that they have to deal with daily, moreover with all the bureaucratic work they are expected to do. This state of affairs isn't only a particularity of ISCAP, but of other IPP schools.
Demotivation on both parts is reigning.

My analysis is going to turn to ESEIG's which presents a slightly different scenario. Before Bologna, in the accounting course, students were exposed to FL for 2h a week for a period of three years in classes of two hours' time. After Bologna English was reduced from three to two semesters and class time also suffered a cut of half an hour, as is ISCAP.

In the academic year of 2005–2006 a new course was created at ESEIG: Hospitality and Management where FL and specially English had a relevant role – both contact hours and classroom time didn't suffer any change: students were having three year FL classes and 2h class time, during three semesters.
That combination represented a change in relation to the proposed Bologna curriculum, but it was far more than that; it was a good bet in terms of achieving better results in both FL teaching and learning, having in mind that if students could go on mobility to a foreign country (these particular students have a compulsory internship in the 5th semester of their 3rd year degree) mastering at least English was of an incredible importance.

For the sake of standardization, shouldn't the class time be the same for the schools belonging to the same mother institution, since it proved to be efficient in one degree of a specific IPP school?

Shouldn't the students have more time of class exposure having in mind that in secondary schools they were used to have 90 m classes, mainly in FL? As Ardions refers (2011: 90) isn't the shortening of the study cycles not promoting the diminishing of academic excellence?

Being so, why wasn't it implemented in all the curricula of IPP schools? If FL were so important to be a citizen of the world why weren't they implemented in all courses in all the IPP schools? Shouldn't all the schools of the same entity be seen as one and not an assembly of seven different schools?

Being so, why at some ESEIG courses, namely Human Resources, Industrial Management and Engineering, Design, Biomedical Engineering - don't have FL at all?
If there had been a policy of unification and common core curricula format for all the schools, but respecting its own specificity, probably the state of affairs now would have been completely different.

Most of FL teachers reacted to these changes but they haven't been heard, a situation that is prevalent once the external evaluation committees that are assessing courses are not sensitive to the need of having more time to language exposure (including the mother tongue) to be internally and internationally successful, and even to the introduction of other FL in those courses.
We can't forget the aims that fostered all these academic reshaping and paradigm shift preconized by Bologna were:

- students need to experience mobility to be citizens of the world;
- students must have professional success to work anywhere in the world.

Unfortunately this has proved to be somehow a misleading situation because:

- most of the students don´t possess linguistic tools to succeed professionally abroad, they are lacking the linguistic mechanisms to perform adequately;
- despite their better grades in the first year of Bologna implementation, both students and teachers are aware those changes aren’t directly related to the access to a better knowledge or better cultural level, but they refer they have more assignments and less time devoted to study properly (cf. Ardions, 2011). So the changes weren’t directly connected to better quality knowledge.

My assumption about these curricular and academic changes Bologna introduced are based on a paradox because:

- students’ mobility is very important for their cultural and academic development, but since they are having a minor exposure to FL/LSP that prevent them to achieve the immediate proficiency goals that were expected;
- blurring boundaries weakens cultural identity and fades out national strengths;
- Bologna aims are, in some cases, for the reasons exposed, out of the scope of Portuguese reality, due to the successive budget cuts.

Portuguese tertiary education today is distant from the *golden* principles established by Bologna:

- continuous assessment is made, but having a large number of students per classroom (most of the times more than 50 students);
- teachers are smashed with assignments to correct;
- students don’t do homework regularly, so some of the premises of self-study cannot be properly assessed;
- there is a feeling of demotivation among teachers;
- due to constant budget cuts the opportunity of going on mobility disappears
- students’ results have been decreasing over the past few years.

As a FL teacher, my personal view of what really has been the Bologna Process is nothing but a vision, a vision of breaking down educational borders and creating EHEA, where learning is encouraged, facilitated (by lightening the contact hours of disciplines as well as the learning years) and enabled in a simplified, integrated way across the continent. Ideally the concept is important, but when we are facing reality, with all the limitations that we are having, because there are national constraints and even local idiosyncrasies in the different tertiary institutions that are difficult of overcome, I think that in some aspects it has been difficult to implement and it is going to be even more in the future, as far as Portuguese case is concerned. This entire scenario is even more strongly influenced by the economic constraints that we are living presently, which limit the scope of our action, for instance in terms of students' and teachers' mobility. At ISCAP we no longer have Greek students and the percentage of teachers going on mobility has been continuously decreasing. The same situation occurs with lifelong learning, both for teachers and students.

At ESEIG there are very few incoming and outgoing students.
ISCAP has a cabinet (CEISCAP) which is in permanent contact with former students as well as the entrepreneurial tissue to provide lifelong professional formation to active workers, and general public by offering several courses in a post labor schedule, so that they may attend courses on a regular basis, and for the past two years, there has been a strong decrease in the search of that kind of formation.
ISCAP International Office is a case of success, but for the past two years there have been more incoming than outgoing students
So reality is completely different from the ideals it were preconized in the beginning with Bologna implementation.

To conclude, I must point out that my idea of having a European Higher Education Area, foreign languages should be given more importance and they should never have been reduced in the different curricula of tertiary education courses in our schools. It is interesting to note that this kind of demand is something that students feel necessary, as most of them aren't confident enough to cope with FL learning, due to their previous lack of proficiency. But due to economic constraints there is not the possibility to hire more teachers, so students are aware of that lack, but unfortunately there is nothing we can do to change the present situation we are in.

Let's hope that future will bring a new hope for everybody, involved in teaching and learning in polytechnic schools and FL will be given much more importance in the future, because Bologna aims were closely directed to empowering the potentialities of tertiary education, but the reality proves that there has been a impoverishment that should be reduced.

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Teachers' and students' needs in the Bologna era: or the *Troika* for teaching and the *Trojan Horse* for learning

Abstract

AIMS OF THE PAPER:
In this paper we will present some of the ideal goals of Bologna setting up model, for learning, having in mind the notion of quality (teacher's academic formation, teaching conditions and students' proficiency level, in the beginning of the process and today's reality), and students' preparation and change in their learning attitude, questioning if it was for achieving a better higher education European world.

Bearing in mind, the transversal relevant concept of quality in almost every communiqué released we become aware that, despite all the positive achievements towards academic similarities achieved (for instance the harmonization of the architecture of the European higher education, the implementation of ECTS system) that particular question is not consensual, due to the different educational realities towards the other countries that are felt by Portuguese teachers, when they go on a mobility process and our reality on the ground, due to the fact our tertiary education is stagnated for the past 20 years and so it doesn't possess strong and solid academic foundations as the signatories of the 1998's Sorbonne Communiqué which set the roots for what later would be the EHEA (European Higher Education Area), as is the Portuguese case.

BACKGROUND
We'll try to make a parallel, between the purpose of tertiary education as far as teaching is concerned, how it was first intended to be a comparing them with some important historic events whose repercussions also changed the way people of different eras view politics, such as the different notions of Troika all along the history during the times of the Soviet Union, passing by the US with Reagan and beyond, in 2010 in Europe with the financial rescuing operation we are involved in todays' actuality.

The same procedure will be used to characterize learning and the swift on learners' attitudes that were of an undeniable importance in the scope of higher education, and what are the students' perceptions in the present times.

Again, I'll focus my analysis on a another comparison using an historic event, this time a symbol of Greek mythology – the Trojan Horse –whose repercussions also changed the way people view the dominant reality, but referring to learning evolution, and the learning outcomes.

METHOD

Finally taking differences and similarities into account, we will analyse the resulting implications for teaching and learning in Portugal - they were, firstly seen as something very interesting to foster Higher Education in Europe, with some given proof of the above mentioned achievements - but whose feasibility is often being questioned not only by Portuguese teachers, but mainly by our students who are already feeling that the changes preconized where somehow been misleading, as far as quality standards as well as foreign languages are concerned, as they don't see their reduction as a positive achievement and they are already claiming some changes.

We will analyse all the Communiqués that have been issued all along these years and we will focus on the positive and negative impact it has been having on European Higher Education particularly in Portuguese Polytechnic Schools.

Key words: Portuguese High School, standardization, quality parameters, students, teachers, Communiqués EHEA

The focus on the present paper will be to assess in what extent the different declarations and communiqués issued all along these 15 "Bologna years", from the end 90's until Bucharest Communiqué (2012), that took stock of the achievements and laid out the priorities for the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) for the next decade, emphasized, as an underlying implication, there was urgent need to "ensure quality" in higher education, because there was a double mission to accomplish – unifying it in Europe, being internationalization the setting motto, turning mobility into a surplus value, crucial for the different parties involved: students, teachers and administrative staff.

That's the reason lying behind the comparison of Bologna with the Troika - a group composed of important personalities who were gathered with a managing purpose, and were responsible for deliberating important achievements throughout history.
My first assumption will be devoted to the first implicates of learning – students – and to the effects the successive reforms in terms of impact on foreign languages (FL) are having and will have in their future linguistic performance, if changes won't be taken rapidly.

Furthermore in my second assumption, I'll draw the attention to the notion of quality, a transversal word underlying all these declarations, principles and communiqués, but whose meaning ,in some cases, it is not so evident, because is quality referring to the teaching staff, simply to teaching or learning outcomes?
My first question is, if higher education must ensure quality, to rely on it shouldn't the requirements be the same in terms of formation and qualification of all the teaching staff, that means shouldn't it be standardized for the sake of assuring it? Did the different committees in charge of making the Bologna adaptation and implementation realize that learning conditions stages weren't the same in all the countries which subscribe them?

My point of view is that there has been an adverse impact for FL students due to the fact that FL exposure and learning cycles have been reduced, with immediate negative outcomes, because the majority of them comes from secondary level being "linguistic, culturally and life immature", as they are not yet possessing an acceptable conceptual basis that would provide them with the appropriate tools (c.f. Pereira 2007), even though they are getting in touch and researching experimental or project working components (c.f. Decreto-Lei 107/2008, Art. n.º 13, n.º 4) that would provide them with the transversal competences decisive to cope confidently with the future multiple professional and labor realities they'll have to deal with. This situation would be the perfect one, in an ideal scenario, but the reality proves a different picture.

Most of the times students come to high schools lacking the cultural, interpersonal and economic dimensions of knowledge (Esteves, 2007), capable of making citizens socially complete, in the sense of knowing how to be, to have and how to do, the tasks they are asked to do, that would give them the necessary and progressive autonomy, by being flexible and having the critical power necessary to be successful when performing a job (Stoer & Magalhães, 2009). Those transferable competences so *a la mode* in the labor market as indispensable skills such as problem solving, flexibility, agility and mental alertness, team work cooperation with a team and entrepreneurship, among others, would be the characteristics that would prepare them to be in the future full integrated members in the labor market as well as would enable them in advance to mobility, so that they could finally be proactive citizens with an accurate sense of citizenship.

Because mobility is not tourism, once students are enrolled in it, they must have an underlying background of acquired skills/abilities to perform in a different academic environment that is going to function as the necessary leverage to perform professionally, first in Europe, and hopefully around the world.

To achieve this it is hoped students also need to be able to intercommunicate (c.f. Coste, Moore and Zarate, 2009, Council of Europe). But due to the lack of maturity I wonder if in a more globalized yet demanding and challenging world, entrepreneurial business companies would offer them an immediate job at that age. Probably only a part would be ready to perform it adequately, if during their mobility they have proven to be able to be citizens of the world.

Students themselves recognize that classroom time has been reduced as well as the duration of the degree, and students from the night shift mainly working students are complaining about the lack of time to study and even to be with their family (c.f. Ardions, 2011).

The point is that during the successive adaptation and implementation of reforms and resolutions the various committees didn’t realize that learning and teaching development stages and conditions were different in every country, concerning tertiary education, once there were asymmetries.

Especially in the case of Portugal we should stick to the preservation of some of our distinctive features and specificities, so that we could be more competitive in the future. In a modest and humble comparative analysis in the setting up of the basis to European Union (EU) it can draw a parallel between these crucial setting points not only in terms of politics, but also in educational purposes.

In the one side European rich countries by their prevalent status continued to dictate the rules, by having developed solid economic structures which influenced and projected their rules and particular points of view in terms of educational policies.
On the other side the poor ones haven't had the revendicative power to stand for their position and their weaknesses have been maintained. Competition among them would be fierce and difficult to be solved.

In an ideal ambiance teachers would swift form final to continuous assessment, which implied more work and dedication, due to the introduction of individual assignments and project work, but the number of students by classroom would be reduced in order to foster autonomous learning. So, the teacher's role was of a facilitator inducing the path students had to go through.

With the diminution of contact hours and with the inestimable help on line courses and platforms, teachers would be beneficiaries, of a better teaching with a consequent improvement of learning by the rise of this new student model.
Nevertheless, it was easily put on paper, and there are undeniable advantages, such as the mobility of incoming and outgoing population, but it has been rather difficult to implement due to the adverse conditions that we began to experience, a few years ago, such as economic restraints which questions the present feasibility of the overall project, precisely on account of the local and regional idiosyncrasies and specificities of some countries as Portugal, there weren't conveniently defended.

However not all the domains of knowledge accepted Bologna impositions, namely some specific areas related to health sciences, medicine and pharmacy, as I'll explain later on. To foster quality in higher education, teachers had to be enrolled in PhD programs up to 2014/15 to achieve carrier progress, but for being effectively part of the school board there was the need to allocate more funds, once the smashing majority of tertiary polytechnic teachers has got a provisional contract renewed every two or three years. But for those who already have finished their academic formation, their economic situation hasn't changed at all because there is no career progression for the past 15 years.

It is precisely when teachers began going on mobility that they have been aware and to took consciousness that in some European countries the rules for career progression were different, as well as teaching methods.

In Belgium, a country which receives and sends teachers in mobility programs, for instance, their high school teachers are not compelled to enroll in PhD programs, and after a certain time of teaching in the university their bond with the institution becomes definitive and constitutes a reality.

In Spain high education teachers "are rewarded" for their academic production (c.f. *la sextina*). If they achieve a certain number of considered relevant publications, they have pecuniary incentives, as well as they may progress in the career.
In Portugal the situation is completely different. Teachers may be all their entire teaching life in a precarious professional situation, even though their already possess complementary academic formation, such as PhD or post PhD.
Furthermore they need to attend regular scientific meetings, conferences, seminars, and present continuous actualized research based on regular publication of articles. But in Belgium teachers don't do it so often or they rarely attend those events. In Turkey, another country where I've been in mobility, the situation is not a very different one form the above mentioned one.

So if the standards have been different for each country, why was the keynote purpose to be "more compatible and comparable, more competitive to match the performance of the best performing systems in the world"? (http://ec.europa.eu/education/higher-education/bologna_en.htm).

I'm strongly persuaded that Bologna represents an unprecedented innovative challenge for higher Education after the successive meetings held in Belgium (2009), Budapest and Vienna (2010) and recently in Bucharest (2012) where the Ministers identified three key priorities:

- mobility,
- employability and quality, and
- emphasised the importance of higher education for Europe's capacity to deal with the economic crisis and to contribute to growth and jobs.

By today's standards, teachers's, administrative staff mobility and students means:

- not confine oneself to the language learning of that specific country where you are going;
- be willing to learn other languages and cultures besides English;
- acquire intercommunication and intercultural competences;
- not take it for granted the new culture one has just been exposed;
- use it as an professional asset;
- be prepared to share new ideas, concepts, new intercommunication/intercultural experiences;
- be flexible, and open minded.

In order to survive it is important to master these principles and to use these and other new emerging languages for internationalization. Without them probably it won't be at ease to cope with life in a globalized, but culturally idiosyncratic world.

I strongly believe that this *revolution*, as far as the Portuguese educational context is concerned, besides of being a way of choosing" from a wide and transparent range of high quality courses and benefit from smooth recognition procedures", has been a way of finding financial support by our higher education institutions, in response to the successive and continuous budget cuts. Soromenho Marques (2012) goes even further in his detailed analysis of Portuguese high schools reality referring to the "university bankruptcy".

By shortening study cycles and thus providing degrees with a large spectrum purpose, students had to pay for more detailed tailor made specific further academic formation.
Also due to the economic conjuncture some of the qualified teachers stopped cooperating with high schools, because their contracts weren't renovated so, there were reduction of teaching staff which inevitably led to:

- an overload of working hours to the remaining teachers (c.f. Ardions 2011);
- a constant the rise in the number of students per classroom, which is strongly the opposite of the origins and setting up of the EHEA principles;
- quality assurance is, in some cases, endangered because there are teachers who don't possess the necessary academic qualifications to teach some of the curricular units;

For all the above mentioned reasons I consider some of these changes like a *Trojan Horse*, as it seems like a subterfuge Portuguese authorities used to bypass the financial strangling of our tertiary institutions, and a way to disguise reality, the same way Greeks used to enter the city of Troy and end the conflict.

The proof is that it were exactly those courses which stood firmly against changes (areas of Health Sciences, Medicine and Pharmacy) and those which were created and implemented in the Bologna framework but with minor curricular changes (ESEIG's Hospitality Management course), that achieving better grades and results.

It is Moravec (2008) conviction that the high school of Knowledge Society will only fulfill its aims if it will be opened to society and he quotes Inayatullah (2008, p. 215) who defends a ―*university without walls – the entire world becomes a university*. To have a university without walls is dream come true, a utopia, but to become a part of this dream in either of both sides – as teachers and learners – there should be given the material conditions to achieve that aim. And that means to have more exposure to FL in order to be able to work anywhere, doing anything, but performing it well enough.

Readers may think this analysis constitutes a pessimistic point of view of a teacher who is probably resilient to change, but this opinion is shared by other colleagues, of different scientific areas who corroborate that students' results have been decreasing for the passing years, and manly those particular students who were caught in between the pre and the post Bologna, are more aware and sensitive to of this state of affairs (c.f Ardions, 2011).

Moreover students themselves recognize that classroom time has been reduced as well as the duration of the degree, and those who come at the night shift mainly working students are complaining about the lack of time to study and even to be with their family (c.f. Ardions, 2011).

So my closing question is: despite all the advantages (mobility, curriculum internationalization, lifelong learning, world citizenship) was it really worthwhile, for all the countries have been progressively involved, or manly for the first which subscribed the Sorbonne's joint declaration?

My answer based on the above analysis is that, especially in the three last years, it has been difficult to overcome all the difficulties that have been pointed out successfully as Portugal, for instance doesn't possess so many resources as the rest of European countries, due to its idiosyncrasies and economic constraints. So both learning and teaching conditions became harder, unfair and all this has been nothing but a cosmetic make over, which is conducting all those who are directly on the ground demotivated because it changed for worse time consuming never ending academic a and bureaucratic tasks.

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ESP learning dynamics and the legitimacy of testing tools towards an effective learning assessment in the context of Bologna

Abstract

This paper ensues from work developed earlier on matters which have become ever more relevant with the introduction and adaptation to the Bologna process. In the context of Bologna and ESP, such matters include (re)designing learning materials in conciliation with learners' objectives and needs, especially regarding the introduction, acquisition and control of specialized vocabulary in the fields of Accounting, Management, Finance, and Taxation, in addition to delineating and enhancing testing tools that might effectively contribute to a more accurate and valuable learning assessment. Competency in ESP acquisition lies at the core of the need to prove the legitimacy of testing tools as to result in effective learning assessment and in the actual command of 'technical' vocabulary in the areas of expertise of future (international) businesspeople.

After reviewing the theoretical implications underlying ESP teaching, namely the discussion surrounding the (dis)advantages of compiling specialized corpora in the context of Business English (BE) classes, we engage in the discussion and analysis of the results obtained by Business English intermediate students at the Lisbon School of Accounting and Administration. This study entailed teaching specialized vocabulary and focussing on testing tools and their legitimacy. There were three distinct assessment periods using three different testing tools, involving term reproduction, and oral and written production. Fine-proofing testing tools have proved fundamental to prevent continuous assessment from becoming an underrated synonym to an instantaneous if elusive passing mark. We wish to discuss the varied exercise typology and testing tools in the perspective of more effective ESP teaching.

Keywords: ESP teaching, testing tools, specialized corpora.

Introduction

The Bologna process and its introduction at a European higher education level represent an unmistakable case in point of all-encompassing educational policies moulded by a cluster of governmental, educational and cultural entities. Its dictates lead towards the adoption of standardized curricula and assessment frameworks whose purposes, we believe, include the construct of more identical practices and the increase of transparency among higher education systems in an evermore globalised world. This decade-evolving globalised world has conducted to inescapable changes in the way the individual perceives the world and has transformed local into global phenomena. Globalisation, if acknowledged fundamentally as an economic prodigy, must also be recognised as an inescapable barrier-removing event that necessarily transforms the individual's participation in the world; thus the enhanced need for linguistic common ground in which particular the English language has played an indisputable role: '[...] English has become the *lingua franca* of international business, indisputably favoured to communicate in, and conduct affairs in business-related contexts in which participants do not share a mother tongue' (Ferro & Carvalho, 2009).

The fast-growing importance of English as a vehicular language in terms of business communication worldwide has incremented the part that courses of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) play in the undergraduate curricula of business courses in Portugal. Regarding this matter in particular, the adaptation of the curriculum to the Bologna Process at the Lisbon School of Accounting and Administration has fostered the revival of the discussion surrounding the teaching and learning of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and provided a good opportunity to (re)think and (re)design learning materials taking into consideration learners' necessities and aims. Furthermore, we wish to extend the debate to testing tools and the challenge it constitutes to appropriately assess second-language learners in the context of norm-referenced approaches and criterion-referenced approaches (McNamara, 2010, 2012).

This paper proves three-folded: firstly we will consider the theoretical implications underlying ESP teaching, including the benefits or shortcomings of compiling specialized corpora in BE classes; secondly there will be room for the contemplation of the arguments relating to language assessment; thirdly, we will finally focus on the study conducted with Business English intermediate students, concentrating on the results obtained at three different moments of continuous assessment. These results demonstrate the relevance of language assessment and all the more, the need to fine-proofing testing tools so as to achieve meaningful and earnest results that can effect in proficient business professionals, able to communicate efficiently in English.

ESP teaching

Hutchinson and Waters or Dudley-Evans and St John argue a clear distinction between General English and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as far as language teaching is concerned (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). A new focus on the learner's needs and objectives or centeredness on specific vocabulary and language constitute examples of the grounds for the appearance of ESP separate from General English (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). It is reasonable to assume that the BE classes taught in the context of the degrees in Accounting, Management, Taxation and Finance at the Lisbon School of Accounting and Administration fall right under the definition of ESP teaching – the teaching of specialized vocabulary to serve the (professional) needs and aims of our students as prospective international businessmen stands as a primary concern (Ferro and Carvalho, 2008).

The identification of specialized vocabulary may result from making usage of the know-how and perception of an expert in the proposed field of expertise or using a corpus and comparing word frequencies in a technical text with word frequencies in a non-technical one (Chung and Nation, 2003). As far as the compilation of a corpus is concerned, we agree that resorting to authentic material will add worth and efficacy: '[...] we will greatly benefit from collecting a specialized corpus we can later refer to when selecting texts or designing exercises' (Cotter, 2006).

The development of passive vocabulary is regarded as a key aspect in the sense that the students' future professional needs primarily include the ability to fully comprehend material written in English in scope of their area of expertise. Notwithstanding, the production of written material in English is not to be neglected either as this will most likely be a requirement in their professional performance.

Lewis (1993, 1997) proposes the Lexical Approach, which emphasizes the significance of treating language as 'grammaticalised lexis' rather than 'lexicalized grammar', i.e., grammar builds from vocabulary (Ferro and Carvalho, 2008).

The pervasiveness of English in an increasingly globalised world, in which communication and business are for the most part conducted in English (Seidlhofer, 2005; Crystal, 2003), deems necessary for our business students to achieve a fair command of the language so as to be competitive in the present business world.

Language assessment

The English language has conspicuously developed into the indisputable means of communication among people in the different contexts of a globalised world – as a linguistic common ground, English as been acknowledged as the language of international communication or vehicular language. In international settings it is expected that '[...] communication in the globalized workplace takes place using English as a lingua franca' (McNamara, 2010).

As mentioned previously, in view of the pervasiveness of the English language in international business settings, most business courses in Portugal have come to include BE classes that will allow their students to obtain a fair command of the language thus obtaining leverage in the international business world. Language assessment is an important part of language education; broadly considered, it allows for a relatively objective demonstration of progress in performance by the learners. However, as far as language assessment is currently concerned, progress is measured in accordance with standards set and required to be met at an almost global scale, an aspect that is arguably subject to governmental and policy pressures: 'Language assessment, as we are increasingly realizing, is first and foremost a social and political activity (Spolsky, 1995; Shohamy, 2001, 2006; McNamara e Roever, 2006)' (McNamara, 2010). McNamara (2010, 2012) argues that learning outcomes, standards and frameworks designed in an all-encompassing fashion tend to have a pernicious effect on language education and language assessment as this universal dimension neglects the historical, cultural and social particularities and specificities of individual language learners, including the use of English as a *lingua franca*.

In terms of language assessment, up to a point, current criterion-referenced approaches oppose previously-held norm-referenced approaches. In a norm-referenced approach, performance is assessed in comparison to the performance of the test-taking group, i.e., the individual test score is contrasted with group test scores; performance is assessed within the relative universe constituted by the group of test takers. Conversely, in criterion-referenced approaches, performance is assessed in terms of pre-established, quasi-universal standards; a case in point is the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR: Council of Europe, 2001), the widely-held framework for language assessment in Europe (and worldwide) (McNamara, 2010). The criticism to be made, according to McNamara (2012), relates to the fact that performance and achievement are considered in respect to native speakers of English hence disregarding and overlooking non-native speakers and second-language learners who constitute a substantial portion of current users of English:

> The crucial issue here is how achievement is defined. Traditionally it is defined in reference to the educated native speaker of Standard English. But the majority of users of English in the contemporary world are non-native speakers using the language as a lingua franca. So the question is how far the constructs articulated in standards for English language proficiency reflect, or can reflect, the insights into the nature of communication represented by research on English as a lingua franca (McNamara, 2012: 199).

McNamara makes an important point as far as language education and language assessment are perceived and constructed these days. The standardization of learning outcomes, the empowerment native speakers of English, the widely-spread use of English by non-native speakers and the development of English as a *lingua franca* have given birth to a number of aspects that should be considered in the discussion surrounding language education and hence language assessment. Indisputable, we believe, is the value of having a fair command of the English language as a way to communicate and succeed in a globalised (business) world.

Fine-proofing testing tools: analysing results

Following the introduction of the Bologna Process and the subsequent restructuring of the curriculum, which created an opportunity to re-think and re-design class material and approaches, language performance and testing also benefited from new practices and methodologies. Continuous assessment has been granted an elementary role in the assessment of performance and progress, which we believe to be more accommodating of the specificities of language learning and assessing.

In the particular case of the BE classes lectured at the Lisbon School of Accounting and Administration in the degrees of Accounting, Management, Taxation and Finance, continuous assessment proved an able measure of attaining greater success among the learners of Business English; the overall scores and outcomes obtained through continuous assessment overcame the results obtained formerly with the final test method and resulted in a very positive conclusion with a high margin of passing students.

Although the average number of passing students at the BE classes of the past two years has increased greatly, largely due to the adoption of continuous assessment in preference to one final test, it has, however, come to our attention what seems an alarming incongruence in the test scores the students achieve in the first and second tests and then the oral presentation. It is, therefore, of great relevance to analyse these test scores and the oral presentation scores and discuss the reliability and worthiness of the testing tools in use so as to shed light on and correct the elusive (or non-elusive) quality of these passing marks.

To serve the aforementioned purpose, we have thus decided to conduct a study which comprised a two-year period, the academic years 2010-2011 and 2011-2012, both winter and spring terms, and considered a pool of about 400 students that make up the four groups of intermediate students attending BE classes in the context of the degrees in Accounting, Management, Taxation and Finance at the Lisbon School of Accounting and Administration. Since the definite adoption of continuous assessment as far as BE classes are concerned, the assessment methods employed are as follows: throughout the academic term, students are subjected to three moments of formal assessment in the form of two tests and an oral presentation. These testing tools are designed to assess the learner's ability and performance in the four basic skills of speaking, writing, listening, and reading, including specifically vocabulary and grammar testing but also discourse and sociolinguistics. Each element is awarded a distinct weight set accordingly to the degree of difficulty attributed to each element – the first test is worth 25%, the second test is worth 40%, and the oral presentation is worth 25% of the final mark. Class work accounts for the remaining 10% of the passing mark.

For the purpose of the study, we considered that the subject groups were fairly homogenous in their intermediate level and background knowledge of English as a second language, comprised of a relatively even number of female and male constituents, and each two groups attended BE classes for Accounting, BE classes for Management, BE classes for Finance and BE classes for Taxation. These four categories of BE classes share the number of teaching hours per week (three hours per week), are directed at 3rd year students, but differ in the syllabus (adapted to the different needs and objectives of learners taking the different degrees) and in the fact that BE classes for Accounting and for Management are a compulsory part of the degree and take place in the winter term, and BE classes for Finance and Taxation are optional classes that occur in the spring term. The difference in compulsory or optional classes justifies the uneven number of students taking the subject in Accounting and Management, and Finance and Taxation but this does not compromise the validity of the present study.

For the past two years we have invested on the standardization of the testing tools we use to assess the performance and progress of our students in BE classes, regardless of the degree they are taking, as we expect this measure to yield less biased and, more importantly, more comparable results that will help us improve our assessment methods and tools.

To serve the purpose at hand, we have decide to take into consideration the scores of the first and second tests, as well as the results obtained in the oral presentation, and have distributed the results in the following manner: we have separated between two different time periods, the academic year 2010-2011 and the academic year 2011-2012, and the winter term and the spring term have been considered as two units, which means that the groups of Accounting and Management are considered as one, corresponding to the winter term, and the groups of Finance and Taxation are considered as the other group, corresponding to the spring term.

The effort in the standardisation of the testing tools applied to the different BE classes has resulted in equivalent tests from one year to the next, differentiated in degrees of difficulty depending on whether it is test 1 or 2 or the oral presentation – test 1 is considered more uncomplicated and shorter in length with a strong emphasis on vocabulary and grammar through a fill-in the blanks exercise or multiple choice exercises; test 2 presents a greater degree of difficulty and length, and the students are required to demonstrate text and statement comprehension through a true or false exercise and open-answer questions, knowledge of grammar, again through a fill-in the blanks exercise and competence in writing as required in the last part of the test through an essay. Examples of the type of exercises used in tests 1 and 2 ensue:

Test 1 – 2010-2012

Circle the correct answer. Only one answer is possible. (12 points)

1) In his work, Frederick Herzberg argued that some of the conditions we would normally think motivate workers, in fact do not, while others do. He argues that where they do not exist, money and job security work foremostly as:
   a) "Dismotivators";
   b) "Satisfiers";
   c) "Motivators";
   d) "Dissatisfiers".

Test 1 – 2011-2012

FILL IN THE BLANKS: Complete the sentences with the appropriate verb tense. Use Present Simple, Present Continuous, Past Simple, Past Continuous, Past Perfect, and Past Perfect Continuous. <u>DO NOT USE CONTRACTIONS</u>. (4.5 points)

While the presentation of the new financial product 5. ___________ (take) place, the bank workers who 6. ___________ (be) fired the previous week, demonstrated outside the presentation room as a protest.

Test 2 – 2010-211

Part I. Reading comprehension. (6 points)

Read the text and answer the following questions <u>in your own words</u>:

1. What is the paradox referred to in beginning of the text as far as leadership is concerned?

Part IV. Grammar. (2.5 points)

Complete the sentences with the appropriate verb tense.

What 1. __________ (you/do) this morning when I called? No one answered the phone.

After discussing important aspects of the business with his partners, John 2. __________ (always/go) to his wife and 3. __________ (ask) for her opinion too.

Test 2 – 2011-2012

Part I. Reading comprehension.

A. Read the text and decide if the following statements are TRUE or FALSE. (3 points)

2. To help the Eurozone with the crisis, the European Central Bank is going to cut interest rates.

Part IV. Essay. (4.4 points)

Write a short essay (about 125 words) on one of the following topics.

1. “"It is becoming increasingly apparent that the region is sliding back into recession. The crisis has affected business and consumer confidence at the same time as austerity measures are reducing demand in many countries."” Comment.

During the past two years, the oral presentation has also developed into a standardised exercise which is expected to respect and follow pre-determined criteria while focusing on the listening and speaking skills of the students.

As stated before, the adoption of continuous assessment as the preferred method to evaluate the performance of students and the progress they display in their language skills from one level to the next has resulted in a very positive average of passing students. Indisputably a very satisfactory conclusion, at least as far as results are concerned, is our primary concern that the challenge posed by a proper measuring of our students’ performance and development is being accurately met and, very importantly, to ensure that the testing tools in use are suitable and correctly certify the skills developed by these students. In order to achieve a satisfactory validation of these testing tools, we have deemed necessary to compare and analyse the results obtained throughout these two past academic years.

For the purpose of this paper, we have decided to consider only the students that have followed through to the end the continuous assessment, which means they have taken the two tests, presented the paper and obtained a minimum attendance rate in class. Also, we will observe the differences in test scores, which show a more significant variation.

In the winter term of 2010-2011, the group constituted by the students of Accounting and Management obtained the following results:

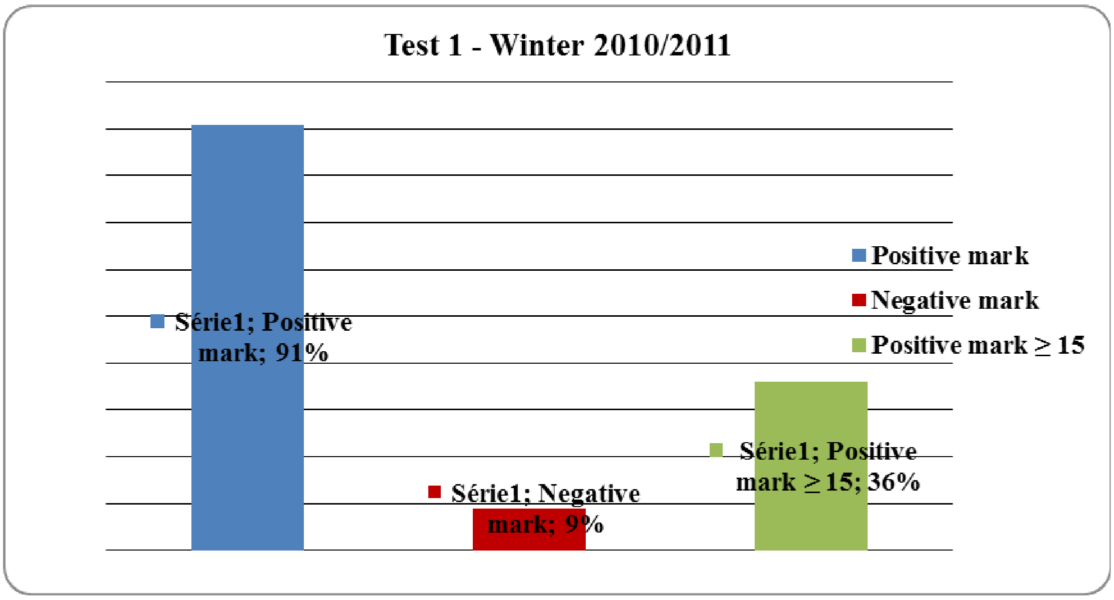

Table 1: Test 1 - Winter term 2010/2011

In the first test 91% of the students obtained a positive mark with only 9% failing the test. Moreover, 36% of students achieved passing marks greater than or equal to 15, which can already be considered a rather solid mark if we regard the scale between 1 and 20.

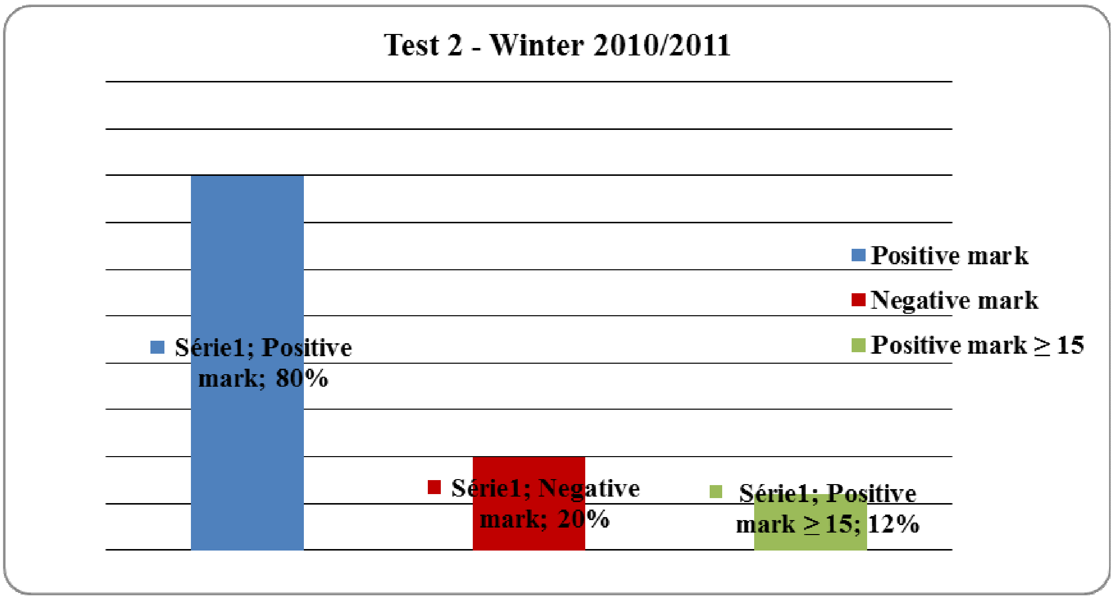

Table 2: Test 2 - Winter term 2010/2011

The outlook changes in a somewhat considerable way when we consider the results of test 2 – although the positive marks are still dominant, we can see that the failing marks have doubled and the marks greater than or equal to 15 have dropped to a third when compared to the results in the first test.

In the spring term of 2010-2011 we can observe the results of the group of Finance and Taxation students:

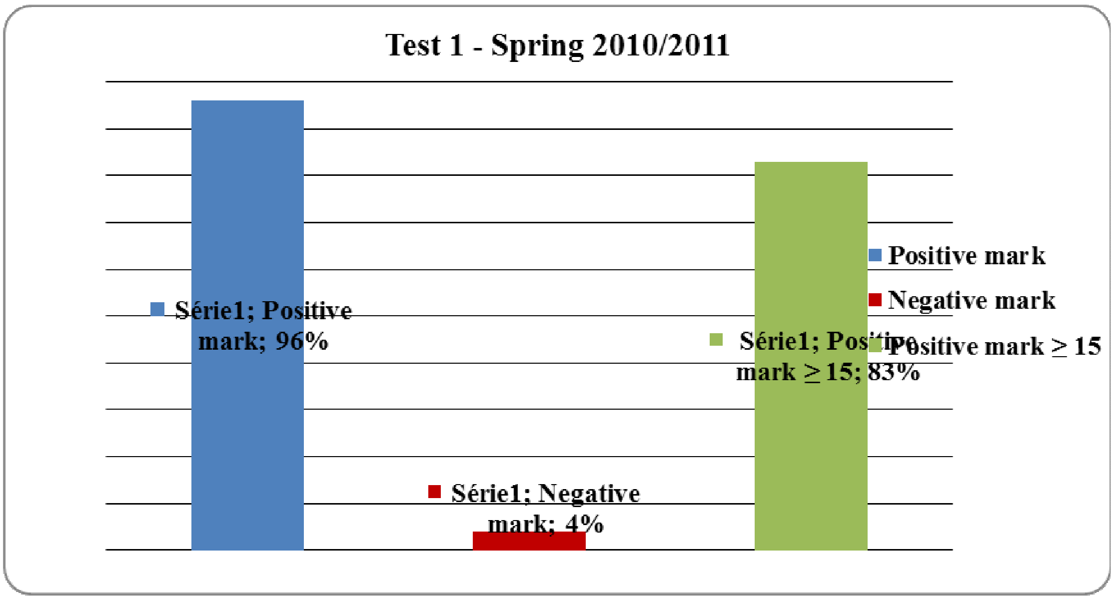

Table 3: Test 1 - Spring term 2010/2011

We notice the repetition of very positive results in the first test with 96% of students achieving a passing mark in opposition to only 4% with a negative mark. What is striking in this first test is the fact that 83% of students have obtained a mark greater than or equal to 15.

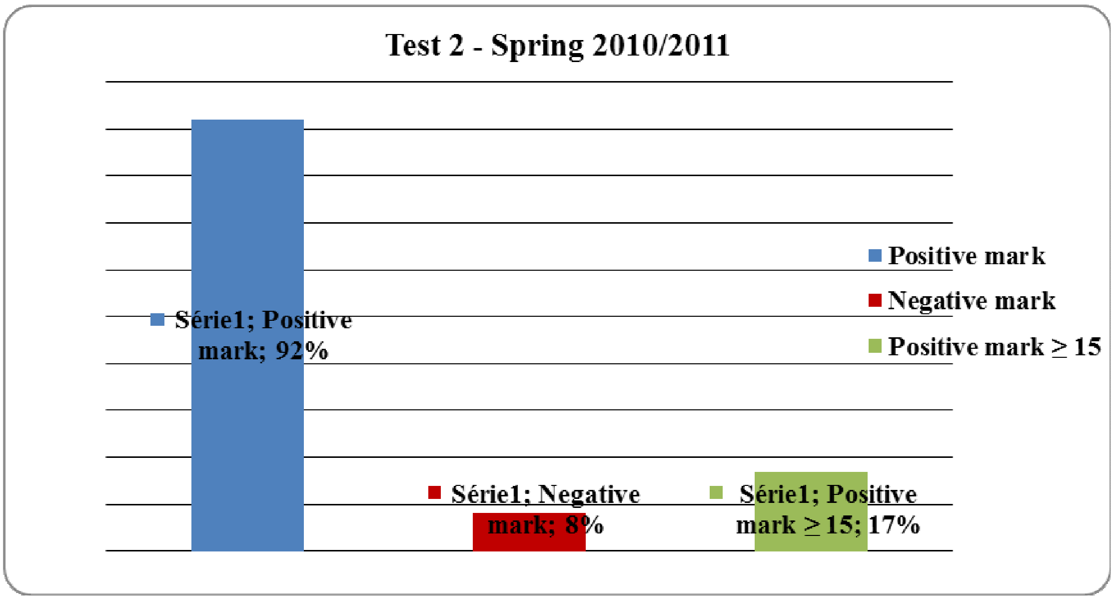

Table 4: Test 2 - Spring term 2010/2011

The test scores of the second test contrast greatly with the test scores of the first test not so much in the average of passing marks, which remains very high, but the negative marks have doubled, as was the case with the first group of Accounting and Management, and first and foremost, the marks greater than and equal to 15 have plummeted to 17%.

In the following academic year 2011-2012, the test scores show a very similar outlook. In the winter term, the test scores of the second group of Accounting and Management follow the trend displayed by the first group in the previous academic year:

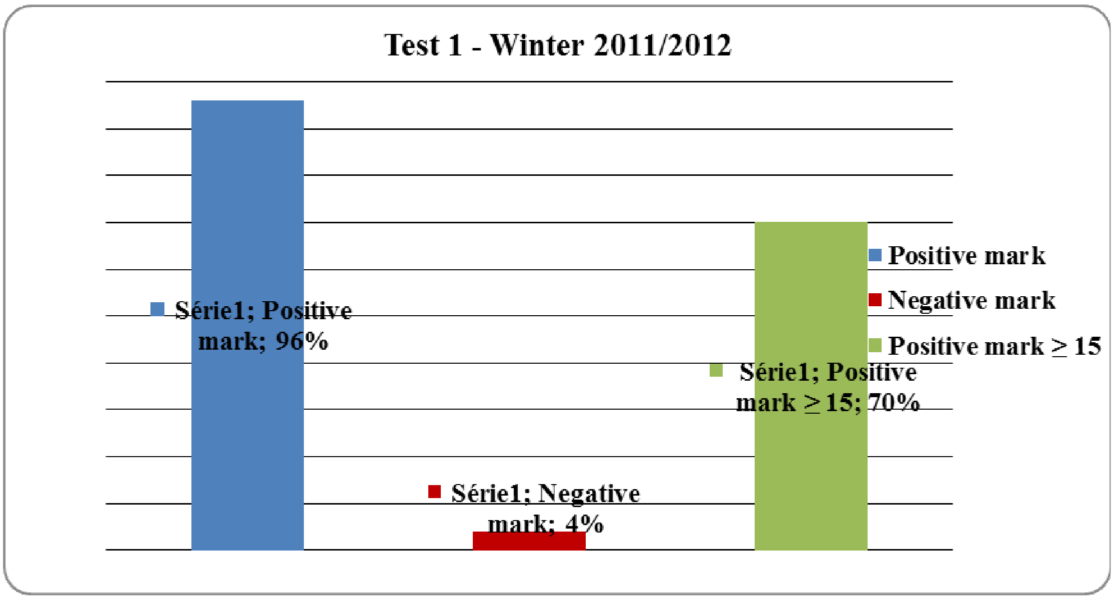

Table 5: Test 1 - Winter term 2011/2012

In the first test the positive marks rocketed reaching 96% and only 4% of negative marks. Again it is astonishing that 70% of the students achieved a passing mark greater than or equal to 15 in this first assessment.

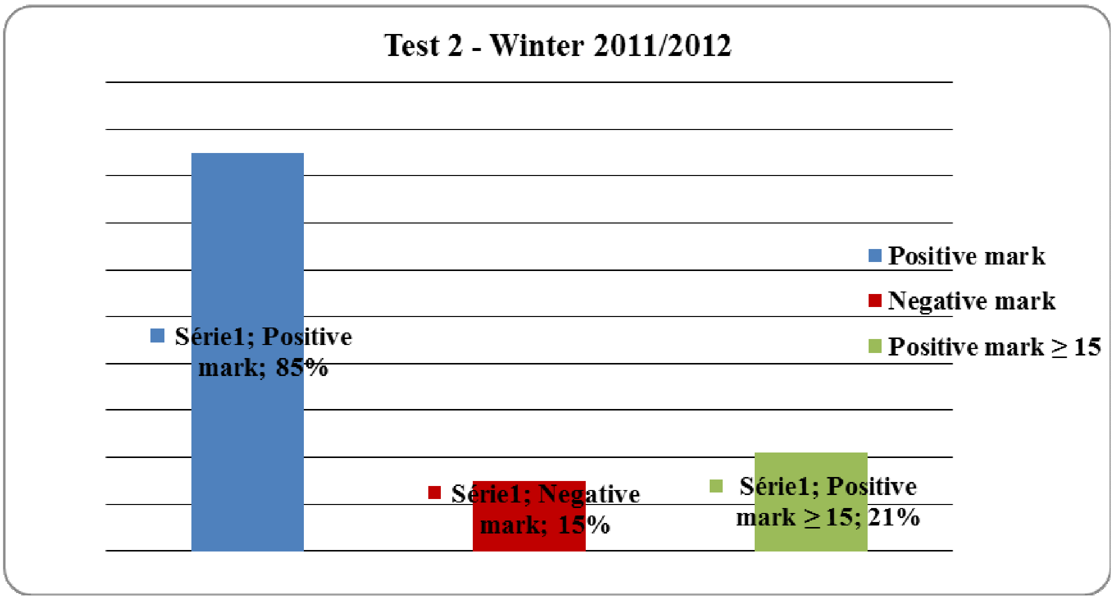

Table 6: Test 2 - Winter term 2011/2012

Similarly to the trend exhibited in the previous academic year, the percentage of passing marks remained very high at 85% but in the second test the percentage of negative marks almost quadrupled. The greatest difference in test scores between the first and the second test is again in the percentage of students that achieved a mark greater than or equal to 15 – in the first test the percentage was 70% while in the second test it dropped dramatically to 21%.

In the spring term 2011-2012 the test scores of the second group of Finance and Taxation confirm the trend exhibited previously:

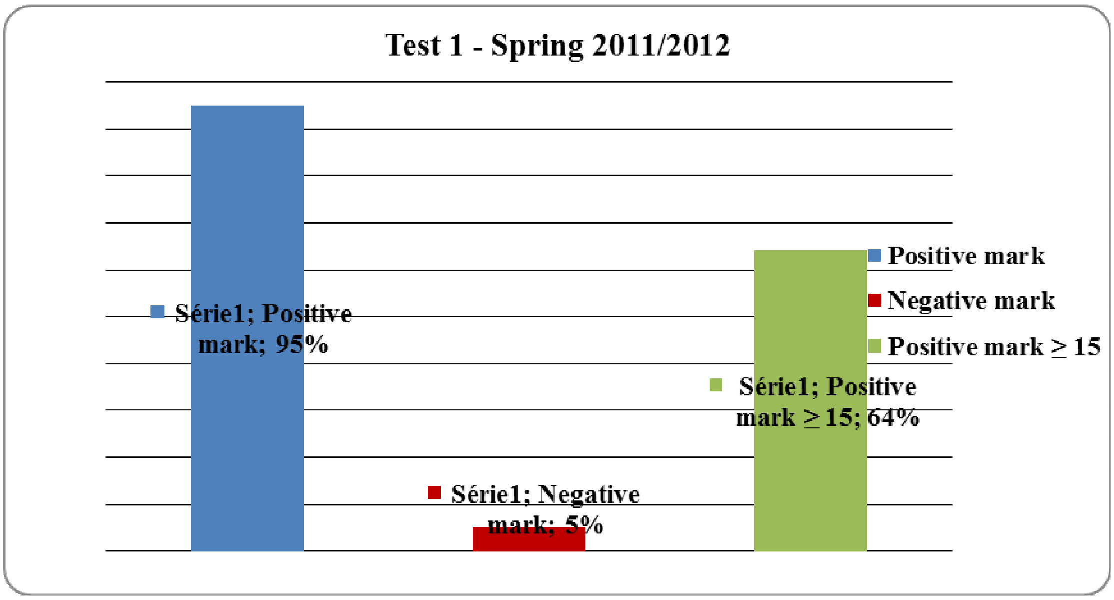

Table 7: Test 1 - Spring term 2011/2012

The percentage of students with passing marks is extremely high, 95%, close to the maximum score, and the percentage of students with marks greater than and equal to 15 is also high standing at 64%.

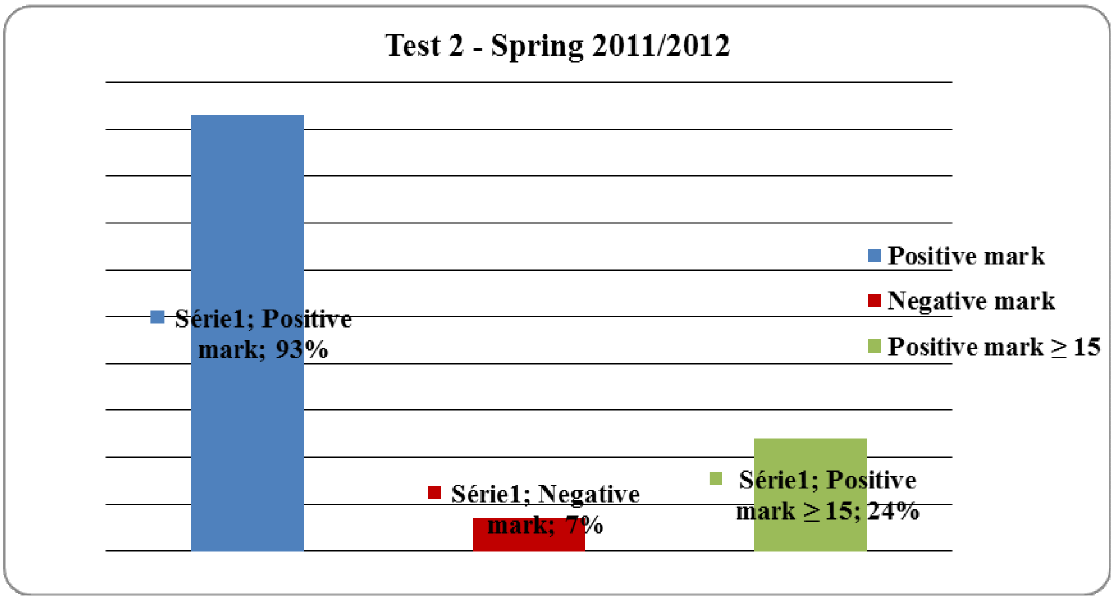

Table 8: Test 2 - Spring term 2011/2012

The test scores of the second group confirm what had been observed in the test scores of the previous 3 groups – the percentage of positive marks remained high at 93%, the percentage of negative marks increased (although slightly in this group), but the most significant difference is again in the percentage of positive marks greater than or equal to 15 which again fell to less than the percentage achieved in the first test.

The results obtained with the study seem to suggest a noteworthy discrepancy in the degree of difficulty between test 1 and test 2 – students have performed quite positively in both test 1 and 2 as the percentage of passing students does not change too significantly from one to the other and the progress is amply substantiated by the high percentage of passing students. However, it is remarkable how the students' marks drop from test 1 to test 2. This seems to suggest that test 1 might require further research conducive to adjustments and calibration so that it becomes an appropriate and reliable testing tool.

Conclusions and further research

The conclusions withdrawn from the present study prove valuable for further research. As we immerse more and more into the directives of the Bologna Process and re-think and re-design our curricula, material and teaching methodologies to accommodate new teaching and learning strategies, we look to enforce a chief characteristic of ESP classes in the sense that in our BE classes our efforts are directed at our students' needs and aims in their prospective professional experience.

As we tried to demonstrate in the present paper, there are issues surrounding language assessment which are prone to debate; the creation of quasi-universal standards designed to assess performance and progress and that are to serve the whole of the teaching and learning community of language teachers and learners without considering, for instance, cultural differences, is due to produce discussions on the matter. Indisputably, however, the importance of language education and language assessment has been growing significantly as we contribute to the development of generations in an ever more globalised world in which English assumes a fundamental role as a *lingua franca*.

As ESP teachers, in our quest to make our contribution to this new perspective on language in the world a valid and reliable one, we find it fundamental to ensure that our students perform and progress accurately, in a trustworthy manner, and achieve proper and fair command of the English language. Language assessment plays a fundamental role in the achievement of this goal and research is conducive to improvement in the case of the testing tools we have been applying to measure our students' performance and progress. The conclusions withdrawn from this study contribute to our new understanding of exercise typology and testing tools so as to achieve a more exact, sensible and meticulous evaluation of students' progress.

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English language teaching and learning in a translator training programme in Spain: flexibility as a key to survival.

Abstract
The introduction of the Bologna process, among other upheavals caused to the higher education system in most of Europe, has necessarily brought about an important change in curriculum, syllabus and materials design, introducing a major focus on developing students' competence across a range of skills related to their possible future professions and to their life as responsible, socially competent citizens engaged in a life-long learning process. This requires cultural acceptance of their worthiness that, in turn, will lead to individual personal implication and involvement that need both time and an infrastructure that cannot be made available overnight and whose implementation may be hampered by lack of financial support and adequate provision of human resources. This paper addresses some of the issues involved in adapting English language syllabus and materials design in our translator training programme to the demands and philosophy of this new educational model.

La introducción tardía del Plan Bolonia en España ha ocasionado cambios importantes en la planificación de los estudios y en el diseño de materiales para la educación superior. Ha enfocado la enseñanza hacia el desarrollo de una amplia gama de competencias relacionadas con las posibles salidas profesionales de los estudiantes y con su vida como ciudadanos responsables y socialmente participativos, a quienes se les supone implicados en un proceso de aprendizaje a lo largo de la vida. Aunque, sobre papel, los objetivos del EEES son admirables y deseables, para llevarlos a cabo hace falta la aceptación cultural de su valía, y una implicación personal por parte de los ciudadanos. Cambios sociales de tal profundidad requieren tiempo y una infraestructura que no se puede construir de la noche a la mañana y su implantación se verá obstaculizada si no están provistos de la financiación y los recursos humanos adecuados. En este artículo examinaremos cómo algunos de estos temas pueden afectar

el diseño del programa y de los materiales para la materia *Lengua B inglés* en nuestros estudios universitarios en Traducción e Interpretación.

Introduction

The term 'syllabus' is variously used in pedagogical terms to describe a teaching and learning programme which may cover anything from an entire educational cycle comprising several years of study and linking different subjects across a curriculum or vertically structuring a progressive building of complexity in just one subject, to the content of a single subject or a single, self-contained teaching-learning module (Richards and Rogers, 1986). For purposes of clarity, in this paper we will refer to the design of an entire degree programme as 'curriculum', to the planning of a module of study as a 'syllabus' and to the creation of the content of that syllabus as 'materials design'.

English language syllabus design is habitually based on a structural-grammar core, which often contains a progression from simpler to more complex structures, and introduces a vocabulary drawn from corpus-based frequency data (words which appear more frequently in the language are introduced earlier, although this does not necessarily mean that they are more easily learnt in their full 'depth' (Read, 2004; Ishii and Schmitt, 2009). Commonly, this is built into theme or topic-based units which practise a range of skills, traditionally reading, writing, listening and speaking, which have now been sub-categorised and extended in the Council of Europe's *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Teaching, Learning, Assessment* (CEFR) to include written expression, written interaction, spoken expression, spoken interaction and audiovisual comprehension. Today, practically all published English language course books take a communicative approach to the teaching and learning programme they present, with the prime focus on language as a tool for communication. However, it is also important to consider in the design of translator training programmes that grammatical precision is key to both successful and acceptable communication; in a curriculum where accurate terminology is central, an over-reliance on lexis for message transmission leading to students' failure to 'notice' grammar structures (Batstone, 1994), may be an undesirable side-effect.

The introduction of the Bologna process has necessarily brought about a major change in curriculum, syllabus and materials design in higher education by introducing a principle focus on developing students' competence across a range of skills related to their possible future professions and to their life as responsible, socially competent citizens engaged in a life-long learning process. Such goals may radically alter the educational philosophy in place in some of the signatory nations and their impact on syllabus and materials design has not been presented in a way that is clear or comprehensible to many university teachers. It is necessary for all stakeholders to view these goals as worthy objectives of tertiary education programmes before they can become committed to contributing to their realisation. This involves a cultural change which, by its very nature, cannot take place rapidly. Without in-service training and adequate funding, the process of change will be further hampered and will struggle to find acceptance among those most affected: students and teachers.

One of the underlying ideologies that gave rise to the Bologna process was the political desire for a unified education system that would allow comparability of higher education qualifications across Europe and would promote mobility throughout the EU, both for students during their degree programmes and later as qualified professionals who make up the workforce (Bologna Declaration, 1999; Tauch, 2004). However, if we consider that the process began in 1999, it can clearly be appreciated that the Europe for which the model was originally destined was patently different from the unbalanced and struggling union we have today. At that time, seeming prosperity, rapid economic growth and high levels of employment and consumerism indicated that the possibility for free movement for all citizens throughout Europe, both as students and as workers, was a realistic possibility rather than a utopian ideal. Today, in a vastly different political and socio-economic arena, we find that, in Spain, we are in the very first stages of implementing study programmes whose requirements in infrastructure and whose final outcomes are no longer linked to the society for which they were designed. The possibility of adapting them to meet those needs may be so hampered by the bureaucratic processes of national quality assurance agencies as to render initiating such a process, at best, daunting. In this climate of minimal funding and professional overload, it has mostly been left to university teachers to find their own way through the quagmire of new legislation and expectations in order to bring some kind of coherence and positive attitude to an ideal which, at the outset, may not have coincided with their educational culture or professional profile.

Over the last decade, it has become increasingly apparent that educational culture and the differences in values placed on the theory and practice of education cannot be changed by legislation alone (Huisman and Van der Wende, 2004: 355). Differences in degree systems persist: the undergraduate and master's degree cycle in Europe may take, for example, 3 + 2 years (France, Italy or Germany), 4 + 1 (Spain) or 3 + 1 (UK). Crucial to these policy decisions was the system in place prior to the Bologna agreement; in Spain, it would have been politically uncomfortable to change from the *licenciatura* (a four-year degree programme) to the new *grado* and claim this to be an equivalent if it only took three years to complete it, hence the 4 + 1 design for undergraduate and master's degrees. However, this has led to difficulties in enrolling students from other European countries on master's degree programmes because they do not have the required number of credits from their undergraduate programme to qualify for entry.

There are also marked differences in the expectations of tutors and evaluators across different cultures. In a presentation given at the Language Testing Forum (University of Warwick, 2011), Carol Sedgwick compared the approach to the research and writing of six MA theses from two European countries. She found that, depending on the cultural traditions of the educational settings, the requirements and guidance of tutors and the expectations and subsequent assessments of evaluators differed between educational cultures. The local contexts of the tutors constrained creation and writing, while the assessors were guided by the values of characteristics they perceived in repositories of academic work on the thesis topics, with these often coming from Anglophone publications.

Similarly, Green et al. (2002) identified a potential conflict between the global and local focus of the Bologna Declaration:

> The Declaration provided a common vision for change and suggested a clear set of goals and principles, leaving little ambiguity about why European universities

> should change or what direction those changes should take. The leadership challenge, then, is to translate the European agenda into a meaningful local one.

It is possible that the political implications of this challenge may have been too great a risk for some governments to take. The economic recession now taking place in several European countries provides a new scenario in which it is possible for state education departments to rapidly implement drastic changes to higher education systems, seemingly justified by economic necessity, but which may also harbour an underlying political agenda.

Additionally, in Spain, current unprecedentedly high levels of unemployment among young people (over 50% of 18-25 year-olds not in education are without work), combined with government cutbacks in more costly vocational training courses, has led to a huge rise in demand for university places. This has meant that in many degree programmes (especially those in Humanities and Social Sciences), students who in other circumstances and conditions would not have chosen this academic path in their lives, are struggling to find meaning and motivation in our classrooms. The situation is further complicated by the autonomous learning and small tutor group philosophy which is the corner-stone of the Bologna Declaration, but which cannot be implemented in our current socio-economic conditions due to lack of financing for such resources. These students find themselves in large groups, with little individual attention or feedback available from teachers, where demands are made on them to organise and structure their own study time and to be discerning about the sources they use as input for their academic development. For young people, from the so-called Generation Z, who were born in an era of mass information and technology and who are highly dependent on immediate feedback (of the type provided by all kinds of technology), on the easy and instant availability of second chances, and on an abundance of accessible information from multiple sources which all appear equally valid, these expectations are disjunct from their experience. The frustration this produces is also commonly shared by their teachers who find them at best inattentive, and at worst disrespectful. The possible consequences of this scenario become evident when we consider that student satisfaction is a key player in the quality assurance system on which the solvency and survival of degree programmes within the Bologna Process depends.

This is the panorama that currently faces many teachers and faculty managers in our higher education system; a situation that is not insurmountable if we employ creative thinking and flexibility in our approach, but which is compromised by the pressure of time that is required to carry out research and produce quality publications if we are to survive, maybe even prosper. In addressing some of these issues, we will focus on our own specific circumstance in adapting English language syllabus and materials design to the demands and philosophy of the new educational model set out in the Bologna process, for our translator training programme at the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting, Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria. At the same time, we will examine the impact of integration into the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) on the different groups involved and consider both the strengths and potential weaknesses that may be built into our syllabus design and which it will be necessary to address if we are to succeed in creating a study programme that provides adequate academic input, addresses professional and life skills, and drives forward the language learning and acquisition processes, at the same time as remaining manageable in terms of the extra demands placed on teaching staff.

Designing a syllabus based on competences

In an educational model based on competence and, consequently, the assessment of levels of competence, it is clearly essential to put forward a theoretical definition of what we understand by the term ‘competence’ in the different areas covered by a programme of study. To the contrary, we will be in danger of limiting ourselves to describing the tasks which we propose as either a route to knowledge acquisition (teaching) or as a measure of performance (testing), thus confusing the tasks themselves with the combination of underlying knowledge and implementation strategies necessary to carry them out. This lack of definition of terminology and imprecision in its use is one of the areas most in need of attention in the implementation of the Bologna Process in higher education in Spain.

The concept of ‘competence’ within the field of education has grown from the developments in research into language learning and acquisition. One of the earliest expressions of the concept of communicative competence in language teaching and learning can be found in Hymes’ (1971) attempt to distinguish two knowledge sets:

grammatical competence (the knowledge of the rules of a language) and sociolinguistic competence (the knowledge of the use of those rules). Widdowson (1978) continued to develop this idea with his description of the difference between 'usage' (knowledge of the linguistic system) and 'use' (ability to employ this knowledge in effective communication). Later, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) described communicative competence as grammatical competence (knowledge of the rules of grammar), sociolinguistic competence (knowledge of the rules of use and of discourse), strategic competence (knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies) and discourse competence (verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or insufficient competence). Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (1996) proposed a model of communicative language ability based on language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms and were the first to also take into account the way in which these various components intertact with each other and the context in which language use occurs. A later addition to our understanding of communicative competence is Chaloub Deville's (2003) proposal for an interactional competence model which includes 'ability – in language user – in context'.

Thus, the attempt to describe and define 'competence', in this case, language competence, has developed over time with contributions from different researchers who have built on each others' arguments to move forward in understanding and knowledge creation. Their work has also provided a theoretical base on which to construct language teaching and learning syllabuses. In a wider setting, it seems that Competence Based Education has used the differentiation of the ideas of 'knowing something' and knowing how to implement that knowledge to achieve certain goals or to carry out tasks. However, the theory of how these knowledge bases or sets are acquired, how they interact in the observable performance of tasks and how they may thus be taught and measured is not well-documented. Tiana et al. (2011) state that "Competences constitute a kind of learning located between behaviour and abilities." and also that "…defining learning in terms of competences highlights the need to acquire knowledge in a way that can be mobilised in task resolution." However, the precise nature of that location and the process that might be involved in this knowledge acquisition remain elusive. Gonczi (2010) tends towards a definition of an integrated model of competency, based on knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes displayed in context. Context is a key concept here since its scope avoids the necessity to include in the description of 'competence' features such as emotions, social components or motivation which have formed part of other models. Such features are, by nature, more unstable and are subject to a greater degree of variation than the other attributes, and it is helpful to consider them as part of a given context.

The *Libro Blanco* published by the Spanish National Quality Assurance Agency outlining the basic guidelines for the curriculum design of the undergraduate degree in Translation and Interpreting (*Grado en Traducción e Interpretación)* lists the key competences that are to be developed. Examples of these include 'fluency in foreign languages' (*dominio de lenguas extranjeras*), 'command of strategies and terminology for specialised translation' (*dominio de técnicas y terminología de la traducción especializada*), 'ability to work in a team' (*capacidad de trabajo en equipo*) or 'posess a wide cultural knowledge' (*poseer una amplia cultura*). Some of the transversal competences enumerated are 'critical reasoning', (*razonamiento critico*), initiative and entrepreneurial spirit (*iniciativa y espíritu emprendedor*) and 'ablility to apply knowledge to practice' (*capacidad de aplicar los conocimientos a la práctica*), amongst others. Pérez-Cañado (2009) states that in EHEA study programmes

> Competencies such as critical thinking skills or the ability to synthesize and analyze should be developed, and the move should be made towards a self-directed, autonomous learning where students' independence, involvement, and participation are fostered.

All of these are indisputably desirable goals, but to date, there is no description available of just what underlying factors or features may be involved in the outward demonstration or performance of these skills and how they may interact with one another or with particular contexts. This necessarily places limitations on the way they may be incorporated into teaching-learning programmes and also how they may be measured as outcomes of these programmes through the performance of tasks.

If syllabus and materials design is to be based on a theory of competency, it will also be necessary to distinguish between the product and process of learning. Competences presented as performance descriptors constitute desirable outcomes of a teaching-learning programme but do not describe the processes necessary to attain them. In order to develop a syllabus and the materials that will be used in it, we need to focus on the description of the developmental stages through which these outcomes may be achieved.

Assessment

It is also essential that the assessment process that will be used both during and at the end of the teaching-learning programme is built into it from the start, both in terms of the components of the syllabus that will be subject to assessment (e.g. class attendance and participation, tests, assignments, final examination) and the weighting that each of these will be given. The assessment formats chosen also require prior consideration; will the tests and assignments evaluate competence in speaking, writing, reading, etc.? Will the evaluations necessarily be individual or will they include group assessment? Will all the assessment be carried out by the teacher/examiner or will students be involved in the assessment of their own and their peers' work? How, if at all, will the assessment of assignments differ from that of tests or examinations? How may the process of learning and acquisition of both language and competences be assessed, as opposed to looking only at the product of that process?

Consideration of such questions is essential if we are to move forward in the evaluation of the acquisition of competences and the full integration of our study programmes into the EAHE. Extensive research has been undertaken into testing language acquisition, but the acquisition of transversal and systemic competences, essentially related to the development of professional skills and of responsible citizens in a tolerant, diverse and democratic society is an area that is sparsely documented and still requires investigation, especially with reference to a higher education, rather than a vocational training, setting.

In part, the complexity of attempting to evaluate competences and the extent to which they have been acquired arises from the lack of definition of a construct of the competences we wish to measure. For the *Lengua B* subjects in the undergraduate degree in Translation and Interpreting, a total of 131 competences are listed as the objectives to be developed through the materials delivered in 30 ECTS credits over two academic years. Thirty-three of these are objectives for the 6-credit subject, *Lengua BIII*. The abilities that underlie competences such as ‘Know how to establish interpersonal relationships’, ‘Recognise and respect multicultural diversity’ or ‘Possess critical reasoning’, have not been described and therefore attempting to measure them through the performance of tasks is necessarily a subjective, teacher-centred, process which cannot be standardized. Furthermore, since teaching-learning programmes generally attempt to identify progressive stages of development, we would be required to somehow identify and describe what constitutes the different levels of acquisition for each of the competences listed in our syllabus. It is also arguable that competence is not stable over time and that individuals develop many competences during their lifetime, but these may come and go depending on the frequency with which they are used and the level of need that a person has to implement them at different stages of their life.

In order to address this complex issue, it might make more pedagogical sense to place emphasis on the assessment of the outcomes of the teaching-learning programme, which can be much more easily described in terms of the specific content that is included in the syllabus and the materials, and on the learners’ ability to apply the knowledge they have acquired to contexts other than those which were presented in the learning tasks. This, in effect, may be said to be a generic description of competence; the ability to apply knowledge acquired in a particular context to a resolve a task in another, different, context. In this way, specific outcomes of tasks aimed, for example, at the ability to work autonomously may be assessed by the degree of completion achieved, the details recorded, the resources used, etc. without claiming that being able to carry out this particular task is generalisable to the acquisition of the competence ‘ability to work autonomously’. Specific learning outcomes are logically related to ‘learning goals’ which, in turn, are much easier to make explicit in terms of syllabus and materials design. They can also be more easily contemplated in progressive stages than the concept of acquiring a competence (or 131 competences).

Programming

A requisite of EHEA study programmes in Spain is a rigid prior timing plan for the entire content of the subject. This is a double-edged sword in the designing of a syllabus; it is advantageous in that it aids horizontal coordination, since all teachers involved know how they should pace their classes ensuring that all groups receive similar input, and it also helps with transversal coordination because other subject teachers have easy access to information about content that may be essential input for students in order to progress in a different area of the curriculum. However, the disadvantage of this rigidity is that it allows limited scope for adapting to unforeseen circumstances of any nature (ranging from the need for further development and consolidation of any particular input, to a bank holiday falling on the day a class was timetabled). Generally, on paper, syllabus contents appear more compact; in the real life scenario of the classroom, it is common to find that everything takes longer and there is a tendency for even experienced teachers to include far too much content in their syllabus and consequently find it impossible to reach the end or to cover all the material they have projected in their plan. We have recently collected evidence for this from First Year students from one of our undergraduate degree programmes in answers to Quality Assurance questionnaires within our *Plan de Acción Tutorial* (Student Support Programme). Students reported that a large amount of content was hastily presented at the end of the course, causing pre-exam anxiety. This was corroborated by the minutes of a teacher coordination meeting which recorded that the content included in the syllabus had been more than could be covered given that students were starting this foreign language from scratch. It is difficult to know how to address this issue: if we reduce the planned content on paper, our subject may seem 'weak' and therefore may not be valued by the different stakeholders. If we produce a syllabus which looks solid and wide-ranging on paper, we are in danger of inducing high levels of stress, both in ourselves and our students, in our attempt to finish it. It is also fundamentally dishonest to publish a syllabus which cannot feasibly be covered in the time available.

Our challenge here, then, is to distinguish clearly between tasks that students can research, carry out and correct outside the classroom, making use of virtual learning environments, and classroom activities that benefit from face to face interaction and which require greater teacher support than it is feasible to give on-line. Since the EAHE requires from 40-60% of student study to take place autonomously, we need to carefully construct the framework for these learning activities in order to develop skills that will allow students to become more independent and self-reliant, to help them to identify legitimate information sources and to develop strategies whereby input sources other than the teacher are used for language acquisition (developing life-long learning skills). However, there is also a danger in trying to set up too many activities on virtual platforms without first considering how these will be assessed, what kind of feedback is required and from whom. This forms part of the issue of assessment which, as discussed above, must be considered at the outset of the design of a syllabus and not thought of as simply an end-point that can be dealt with at later stage.

A proposal for the design of teaching-learning materials focused on the development of competences

The description of the following tasks attempts to demonstrate how we might base the design of English language teaching materials, oriented towards an undergraduate translator training programme, on a process approach. At the same time, we will try to focus explicitly on developing competences in both language and professional skills. The materials referred to in this section are specific to the subject *Lengua BIII*, a first semester subject in the second year of the study programme, aimed at a B2+ level on the CEFR.

In the first example of a teaching-learning unit, the focus for language acquisition is on the pronunciation of numbers and figures in English, the language used to express statistical information and the names and abbreviations used for international organisations. In a speaking activity, students are firstly required to discuss in pairs how they usually react when they come across a large number, a date or statistical information in a text they are reading in English. It is common to find that most cannot automatically read the numerical information in English and that they do not stop to work out how to pronounce it, but rather glide over it or read it to themselves in their first language (L1). It is pointed out that whilst this may not cause any immediate problem for private reading or even when translating, it will be totally unacceptable for interpreting; this raises students' awareness of possible future professional situations and helps to encourage their interest in the area of Mathematics which Humanities students often shy away from.

The next stage is to introduce two lists of numbers, figures, statistics and numerical expressions in English (Appendix I) and ask students to work in pairs or small groups to see whether they can pronounce what is written. In this way, the students have already begun the cognitive process of working on the numbers before being presented with the answers for correct pronunciation. It is also interesting for them to note that the answers are not finite and that there is sometimes quite a big difference between what is written and what is pronounced.

Students are then asked to focus on a specific task in the Spanish-English translation equivalents for expressing percentages, with particular attention to the use of articles (e.g. '*Un 66% de los estudiantes aprobarán el examen*': 'Ø 66% of [the] students will pass the exam'; '*El 50% de los puestos de ordenador están ocupados*': 'Ø 50% of the computers are in use'). This exemplifies the extent to which translation tasks into the foreign language can assist in language acquisition, especially when they are not used to 'replicate' grammar structures but to contrast them.

Students remain in groups in order to work on a translation of global statistics of gender inequality. Since the text is compiled from multiple sources, it is necessary for them to firstly carry out a task designed to lead them to investigate the meanings of the abbreviated forms of the different organisations in their L1 (e.g. in Spanish, *ILO*, *MSC*, *AI*, *PNUD*, etc.) before attempting to translate them. This develops both the linguistic and communicative competence of future translators by raising awareness to parts of the text which may at first seem insignificant since they are not actually 'words', but merely cited as sources. This can lead to them being overlooked in the translation process and consequently left in the form that they appear in, in the source text. The translation task itself then links in with other instrumental and transversal competences concerned with language acquisition and with broadening an understanding of the world, of the tremendously privileged place Western societies occupy in it, and of the imbalance in the worldwide production and use of resources, as students translate statistics about the situation of women worldwide in the areas of work, poverty, health, education and politics.

It is important that students work on this task in small groups and for the teacher to emphasise that the reason for doing so is to focus on the process of the translation rather than the product. We have often observed a tendency in group work for students to divide texts into smaller chunks, with each one responsible for translating only 'their part' in order to finish more quickly. This product-oriented approach counters the intention of the activity to develop competence in the negotiation of meaning and in collaborative team work, so it is necessary to clearly establish at the outset the time that the task is expected to take. This is, of course, flexible, but related tasks such as more extensive research and peer revision can also be encouraged. Through these, students experience the desirability of checking a URL before clicking on a search result in order to judge the reliability of their sources and of seeing how readers react to their text. They become aware that they need to reformulate their translation if the reader reaches for the source text in order to interpret the meaning of the target text (this is especially effective if there are Erasmus or other exchange students in the group).

As well as teacher assessment for this task, self and peer assessment can be used through the implementation of standardised formulae in the form of self-assessment sheets containing several sections that refer to different aspects of the translation task. In these, students are firstly asked to note their information sources (with URLs) and to say why these were useful or misleading. In other sections they record structures and lexical items that they have encountered, aspects of the task that they have learned from or found particularly useful, corrections and alterations made to the translation after revision and the reasons for those changes, how well they feel their group worked as a team and how they functioned as an individual within that team. If self- and peer-assessment procedures such as these are used frequently throughout the study programme, they can encourage the development of competences such as the ability to discriminate valid information sources, the ability to objectively and constructively review their own and other people's work, the ability to understand how teams work (it is not necessary to have worked in a successful team for this) and how group dynamics can be improved, the ability to observe the learning process and, especially, the ability to recognise the relationship between commitment to a task, the final outcome and the sense of achievement on its completion. All of these are of fundamental importance in the development of professional skills and life values and are therefore necessary components of a competence-based syllabus adapted to the EAHE. They are also all elements whose external assessment by a teacher or examiner poses a serious challenge in terms of objectivity and 'fairness' and therefore it can be seen how self-assessment naturally forms an essential and integral part of the syllabus design. At the same time, it relieves some of the teacher's assessment workload and transfers responsibility to the students for their learning process, making it easier to evaluate as a process rather than a mere product.

An autonomous study task that is added to this unit for further language development is uploaded to a virtual classroom in the form of listening, reading and writing tasks where students are required to match the information given in a BBC news broadcast[1] to diagrams of statistical trends and to focus on specific vocabulary used to describe them (e.g. 'fluctuate', 'sharp rise', 'slow decline', 'level off'), to describe information presented in the form of a graph, and to consider how this information would be expressed in Spanish. A specific grammar focus is also given with practice in the different forms that are used in English to express future time. These are tasks that can be assessed through tools available in virtual learning platforms such as Moodle which, once the necessary initial time investment in learning how to use them effectively has been made, greatly facilitate the work of the teacher. They can record scores and provide feedback to both students and teachers instantly and, through them, it is also possible to redirect learning and provide further opportunities for task completion, within a limited time-scale selected by the teacher, so that students can achieve pass scores. The teacher can set the number of marks that are deducted for a second attempt and the computer programme can randomly re-order the appearance of questions to avoid memorisation of answer selection. This can reduce the time teachers spend on holding re-sit tests and re-marking them, and also guide and reinforce student learning in required areas. One of the challenges for us in continuing to develop our teaching competences is to become efficient in the use of these tools, not least because they can greatly reduce the most tiring and time-consuming part of our workload.

Our second example of a teaching-learning unit which develops a range of competences through language learning tasks is based on the theme of internet use and abuse, cyber-harassment, and bullying or harassment in different social settings. As an introductory activity, students in pairs or small groups are asked to discuss what kinds of things might people become addicted to and to draw up a list which all students then contribute to consolidating on the board. A personal focus in then introduced by asking them to answer a questionnaire about their own use and possible degree of addiction to internet (Appendix II). This engages with their personal and familiar world, providing a connection with the world of the classroom task and a powerful reason to search for ways to express their meaning in the foreign language. Subsequently, tasks are introduced involving vocabulary that describes negative emotions and also scientific investigation into addiction. This is followed by a reading task based on an article about internet addiction with comprehension questions to confirm understanding. Through all of these tasks, students' may develop both linguistic competence through awareness of differences in style and register for different text types and also awareness of the potential destructive outcomes of emotional, physical and psychological addictions.

By firstly looking at cyber-harassment on social networks, the second part of the unit focuses on different forms that harassment and bullying can take and how these may be dealt with. This is an important social issue which has special significance for the fourth year work placement (12 ECTS credits) and also for later professional life. Through a reading task, linguistic competence is developed by focusing on structures, expressions and textual devices used for giving advice and instructions in English. Students are then asked to collaboratively write possible definitions for the terms 'bully', 'victim' and 'bystander'. In Spanish, there is no obvious equivalent for 'bystander' in this situation: in dictionaries, we find equivalents such as *transeúnte*, *persona inocente*, *testigo inocente*, which contrast quite markedly with the meaning in this context. This task can therefore have a direct impact on developing translation students' awareness of how language itself forms part of the culture of a society, shaping the way people think; they can experience directly how developing intercultural competence involves not only knowing factual information about other cultures, but also experiencing how they conceive the world.

The following task involves listening to a song, *Black and Purple*[2], written and performed by two Canadian school students for an anti-bullying campaign. Music is a powerful way to engage our students' attention because it can trigger the involvement of different forms of intelligence which are directly connected to their emotions and thus provide an experience which goes beyond the cognitive processing of a text such as the one about how to deal with bullying previously presented in the task about ways of giving advice. Students firstly carry out a gap-fill task as they listen to the song (Appendix III), with the gaps focusing on content words that are associated with the feelings and emotions involved for the different participants in an act of bullying. The lyrics of the song are open to various interpretations and the students are asked to participate in an on-line discussion forum where they present their own understanding of the song and discuss other students' contributions. Here, various transversal competences are involved such as interpreting texts, critical reasoning, respecting others and empathising, all of them triggering the development of language competence in postulating, agreeing, disagreeing, presenting alternative views, empathising with others' experiences, etc.

A final task that can be done outside the classroom and that encompasses all the transversal competences, is to write an acrostic poem using any of the words BULLY, VICTIM or BYSTANDER. By this stage, students should have acquired an accumulation of cognitive, language and emotional experience related to this important social issue. The writing of poetry can be a liberating way for learners to express themselves since it is free from many of the constraints of grammar structures and they can use the words they have learnt in new or unusual combinations with an immediacy of images that is not common to composition writing or critical commentary. Finally, the poems can be published in the on-line forum and commented on by other students in the group. These tasks and forums may be teacher, peer or self-assessed, or a combination of these may be used, but, because of the nature of the tasks, the assessments will mostly focus on the transversal competences that have been developed rather than on cognitive ones.

Conclusions

Trainee translators need to acquire and continue to consciously develop a range of different competences in order to carry out their profession: intellectual and cognitive competences in the form of linguistic and textual competence, specific competences in the use of technological tools, the implementation of documentation and terminology processes, team work and cultural and intercultural knowledge and understanding. Also, unique to the role of a translator or interpreter is making communication possible not between oneself and another, but between others; this requires the development of transversal competences such as the ability to adapt to new situations, and to be empathic and creative. As Kate Grenville observes in her award-winning novel *The Lieutenant*, "The names of things, if you truly wanted to understand them, were as much about the spaces between the words as they were about the words themselves. Learning a language was not a matter of joining *any two points* with a line. It was a leap into the other." The ability to become the other is the overriding competence that will distinguish a successful translator and, possibly, an emotionally stable, responsible, participative citizen.

In order to make the acquisition of these competences possible for our students, as teachers we also have to be flexible and creative in adapting our syllabus and materials design to changing circumstances. These include the nature of our students as a social group whose interest can be engaged if our teaching approach presents materials in such a way as to make them accessible to them, at least in the initial presentation of the tasks. We will also need to adapt to our new socio-economic context which means that, in state higher education at least, the available infrastructure and staffing will definitively eliminate the idea of the small tutorial group as a utopian concept that was never achieved; it will be necessary to develop strategies to deal with a greater teaching load and larger numbers of students who require feedback and assessment while at the same time retaining quality standards. Some of the proposals and examples above have attempted to show how these issues may be dealt with, especially those concerning self- and peer-assessment and the use of virtual learning environments to alleviate the amount of time spent on teacher correction.

Finally, it will also be necessary for us as teachers to apply flexibility in our approach to interpreting and achieving the educational requirements of the EHEA. A step towards this may be to cease in our attempt to evaluate the acquisition of competences themselves and to instead set learning goals that will have expected or desired learning outcomes which can be described in a syllabus and subsequently assessed. Many challenges will face state-run universities in Spain over the next few years and it will only be possible to meet them by taking a flexible and creative approach to our teaching.

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Appendix I.

Can you pronounce the following numbers and figures in English?	***Can you pronounce the following phrases and expressions with numbers in English?***
a) 1,255 b) 1.255 c) 0.627 d) 335 BC e) 200 AD f) the 1900s g) 1801 h) 2 + 3 = 5 i) 209 + 112 = 321 j) 2 x 3 = 6 k) 15 x 42 = 630 l) 6 ÷ 3 = 2 m) ⅔ n) ¼ o) 4^2 p) 7^3 q) 12^{th} r) 8^{th} s) $1.18bn (£751.3m) (etc.)	a) a 10km race b) a £5 note c) he was born on 25 January 2001 d) The Olympic Games took place in London in 2012 e) £1.20/kilo f) The carpet measures 140cm x 100cm g) How many wives did Henry VIII have? h) 66% applicants will be admitted to university i) 8/10 owners said their cats preferred it. j) WaveRider hypersonic jet aims to travel at 4,300mph (6,900km/h) k) 219,000,000 viewers watched the Games on NBC networks l) My mobile number is 635 016 244 m) Chelsea won 3 – 0 n) The tennis score is 15 – 0 o) The temperature outside is 0º C (etc.)

Appendix II.

INTERNET QUESTIONNAIRE

To assess your level of addiction to internet, answer the following questions using this scale:
1 = Rarely 2 = Occasionally 3 = Frequently 4 = Often 5 = Always

1. Do you find you stay on-line longer than you intended?
2. Do you neglect household chores to spend more time on-line?
3. How often do you prefer the excitement of the Internet to intimacy with your partner?
4. Do you form new relationships with fellow on-line users?
5. Do others in your life complain to you about the amount of time you spend on-line?
6. Do your studies or your grades suffer because of the amount of time you spend on-line?
7. Do you check your e-mail before something else that you need to do?
8. Do you become defensive or secretive when anyone asks you what you do on-line?
9. Do you block out disturbing thoughts about your life with soothing thoughts of the Internet?
10. Do you find yourself anticipating when you will go on-line again?
11. Do you connect to the internet on your mobile phone in order to feel in touch with the rest of the world?
12. Do you fear that life without the Internet would be boring, empty, and joyless?
13. Do you snap, yell, or become annoyed if someone bothers you while you are on-line?
14. Do you lose sleep due to late-night log-ins or the inability to switch off the computer?
15. Do you feel preoccupied with the Internet when off-line, or fantasize about being on-line?
16. How often do you find yourself saying "just a few more minutes" when on-line?
17. Have you tried to cut down the amount of time you spend on-line and fail?
18. Do you try to hide how long you've been on-line?
19. Do you choose to spend more time on-line over going out with others?
20. Do you have feelings of depression or anxiety when you are off-line, which go away once you are back on-line?

After you've answered all the questions, add the numbers you selected for each response to obtain a final score. The higher your score, the greater your level of addiction and the problems your Internet usage causes. Here's a general scale to help measure your score:
20 - 49 points: You are an average on-line user. You may surf the Web a bit too long at times, but you have control over your usage.
50 -79 points: You are experiencing occasional or frequent problems because of the Internet. You should consider their full impact on your life.
80 - 100 points: Your Internet usage is causing significant problems in your life. You should evaluate the impact of the Internet on your life and address the problems directly caused by your Internet usage.

After you have identified the category that fits your total score, look back at those questions for which your scored a 4 or 5. Did you realize this was a significant problem for you?

Appendix III.

Black And Purple

He has to stand up and be strong
To show everyone he belongs
She has to fight to live her life
She has to hide her pain inside

And everyone is scared of him
But that's the way that he's gotta live
Do you think she feels his pain
There's no justice in this game

And when they fall asleep at night
They know the morning won't be bright

‘Cause they are living in a hell
Yeah they’re trapped inside themselves

But is it worth everything that they said it would be
Has he become the enemy
Will she ever live in a world of peace
He’s gotta wash away the black burdens he feels
She’s gotta cover all the purple scars that she can heal

She makes that girl feel so small
She can’t hear her silent cries at all
And it is wrong to let down their guard
‘Cause in this world you can’t have a heart

His days are long he wants to die
‘Cause he knows that he’s a different guy
When will he take off his mask and leave everything to the past
Leave it in the past – leave it in the past

(There was a time) Oh life was so much easier then, I know
(A memory left behind) I can’t remember what it’s like
(I worked so hard)Trying to make everyone look up to me
But as hard as I try only black and purple bruises
Ache behind my eyes ache behind my eyes

And it wasn’t worth what they said it would be
I became the enemy
Am I gonna live in a world of peace
‘Cause I washed all the black burdens out of me (out of me)
Yeah I healed all the purple scars everyone could see
I found me

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Adquisición de competencias en lengua extranjera en contexto internacional: los programas intensivos Erasmus

Resumen
El Departamento de Traducción de la Universidade de Vigo participa desde hace cuatro años en un Programa Intensivo Erasmus sobre "Introducción a las instituciones y sistemas jurisdiccionales europeos con objetivos traduccionales" junto con otras seis universidades europeas. Se trata de una iniciativa innovadora de adquisición de contenidos y lengua jurídica en contexto internacional.
En esta comunicación analizamos los objetivos programáticos, las actividades orientadas a la adquisición de lenguas de especialidad extranjeras en las sucesivas ediciones: Lorient (Francia-2009), Magdeburg (Alemania, 2010), Vigo (España, 2011) y Bucarest (Rumanía, 2012) en relación con las competencias enunciadas en el *Libro Blanco. Títulos de grado en Traducción e Interpretación* (ANECA) y con la adquisición de lenguas extranjeras según el *Marco Europeo Común de Referencia.* Analizamos además, la autoevaluación que del programa realizan los estudiantes (cinco por país y edición seleccionados en concurrencia competitiva) que participan en este programa en lo referido a la adquisición de competencias para el ejercicio profesional.

Nuestra comunicación, más allá de las características concretas del programa, pretende exponer de modo vinculado las actividades y competencias sobre aprendizaje de lenguas de especialidad extranjeras que se pueden desarrollar en contexto de trabajo internacional.
Palabras clave: didáctica de la traducción e interpretación especializdas, aprendizaje LSP, simulación global, aprendizaje por tareas.

Introducción

El aprendizaje de las lenguas extranjeras para traductores requiere planteamientos diferentes a los aplicados a la adquisición de una segunda lengua. Además de la competencia comunicativa, que implica el dominio de la compresión, la expresión (escrita y oral) y la interacción lingüística, impone adquirir también las competencias relacionadas con la mediación lingüística que introduce una perspectiva contrastiva con respecto a la lengua y cultura maternas e incide en la adquisición de competencia comunicativa intercultural.

La enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras en la titulación de Traducción e Interpretación se realiza en los primeros cursos del título, se añade además la posibilidad de realizar en el segundo curso una estancia Erasmus en que los estudiantes perfeccionan considerablemente sus competencias lingüísticas. Por su parte, la adquisición de las lenguas de especialidad extranjeras tiene lugar en los últimos cursos de la titulación, exclusivamente en contexto español. Por ello y para completar en lo posible su formación les ofrecemos la posibilidad de participar en un programa intensivo Erasmus.
La participación de nuestra titulación en el programa junto con otras universidades europeas brinda al alumnado la posibilidad de mejorar su competencia en lengua de especialidad extranjera en contexto internacional y reactiva la perspectiva contrastiva de ese aprendizaje. En él, alumnado y profesorado de siete universidades conviven y aprenden durante unha quincena. Analizamos las actividades del programa en relación con las competencias definidas en el Marco Europeo Común de Referencia (MCER) y en el Libro Blanco de la Traducción y la Interpretación en España (Muñoz Raya, 2004), para mostrar el papel central que las experiencias internacionales y multiculturales tienen en su adquisición.

Los programas intensivos ERASMUS

En los programas intensivos ERASMUS (Intensive Programme, IP) un consorcio de universidades europeas presenta un proyecto de docencia en concurrencia competitiva. En caso de ser aprobado, este consorcio organiza períodos intensivos de formación (entre 10 días y 6 semanas) para alumnado y profesorado de las universidades participantes. Su concesión debe ser renovada anualmente hasta completar un total de 3 ediciones.

Los IP tienen por objeto desarrollar una formación especializada sobre aspectos apenas tratados en las titulaciones universitarias, favorecer condiciones de aprendizaje y de enseñanza a las que los estudiantes no tienen acceso en una única universidad y permitirles a los docentes realizar intercambios y poner a prueba su metodología pedagógica en contexto internacional. En definitiva, constituyen un escenario privilegiado para el aprendizaje multicultural, multilingüe y multidisciplinar.

El IP "Sistemas jurídicos y derecho de los inmigrantes en la Unión Europea: Traducir e interpretar en la diversidad" [1]

El objetivo central del programa es que el alumnado desarrolle sus destrezas idiomáticas en un contexto profesional concreto, el de la tradución e interpretación bien de textos administrativos, bien en situaciones de comparecencia ante la administración. Sus objetivos parciales son: a) conocer los diferentes sistemas jurídicos europeos; b) conocer los derechos de los inmigrantes en la UE; c) analizar los sistemas jurídicos para asegurar una traducción e interpretación fiables; d) adquirir experiencia de trabajo en equipo, concretamente en equipos multinacionales, para poner en común métodos de trabajo, técnicas profesionales, lenguas y culturas diferentes; y e) adquirir destreza en la preparación de resúmenes y disertaciones sobre temas especializados y en presentarlas en público para mejorar las técnicas de transmisión de información especializada en lengua extranjera.

Los contenidos del programa se articulan en torno a tres polos temáticos tratados desde una perspectiva contrastiva: los sistemas jurídicos de los países participantes, los derechos de los inmigrantes en la UE y la actuación del traductor e intérprete profesional que asiste a inmigrantes en los respectivos países. Para un trabajo profesional de calidad es imprescindible que el tradutor/intérprete tenga conocimiento profundo de los sistemas jurídicos, propio y extranjero. La asistencia lingüística y cultural a inmigrantes es un encargo de trabajo profesional frecuente, sujeto a normas deontológicas. Y, por último, la oficialización de traducciones e interpretaciones se realiza a través de procedimientos administrativos complejos que difieren de un país a otro pero que también es preciso conocer, pues la libre circulación de trabajadores también atañe a este sector profesional. Así pues, la selección de los tres temas responde a la demanda de traducción e interpretación en mercado profesional y complementa (y aplica) la formación previamente adquirida.

Además también se perfeccionan las competencias lingüísticas. Partimos de alumnado que posee un nivel elevado de conocimientos en lengua extranjera: C1 para el alumnado de Traducción y B2 para el de Derecho. De este modolos objetivos lingüísticos del programa están vinculados al perfeccionamiento y expresión de la lengua de especialidad jurídica extranjera, que se realiza a través de una experiencia didáctica protoprofesional. Los contenidos del programa están orientados a desarrollar sus destrezas idiomáticas en un contexto concreto que es el de la traducción e interpretación en sede oficial, sea esta judicial o policial.

Marco teórico

El aprendizaje de una lengua exige el desarrollo de un conjunto de competencias en un contexto y situación determinadas para que el alumno desarrolle las estrategias adecuadas para expresarse en ella, de acuerdo con el Marco Europeo Común de Referencia:

> El uso de la lengua- que incluye el aprendizaje- comprende las acciones que realizan las personas que, como individuos y como agentes sociales, desarrollan una serie de **competencias**, tanto **generales** como **competencias comunicativas lingüísticas**, en particular. Las personas utilizan las competencias que se encuentran a sus disposición en distintos **contextos** y bajo distintas **condiciones** y **restricciones**, con el fin de realizar **actividades de la lengua** que conllevan **procesos** para producir y recibir **textos** relacionados con **temas** en **ámbitos** específicos, poniendo en juego las **estrategias** que parecen más apropiadas para llevar a cabo las **tareas** que han de realizar. El control que de estas actividades tienen los participantes producen el esfuerzo o la modificación de sus competencias” (MCER, 2004:9).

Las competencias generales, según este mismo documento (MCER, 2001:11 y ss.), comprenden tanto el saber declarativo (saber), adquirido por la experiencia personal o en ámbito académico, las destrezas y habilidades (saber hacer), la competencia existencial (saber ser) y la capacidad de aprender (saber aprender).

Por su parte la competencia lingüística (MCER, 2001:13 y ss.) agrupa varios componentes: el lingüístico, el sociolingüístico y el pragmático. Dentro del primero figuran los conocimientos y las destrezas léxicas, fonológicas y sintácticas, así como la dimensión sistémica de esos conocimientos, (organización cognitiva y accesibilidad). Las competencias sociolingüísticas tienen que ver con las normas socioculturales del contexto en que se produce la interacción, por lo que resultan fundamentales en la interacción intercultural. Y, por último, figuran las competencias pragmáticas, que están vinculadas con el uso funcional de los recursos lingüísticos y con el dominio del discurso, la cohesión, la coherencia, la identificación de tipos y formas de texto, la ironía y la parodia.

Las actividades que se definen para el usuario de una lengua (MCER, 2001: 14) son la comprensión, la expresión (ambas oral y escrita), la interacción y la mediación. Siendo las dos primeras auxiliares de las otras y a la última a la que se circunscriben as actividades meta de nuestro programa.

Los ámbitos de uso (o aprendizaje de una lengua) que se prevén (MCER, 2001:15) son el público, el personal, el educativo y el profesional. Y es en estos ámbitos en los que el estudiante ha de poner en funcionamiento las estrategias comunicativas para resolver las tareas propuestas que por estar encaminadas al aprendizaje de una lengua de especialidad se articulan necesariamente en la producción de textos orales y escritos.
Vista la complejidad de las competencias a tratar en un espacio de tiempo reducido y dado el avanzado conocimiento lingüístico del alumnado, a la hora de diseñar el programa de estudios tuvimos en cuenta las metodologías centradas en el enfoque comunicativo (Brumfit y Johnson, 1979). De entre ellas, seguimos el modelo del aprendizaje mediante tareas, entendidas estas como tareas comunicativas que Nunan (1989:10) define como “a piece a classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form”. Además, en Zanón (1995) se describen los métodos de aprendizaje a través de tareas aplicadas a la adquisición de lenguas que clasifica en: programas de procesos, programas de procedimientos (o de tareas) y programas de proyectos.

La distinción entre tareas, simulaciones y proyectos se establece según el grado de participación del alumnado en la toma de decisiones (Zanón, 1999:17). A la simulación le corresponde un grado intermedio de participación del alumnado en el diseño del programa. El concepto de simulación fue acuñado para el aprendizaje de lenguas por Caré y Debyser (1984) y consiste en el establecimiento de un marco de actuación para el alumnado en la clase en torno a un tema. Para la adquisición de las competencias se requiere la realización de toda la serie de tareas de la simulación que, de acuerdo con Martín Peris (1999:32), pueden ser tareas previas (o capacitadoras) y tareas finales.

> Une simulation globale est un protocole ou un scénario cadre qui permet à un groupe d'apprenants pouvant aller jusqu'à une classe entière d'une trentaine d'élèves, de créer un univers de référence - un immeuble, un village, une île, un cirque, un hôtel - de l'animer de personnages en interaction et d'y simuler toutes les fonctions du langage que ce cadre, qui est à la fois un lieu-thème et un univers de discours, est susceptible de requérir. (Debyser, 1996: preface).

Un desarrollo de esta metodología es la simulación global que se revela como la más adecuada para la adquisición de las competencias lingüísticas en lengua extranjera con fines profesionales, pues "tiene como objetivo la adquisición de la capacidad lingüística con la que el aprendiz logre comunicar con precisión en el ámbito de una disciplina determinada" Gómez de Enterría (2009:117). Además, sus bases metodológicas coinciden con los planteamientos fundamentales del Marco de Referencia Europeo (Blanco, 2010:107).

Esta metodología nos permite vincular las tareas entre sí, en grado creciente de capacitación, esto es, en la adquisición de conocimientos lingüísticos, temáticos, socioculturales y pragmáticos. En cada tarea se establece una doble articulación entre competencias y conocimientos, el conjunto de tareas está vinculado por el escenario creado y las interacciones comunicativas previstas se organizan en función del aprendizaje gradual.

Se trata de simular situaciones reales en las que el discente se vea compelido al aprendizaje activo para resolver problemas o tomar decisiones. Las simulaciones requieren que el docente diseñe una serie de actividades y tareas secuenciadas que gradualmente aborden los contenidos lingüísticos y temáticos necesarios (saber), desarrollen las destrezas comunicativas en lengua extranjera en ámbito de especialidad (saber hacer) y requieran una actitud adecuada (saber ser o estar) en lo referido al trabajo intercultural, la eliminación de prejuicios o la interiorización de la deontología profesional. El éxito en la realización de simulaciones estimula, además, la capacidad de autoaprendizaje del discente (saber aprender), en tanto que lo prepara para futuros retos profesionales.

En el diseño de una simulación para futuros traductores/intérpretes partimos de la inmersión lingüística, cuyos resultados mejoran al desarrollarse en grupo internacional al multiplicarse el trabajo de mediación cultural en la interacción de alumnado con el resto de participantes. Que las simulaciones se realicen en ámbito internacional favorece el desarrollo de la competencia comunicativa intercultural (CCI), no siempre presente en los estudios de corte comunicativo, dado que en estos el alumnado tiende a asimilar las pautas de trabajo de la sociedad de recepción, pasando a subordinar la cultura de origen a la extranjera.

Para completar a visión sobre el aprendizaje lingüístico con fines de mediación al que se orienta el programa intensivo traemos aquí las 26 competencias trasversales enunciadas en el Libro Blanco de la Traducción y la Interpretación en España (Muñoz Raya, 2004:81 y ss.). Escogemos las competencias transversales o genéricas en detrimento de las específicas, por dos motivos: primeramente porque estas profundizan con detalle en las competencias que han de adquirir en la formaciónen la que se incluyen asignaturas que nada tienen que ver con la materia que nos ocupa: la traducción e interpretación especializada. En segundo lugar, porque los colectivos consultados (egresados, docentes y empleadores) muestran un mayor consenso sobre aquellas (Muñoz Raya, 2004:17).

COMPETENCIAS TRANSVERSALES INSTRUMENTALES	**COMPETENCIAS TRANSVERSALES PERSONALES**
Comunicación oral y escrita en la lengua propia Conocimiento de una 2ª lengua extranjera Capacidad de organización y planificación Resolución de problemas Capacidad de análisis y síntesis Conocimientos de informática relativos al ámbito de estudio Capacidad de gestión de la información Toma de decisiones	Compromiso ético Razonamiento critico Reconocimiento de la diversidad y la multiculturalidad Habilidades en las relaciones interpersonales Trabajo en equipo Trabajo en un contexto internacional Trabajo en un equipo de carácter interdisciplinar

COMPETENCIAS TRANSVERSALES SISTÉMICAS	OTRAS COMPETENCIAS TRANSVERSALES
Motivación por la calidad Aprendizaje autónomo Adaptación a nuevas situaciones Conocimientos de otras culturas y costumbres Creatividad Iniciativa y espíritu emprendedor Liderazgo Sensibilidad hacia temas medioambientales	Capacidad de aplicar los conocimientos a la práctica Capacidad de trabajo individual Diseño y gestión de proyectos

Figura 1: Competencias transversales o genéricas para el grado de Traducción e Interpretación. Elaboración propia a partir de Muñoz Raya (2004:81 y ss.)

Analizamos a continuación hasta que punto el diseño del programa se adecúa al aprendizaje y perfeccionamiento de la lengua de especialidad jurídica a través de la adquisición de las competencias enunciadas en este apartado.

Análisis del programa intensivo

Para analizar las características del programa nos parece de interés analizar cada uno de los puntos enunciados en el MCER así como evaluar la adquisición de competencias enunciadas en la memoria del título de grado.

Ámbitos de adquisición

La realización de un programa en que alumnado y profesorado de seis universidades se desplazan a una séptima para la realización del programa implica que el ambiente de trabajo es internacional para todos los participantes incluso para la comunidad de recepción, en la medida en que también han de explicar su propia cultura y sociedad en lengua extranjera.

El estudiantado convive y comparte alojamiento en habitaciones multinacionales, lo que les obliga a usar la lengua en el ámbito personal. Además, la experiencia de aprendizaje y perfeccionamiento de la(s) lengua(s) de especialidad extranjera(s) se desarrolla formalmente en el ámbito académico en que el alumnado interacciona con docentes (en debates) y discentes (en los trabajos en grupo) en inglés o francés. Además, deben hacer también un uso público de esas lenguas en dos presentaciones (que preparan de modo previo a la celebración del programa). Estas presentaciones serán evaluadas conforme a unos criterios establecidos en las instrucciones que conocen previamente.

Por otro lado, este programa pretende la capacitación profesional, por ello han de interactuar con profesionales juristas o traductores/intérpretes invitados a impartir parte de las conferencias del programa. En este caso se les requiere el uso de la lengua extranjera con usos profesionales, así como en algunas de las simulaciones que han de realizar en tanto que tareas formativas.

Actividades y tareas

La preparación de traductores/intérpretes profesionales requiere trabajar las competencias temáticas (saber), las competencias procedimentales y lingüísticas (saber hacer) y las competencias actitudinales (saber ser y estar) para lo que diseñamos una serie de actividades y tareas con instrucciones detalladas para su realización.

Las competencias temáticas se refieren a la adquisición de conocimiento jurídico y lingüístico especializado relacionado con los temas propuestos (sistemas jurídicos, traducción oficial y derechos de los inmigrantes). Se trata de adquirir un saber declarativo útil (Valderrey, 2005) que, en lo referido a los sistemas jurídicos, se concreta en nuestro programa a través de las siguientes tareas y actividades:

BLOQUE I SISTEMA JURÍDICO Y JUDICIAL	
Tarea 1	Cada grupo de estudiantes nacional realiza una exposición sobre el sistema judicial de su país apoyándose en soporte audiovisual película, documental etc.). Deben prepararla antes de la celebración del programa bajo la supervisión de los docentes nacionales.
Actividad 1	Los estudiantes del programa asisten a la conferencia y posterior debate con un especialista sobre “Introducción a los grandes sistemas jurídicos: Common Law versus Derecho continental.
Actividad 2	Todos los estudiantes el programa visionan una película norteamericana de tema judicial a la que sigue un debate sobre aspectos comparativos de la organización de los sistemas jurídicos continentales y la Common Law, con alusiones a la organización nacional.
Actividad 3	Los estudiantes del programa visitan los tribunales del país anfitrión organizados en grupos multinacionales, con por lo menos un estudiante del país por grupo que realiza un ensayo de interpretación susurrada sobre las vistas.
Tarea 2	Los estudiantes en grupo multinacional preparan un artículo de prensa sobre los actores judiciales y los casos de las vistas a las que han asistido. La nota de prensa se presenta en público y se realiza un debate en grupo a partir de un cuestionario previo.

BLOQUE II: INTERPRETACIÓN OFICIAL	
Actividad 4	Cada uno de los grupos nacionales debe haber realizado una visita a los tribunales en su país. Asisten a vistas en las que intervenga un intérprete y observan su actuación, reparando en los aspectos deontológicos en su país.
Actividad 5	El alumnado asiste a una conferencia sobre el oficio de traductor/intérprete profesional en el país anfitrión sobre los aspectos deontológicos de la profesión.
Tarea 3	Cada grupo nacional realiza una exposición en inglés o francés sobre la traducción oficial y la interpretación en sede judicial, a partir de un cuestionario previo.
BLOQUE III: DERECHO DE INMIGRANTES	
Actividad 6	Conferencia de un especialista sobre los derechos de los inmigrantes y la libre circulación de personas.
Actividad 7	Mesa redonda de los docentes de cada país para analizar su plasmación en cada país en lo relativo a los permisos de residencia, permisos de trabajo y reagrupamiento familiar. Al término de la actividad cada alumno realiza un test sobre los conocimientos adquiridos.
Actividad 8	Mesa redonda de los docentes de cada país sobre derecho de asilo, zonas de retención, procedimientos de expulsión y asistencia lingüística. Se presentan y analizan los documentos que más frecuentemente se traducen en la asistencia a inmigrantes en la realización de trámites. Para ello se maneja documentación oficial de inmigrantes traducida, son documentos reales, lo que permite observar además los requisitos formales para jurar una traducción.
Actividad 9	Presentación de recursos electrónicos para la traducción jurídica. En ella se citan las principales bases de datos legislativas, documentales y terminológicas de información especializada. A continuación, los alumnos en grupo nacional localizan y recopilan los principales recursos jurídicos en lengua nacional.
Tarea 4	Elaboración de glosario. Los estudiantes en grupo multinacional seleccionan los 20 términos más frecuentes en la documentación analizada en la actividad_8. Cada grupo elabora una ficha terminológica para cada término. A partir de ellas, se elabora el glosario en que se hacen constar: entrada en inglés con definición, equivalencia en francés y en cada una de las lenguas nacionales: español, portugués, alemán, letón, checo y rumano. Esta tarea exige organizarse en un primer momento en grupo internacional y después en grupo nacional para consensuar las soluciones.
Tarea 5	Juego de rol. Los estudiantes en grupo de trabajo nacional aplican los conocimientos adquiridos previamente sobre asistencia lingüística a inmigrantes en sede oficial. Cada

	grupo deberá representar un interrogatorio con un magistrado, un policía, un inmigrante, un intérprete y un testigo.
Actividad 10	Conferencia y debate sobre los procesos para la adquisición de la nacionalidad en los países participantes. A su término se celebra un debate entre docentes y discentes sobre las peculiaridades de este proceso en cada país.
Tarea 6	Taller de traducción. Organizados en grupo nacional traducen los documentos presentados en la actividad 9_DI, relacionados con los trámites administrativos de los inmigrantes: partida de nacimiento, certificado de matrimonio, certificado de antecedentes penales y contrato de trabajo. La tarea 4_DI de elaboración de glosario es una tarea instrumental para el taller de traducción. Además, se pone a disposición del alumnado, a través de plataforma digital, una selección de documentos en lengua nacional que funcionan como documentación paralela. La versión final traducida de los documentos debe tener el formato y requisitos de una traducción jurada en el país de cada grupo.

Figura 2: Actividades y tareas del IP por bloques temáticos. Elaboración propia

Se realiza en el programa unha distinción entre actividades y tareas según las competencias que exijan. Siendo estas últimas más complejas en tanto que exigen la producción de textos orales o escritos en ámbito público o documentos de uso profesional bien sean en la modalidad de interacción o de mediación. Por su parte en las actividades se trabajan la comprensión, la expresión y la interacción en ámbito educativo. En todas ellas se exigen técnicas de observación y estudio como de expresión en ámbito público. Así por ejemplo las del bloque temático de la traducción/interpretación oficial parten de la observación de la actuación profesional del intérprete en la visita a los tribunales y de un primer ensayo de interpretación susurrada de los estudiantes del país receptor.

De los tres bloques temáticos aquel que contiene más actividades y tareas es el de los derechos lingüísticos de los inmigrantes y su asistencia al que se dedica el 50% de la docencia del programa, por ser el menos atendido en la formación previa. Las tareas que se proponen son de tipo instrumental (elaboración de glosarios que auxilien el trabajo de traducción e interpretación) o de tipo profesional (juego de rol y talleres de traducción). Las tareas y actividades, interrelacionadas, están encaminadas a realizar traducciones/interpretaciones de calidad en la asistencia a inmigrantes. Las tareas finales son el taller de traducción de documentación oficial y el juego de rol en que interviene un intérprete; el resto contribuyen a la preparación de estas.

Competencias adquiridas

Las competencias lingüísticas se adquieren en el programa al ejercitar la comprensión lectora en lengua extranjera, en las tareas de análisis de la documentación para elaborar las presentaciones y los test individuales. La comprensión oral se desarrolla en el visionado de películas, en las conferencias y en la visita a los tribunales. La expresión oral es fundamental en presentaciones, debates y, sobre todo, en el juego de rol o en la interpretación susurrada. La expresión escrita es una competencia central en la redacción del artículo de prensa y en las definiciones del glosario. Estas competencias se ejercitan principalmente en la lengua extranjera, siendo casi anecdótico el trabajo en lengua nacional.

El perfeccionamiento lingüístico se centra en la adquisición de terminología, fraseología, patrones discursivos y tipología documental de la comunidad jurídica. Además, también se activan las competencias lingüísticas en situación de inmersión lingüística dentro y fuera del aula en la interacción con compañeros y profesorado de otras nacionalidades, especialmente en el alumnado de formación jurídica.

Las competencias procedimentales se desarrollan a través de competencias instrumentales y profesionales, que serán distintas para cada uno de los colectivos según su especialización previa.

Se ejercitan las competencias instrumentales (saber) en las tareas y actividades en que se requiere el manejo de documentación jurídica especializada y en las búsquedas terminológicas. Por ejemplo, en actividades como la localización de recursos para la traducción jurídica (páginas institucionales, legislación, documentación, formularios etc.), la consulta de fuentes documentales, la localización de documentación paralela o el recurso a diccionarios y fuentes terminográficas.

Las competencias profesionales (saber hacer) se adquieren con la observación de la actuación de los actores jurídicos y en las simulaciones. La observación se realiza en sede judicial y en el visionado de películas, para la oralidad; y en el análisis de la documentación paralela nacional y en las traducciones juradas, para la producción escrita. Las simulaciones se realizan en el juego de rol y en el taller de traducción. En ambas actividades es relevante la reproducción de las normas deontológicas adquiridas de modo teórico y aplicadas en las actividades.

Las competencias actitudinales (saber ser y estar) se cultivan a través del trabajo en equipo, del espíritu crítico, del autoprendizaje (saber aprender) y de la competencia intercultural.

El espíritu crítico se fomenta a través de los debates en grupo nacional, multinacional o con la totalidad de participantes. El autoaprendizaje está presente en todo el programa, especialmente en los trabajos preparatorios de las presentaciones y en las tareas instrumentales.

La competencia intercultural (CCI) implica detectar elementos de otras culturas en comparación con la propia para comunicarse eficazmente, mantener actitudes interculturales y conciencia crítica para identificar elementos culturales y saber traducirlos/ interpretarlos. Esta competencia se deriva del carácter multinacional del programa. Más allá de insertar un grupo nacional en otra sociedad, seis grupos nacionales conviven con un séptimo (el de la cultura de recepción), que está en minoría, estableciéndose así una negociación cultural, especialmente en los equipos multinacionales. Se observan los hábitos específicos de la comunidad jurídica, traductora o universitaria del país receptor a través de las actividades en que participan especialistas nacionales y de la visita a tribunales y a la universidad. El enfoque comparatista aviva el espíritu crítico que pone de relieve precisamente los aspectos culturales (Valls, 2011:3). El resultado de la convivencia en el extranjero es, p.e. en el caso de Rumanía, el desvanecimiento de los prejuicios sobre la comunidad nacional.

Algunos resultados y conclusiones

La participación en un programa competitivo exige un proceso de evaluación en formulario oficial que recaba opinión sobre aspectos organizativos y características docentes (número de horas, equipamiento, competencia del profesorado, cumplimiento de expectativas y actividades). Tal información resulta de interés para los promotores del programa y sirve a los coordinadores para conocer su marcha general.

Con todo, necesitamos información sobre el funcionamiento concreto de nuestra propuesta didáctica, por eso elaboramos un segundo cuestionario en que figuran cada una de las actividades desarrolladas que el alumnado debe puntuar entre 0 y 5. Se les pide además que especifiquen qué actividades del IP consideran prescindibles y una apreciación de los aspectos que más les han gustado. Su opinión se tiene en cuenta en la medida de lo posible en la programación de la siguiente edición, de modo que se ha modificado el programa. Resumimos su apreciación agrupando las actividades por tipos:

ACTIVIDAD	CALIFICACIÓN
Conferencias	3,80
Debates	4,27
Visitas a tribunales	4,84
Presentaciones	4
Juego de rol	4,75
Tareas documentales: localización de recursos y glosario	3,58
Tradución	4,45

Figura 3: Evaluación de actividades. Elaboración propia

Todas las actividades reciben una puntuación superior a la media y las más valoradas exigen la participación activa y pública del alumnado o están directamente vinculadas al ejercicio profesional. Además, los aspectos más valorados en las preguntas de respuesta abierta son el contacto con gente de otros países y el tratamiento comparado de aspectos profesionales.

Para evidenciar el autoaprendizaje y determinar en qué medida el IP complementa la formación, elaboramos otro cuestionario para el alumnado de nuestra facultad. En él figuran las 26 competencias trasversales enunciadas en el Libro Blanco de la Traducción y la Interpretación en España (Muñoz Raya, 2004:81 y ss.) a las que aludimos en el marco teórico.

El resultado de la encuesta nos revela que consideran haber trabajado todas las competencias en valor superior a 2, siendo la puntuación media de adquisición de 3,77 puntos. Las competencias que consideran adquiridas de mejor manera en valor absoluto máximo (es decir, 5) son las referidas a: reconocimiento de la diversidad y la multiculturalidad, habilidades interpersonales, trabajo en contexto internacional, adaptación a nuevas situaciones y comprensión de otras culturas y costumbres. Siguen en la clasificación las competencias sobre: trabajo en equipo (4,75), compromiso ético y deontológico, razonamiento crítico e iniciativa y espíritu emprendedor, valoradas todas ellas con 4 puntos. Por su parte, se sitúan en la media, esto es, con valores próximos a 3,77 puntos, las competencias: conocimiento de una segunda lengua extranjera, capacidad de organización y planificación de proyectos, resolución de problemas y toma de decisiones.

Si tenemos en cuenta las competencias mejor valoradas según su subgrupo, podemos determinar que se perciben con mayor intensidad las competencias transversales personales (6 de 7) que suponen el 85,71% pero también son objeto de atención las instrumentales y las sistémicas o, por lo menos, el 50% de ellas figuran entre las más valoradas.

En conclusión, este artículo más allá de dar a conocer un programa de perfeccionamiento de lenguas internacional pretende demostrar cómo la combinación de un contexto internacional neutral, la vinculación del aprendizaje a la preparación profesional, la utilización de una metodología de simulación global y la constitución de equipos de trabajo, que no simples grupos, revierten en el éxito del aprendizaje de las lenguas de especialidad extranjeras, especialmente en lo referido a la competencia intercultural imprescindible para la mediación lingüística. Las elevadas cualificaciones obtenidas, no tratadas aquí por motivos de espacio, la positiva autopercepción que el alumnado tiene de su aprendizaje son muestra de ese éxito.

NOTAS

1 La titulación de Traducción e Interpretación de la Universidad de Vigo es la única titulación española del área que participa de estos programas. Coordinó junto con las universidades de Bretagne-Sud (Francia) y de Magdeburg (Alemania) un primer IP sobre "Sistemas jurídicos y jurisdicciones europeas con objetivos traduccionales" Lorient (2009), Magdeburg (2010) y Vigo (2011). En la actualidad, participa en un segundo programa "Sistemas jurídicos y derecho de los inmigrantes en la UE: traducir e interpretar en la diversidad" que celebró su primera edición en enero de 2012 en la Universidad Técnica de Bucarest. Para el desarrollo del programa nuestra universidad colabora con las universidades citadas y, además, con la Universidad de Bohemia del Sur: Ceske Budejovice (República Checa), Instituto Supérior de Contabilidade e Administração de Oporto (Portugal) y la Universidad de Ventspils (Letonia).

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Didáctica del discurso publicitario francés en un mundo globalizado: valores socioculturales implícitos desde un enfoque lingüístico comunicativo

Resumen

En el presente estudio nos proponemos analizar el discurso publicitario francés desde un enfoque didáctico atendiendo a factores sociales, culturales y lingüísticos que confluyen en él.

Apoyándonos en un corpus de documentos auténticos franceses, propios de este ámbito especializado, mostraremos cómo los términos gozan de una identidad sociocultural inherente.

En una época desestabilizadora para la identidad de los pueblos y de las personas, la diversidad de matices culturales transmitidos por la lengua francesa en los intercambios comunicativos referidos a este sector, mostrará criterios nacionales y un *savoir-faire* vinculado a dicha cultura sin duda, uno de los argumentos más sólidos en la lucha contra el anonimato de la globalización.

Para mostrarlo analizaremos el discurso publicitario desde un enfoque comunicativo insistiendo en las estrategias adoptadas por el emisor (marca), el referente (producto) y el receptor (público meta), pilares básicos para la explotación didáctica de las diferentes tipologías discursivas que lo componen.

Concluiremos pues afirmando cómo el éxito de referencias de carácter nacional, regional, local, familiar o grupal, son una prueba del inconformismo existente en el marco contextual, histórico y sociocultural en el que se actualizan y simbolizan la reivindicación, tanto de los creativos de publicidad como del público meta, por lo auténtico, por los valores que les son propios.

Palabras clave: didáctica, discurso publicitario, globalización, valores socioculturales, enfoque lingüístico comunicativo.

Teaching of French advertising discourse in a globalized world: sociocultural values implied from a linguistic communicative implied

Abstract

In the present study is to analyze the French advertising discourse from a didactic approach to addressing social, cultural and language that shaped him.

Building on a corpus of authentic French, typical of this specialized field, we show how the terms have an inherent cultural identity.

At a time destabilizing the identity of peoples and individuals, the diversity of cultural nuances conveyed by the French language in communicative exchanges related to this sector will show national standards and know-how linked to the culture without doubt one of the strongest arguments in the fight against the anonymity of globalization. To show this we analyze the sales pitch from a communicative approach emphasizing the strategies adopted by the issuer (mark), the reference (output) and receiver (target audience), basic elements for the operation of the different types didactic discourse within it.

Therefore conclude by stating how the success of references at the national, regional, local, family or group, are proof of nonconformity existing in the contextual, historical and cultural in that update and symbolize claim both the creative advertising and public target for the authentic, for the values they represent.
Keywords: teaching, advertising discourse, globalization, cultural values, linguistic communicative approach.

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Características del mensaje publicitario desde un enfoque comunicativo

El discurso publicitario, resultante de un intercambio comunicativo de características peculiares, se apoya en un hecho paradójico: a pesar de las formas dialógicas estrictas o amplias, el marco argumentativo siempre está dominado por el creativo. No existe pues una manifestación interlocutiva reversible ya que la participación del destinatario se limita a observar el espectáculo del mundo eufórico (publicidad comercial) o disfórico (publicidad social) representado y a reflexionar sobre el mensaje transmitido en simbiosis con él.

Inspirándonos en la terminología clásica de Austin (1970: 137), consideraremos tres dimensiones de los actos discursivos publicitarios: dimensión locutoria (producción textual e icónica); dimensión ilocutoria (fuerza de persuasión) y dimensión perlocutoria (efecto del acto ilocutorio: reacción del destinatario). La comunicación publicitaria comercial se caracteriza por ser un acto ilocutorio indirecto e implícito. El público meta pasa eventualmente a la acción condicionado por dos fases previas: la fase cognitiva y la fase mimética. El deseo de identificación parte de la valoración positiva de una determinada actitud o producto; en este sentido, la publicidad transforma un simple objeto en objeto de valor. El paso de la relación objetiva con el mundo a una relación simbólica se concretiza en las diferentes estrategias comunicativas diseñadas. Los creativos deben tener en cuenta múltiples parámetros: el contexto sociocultural, las necesidades del público meta (indispensables para identificar los resortes psicológicos y determinar los puntos de impacto); el recurso a efectos de persuasión diversos como la seguridad, el erotismo, el hedonismo, la promoción social…; la unidad del tema abordado; la precisión del contenido y del enunciado y especialmente, la gestión del tiempo: por una parte, el lanzamiento de una campaña debe coincidir con el período en el que los individuos son más receptivos al mensaje ej. la publicidad sobre juguetes en fechas navideñas; por otra, la información debe aportarse durante un período científicamente definido, sin interrupción.

- *La persuasión a través de la puesta en relieve*

Según Jouve « La communication publicitaire nous révèle l'homme, dans ses aspirations parfois les plus secrètes et notre société, dans ses valeurs mouvantes et éternelles » (Jouve, 2000 : 3). La publicidad forma parte de su vida social, profesional incluso sentimental desempeñando una función informativa, prescriptiva, de positivismo y unificación social. La puesta en relieve de un determinado elemento del mensaje *(saillance)* se convierte en la clave de acceso al éxito y/o, en su caso, al posible fracaso. "Saillance physique, visuelle et linguistique et saillance cognitive" (Landragin, 2004) constituyen pues el punto de partida en la concepción del mismo. No obstante, « Si la saillance physique est liée à la trace physique du message visuel ou linguistique, être saillant du point de vue cognitif, c'est ressortir en premier de ses intentions de perception, de son attention visuelle et de sa mémoire à court terme, de ses expériences personnelles et de ses émotions » (Lits, 2008 : 28). A cada sujeto le atrae un elemento del mensaje en función de su estado afectivo o emocional, de sus experiencias personales o socioculturales. La *saillance* afecta tanto a palabras como entidades, códigos cromáticos, sonidos, símbolos… dotados de un significado particular para él. De ahí que algunos lingüistas hablen de « sujetos culturalmente *saillants* » por su emotividad y, como recuerdan Rousselet y Fabre-Thorpe (2003) a propósito de la *saillance* visual, el sexo.

La selección minuciosa del léxico utilizado en publicidad, rico en connotaciones, posee pues una *saillance* inherente que lo convierte en desencadenante automático de emociones.

- *Proceso comunicativo: funciones del lenguaje al servicio de la persuasión.*

Apoyándonos en la clasificación establecida por Jakobson (1963: 35) sobre las funciones del lenguaje, subrayaremos cómo el discurso publicitario comercial ocupa el ámbito de lo imaginario, del pensamiento social, moral… introduciéndonos en un universo novedoso digno de ser explorado.

La estrategia argumentativa, persuasiva o incitativa, se compone de diferentes niveles en los que diversos actantes intervienen. Según Perelman est persuasive, une argumentation qui ne prétend valoir que pour un auditoire particulier et convaincante celle qui est censée obtenir l'adhésion en termes de persuasion et d'action, de conviction et d'intelligence (1988: 65).

En las publicidades referidas a productos cuyo eje publicitario es la salud, es frecuente invitar al destinatario a consultar a un experto para que le aporte argumentos de mayor peso científico (médico, farmacéutico…); el referente ocupa un lugar prioritario (función referencial).

El discurso publicitario posee, pues, una función de implicación doble: - implicación directa por un tono imperativo, una apóstrofe, un inciso, un testimonio; - implicación indirecta ya sea por la voluntad de adaptarse al receptor, de ser persuasivo, accesible, o mediante fórmulas que prueban que el creativo se ha preocupado por las necesidades del destinatario y por sus deseos. La combinación de recursos semióticos y retóricos incita al receptor a formar parte de la escena, transformándolo en interlocutor.

Al analizar determinados carteles publicitarios observamos que, a diferencia del consumo voluntario de los spots televisivos, el destinatario de la publicidad publicada en prensa debe ser interpelado y convencido instantáneamente de la necesaria lectura del mensaje propuesto. Estas limitaciones condicionan la concepción de una estructura comunicativa basada en el contacto (función fática).

La función fática aparece vinculada a la función conativa ya que existe una toma de conciencia por parte del receptor que extrae una conclusión del mensaje mostrando su receptividad a la posible aportación de nuevos datos. El creativo de una campaña publicitaria juega a menudo con su emotividad y sensibilidad (función expresiva o emotiva) haciendo que se sienta implícita o explícitamente implicado.
En lo que respecta a la función poética, se pone de manifiesto al elevar el discurso racional al rango metafórico, por ejemplo para enfatizar un determinado aspecto del mensaje.

2. Clasificación de los mensajes publicitarios en función de las estrategias comunicativas adoptadas

2.1.Comunicación centrada en el emisor (marca)

Como señala A. Semprini "La marque attribue aux produits, biens ou services, un univers de signification; elle est une instance sémiotique, une manière de segmenter et d'attribuer du sens d'une façon ordonnée, structurée et volontaire ». (2007: 67).
Firmas (marcas patronímicas, marcas en posición de liderazgo, marcas garantizadas por personajes externos de prestigio), mensajes de carácter profesional (la maca se convierte en símbolo de calidad en su ámbito laboral, en referente), de proximidad (geográfica, afectiva, económica), de principio de vida (la marca como estilo de vida), de proyecto (la marca supone una apertura al futuro), de sensaciones (emociones diversas, valores estéticos e imaginarios)… son tansmitidos por las marcas que forman parte de las dimensiones intangibles del producto aportándole prestigio y dotándolo de personalidad.

Las fuentes de inspiración de las marcas son múltiples: evocación de las funciones de un determinado producto *(Absorba, Mr. Proper, Taillefine...),* onomatopeyas *(Crunch, Scratch, Pschitt...),* asociación favorable de ideas *(Vahiné, Nescoré, Fidgi...),* nombre de la sociedad *(Haribo, Babybel, Caddie,...),* recurso a la antonomasia y en particular, al nombre patronímico de su creador (*Cointreau, Michelin, Renault, Nestlé...).* Destaca por su frecuencia este último tipo de marcas que responde a valores diferentes: espíritu de empresa *(Bonduelle),* altruismo *(Nestlé),* determinismo *(J. P. Morgan),* responsabilidad y obligación *(Nicolas Conté),* reconocimiento *(Perrier),* necesidad *(LU),* oportunidad *(Maggi),* confort *(Lafuma)…*

La personalidad y formación de sus fundadores atribuye a la marca patronímica un valor implícito altamente positivo: médicos *(Dunlop, Kellog, Perrier),* farmacéuticos *(Berger, Lajaunie, Nestlé),* técnicos e ingenieros *(Citroën, Reussinet, Bertin)…* Su formación responde a una tipología lingüística concreta: apodos *(Adidas, Pechiney, Pininfarina),* matrónimos *(Buhler, Buitoni, Nylon),* nombre de los descendientes *(Mercedes, Danone, Cyrillus),* de sus fundadores *(Bernard-Loiseau, Calvin-Klein),* fusiones o adquisiciones *(Moët & Chandon, Roche-Bobois, Unilever...),* nombres patronímicos asociados a topónimos *(Aston-Martin, Dupont d'Isigny.),* nombres sometidos a procedimientos reductores como siglas (DKNY, DD, LU...), acrónimos *(Delco, Ronéo, Sopalin...*), contracciones *(Adidas, Nesquick, Toblerone...),* anagramas *(Norev)…*

Las marcas patronímicas representan la autenticidad, la tradición y los valores implícitos que vinculan el ámbito empresarial y familiar, conjunción perfecta como garantía de éxito empresarial.

2.2. Comunicación centrada en el referente (producto)

Clasificaremos los mensajes transmitidos, centrados en el referente, del siguiente modo: - Mensajes de presentación del producto. –Mensajes calificadores: eficacia, autenticidad, prestigio... -Mensajes de integración: - Producto socializador: signo distintivo; está de moda; el producto es el *must;* es objeto de discriminación sexista; símbolo de unificación social *(Club Méditerranée).* - Producto – amigo: complicidad; fidelidad *(Danonino)*; producto mágico; revelador; fuente de placer y felicidad. – Gag: efecto de comicidad; de euforia; enloquecedor. - Producto sacralizado: sublime *(Caprice des Dieux)*; sensual; ejemplo de buen gusto *(Carte Noire)*; símbolo de elegancia y estilo *(Cartier, Chanel)*; exotismo, mitificación… Numerosas marcas se inspiran en grandes conceptos mitológicos incluso bíblicos (*Kouros*, nombre de perfume que evoca la escultura de un joven que data del Período arcaico del arte griego, 650 – 500 a. J. C., asociada por los historiadores a la representación de Dios). En las obras de

Homero, de Cicerón o de Sócrates encontramos una fuente inagotable de inspiración publicitaria; de ahí, el nombre de numerosos productos y servicios.

Estas manifestaciones publicitarias se refieren a menudo a héroes de la Antigüedad o de la mitología (*La Perla Io eau de parfum* en referencia a Io, hija de Inachus, princesa de Argos amada por Zeus y transformada en ternera para escapar a los celos de Hera); otros, evocan escenarios míticos o connotan motivos diversos como la fuerza viril (*Le Mâle*, perfume de Jean Paul Gaultier), la exaltación de la feminidad (*Clio,* coche con nombre de Musa), el poder, la fuerza *(Ajax,* nombre de detergente tomado del griego Aias, hijo de Telamón considerado invencible tras haber sido cubierto por Hércules con una piel de león cuando era niño) o *Ariel* (nombre masculino de origen hebreo, León de Dios, jefe político de la época de Ezra), la victoria (*Nike* en la mitología griega, diosa de la victoria), lo imaginario, el exotismo (*Jaïpur,* perfume de *Boucheron* cuyo nombre hace referencia a la Ciudad Rosa, capital del Estado de Rajasthan, construida con estuco rosa) y de las tradiciones filosóficas o religiosas (*Samsara*, perfume de *Guerlain*, vinculado a la noción de reencarnación presente en las tradiciones filosóficas de la India). Estos nombres de marca, de origen griego o latino, muestran el interés de los especialistas en publicidad por estos iconos que sacralizan los fundamentos de nuestra sociedad. Apoyándose en ello R. Barthes propone una lectura actualizada y semiológica del mito que representa para él « un système de communication, un message à valeur idéologique » (1957: 72). El mito se convierte pues en publicidad, en un sistema semiológico secundario destinado a transformar la realidad, haciendo pasar aspectos culturales e ideológicos como naturales. Lo que realmente permite diferenciar dos enfoques socioculturales diferentes es la puesta en escena, la manera de organizar el espectáculo.

2.3.Comunicación centrada en el receptor (público meta)

El discurso publicitario es adaptado a ideas preconcebidas, a estereotipos socioculturales del público meta que, al sentirse involucrado activamente en el proceso comunicativo, se transforma en coenunciador. Su mensaje se centra en el éxito pragmático: consumidor competente, experto; producto que responde a sus necesidades y le aporta eficacia, autonomía, creatividad.

En realidad, plantear si el discurso publicitario debe ser considerado como una estructura unilateral o se trata de una forma dialógica abierta a la reversibilidad supone cuestionarnos sobre la naturaleza profunda del mensaje. La publicidad sabe escenificar una reversibilidad formal del circuito comunicativo. Cuando los publicistas dan la palabra a los consumidores (sondeos, encuestas…) se produce un auténtico intercambio comunicativo, canalizado sin duda por los primeros. Sin embargo, el discurso publicitario propiamente dicho debe considerase como monológico ya que el público meta se encuentra sometido a las estrategias persuasivas del creativo. Ambas apreciaciones hacen que sea considerado por numerosos especialistas como un híbrido enunciativo. Al apelar de modo ficticio al público para que contribuya a la elaboración del mensaje, la estrategia persuasiva se transforma en estrategia de autoseducción, dotada de un valor adicional ya que atribuye a una comunicación destinada al gran público la apariencia de una interacción personalizada.

La mayoría de los discursos publicitarios actuales no se dirigen a un público tipo sino a grupos específicos, definidos según tendencias, apoyándose en socioestilos (diferentes estilos de vida de los destinatarios) que no solo dan cuenta de las características socioeconómicas del público meta sino también de sus motivaciones. El *Centre de communication avancée (CCA)* d´*Eurocom* distingue grandes familias de socioestilos en Francia:

- Los activistas: caracterizados por su dinamismo y su sensibilidad ante argumentos prácticos, elitistas e inéditos.
- Los materialistas, preocupados por la seguridad, la utilidad y el pragmatismo, receptivos a argumentaciones divulgativas y simplificadoras que insisten en la funcionalidad y credibilidad de un determinado producto.
- Los rigoristas, conservadores que buscan una argumentación autoritaria, moralista y bien estructurada.
- Los imprevisibles, jóvenes poco afectados por la coyuntura económica, individualistas, anticonformistas, hedonistas abiertos a argumentos humorísticos y estéticos.
- Los egocéntricos, grupo formado especialmente por jóvenes provenientes de sectores afectados por la crisis, especialmente receptivos a argumentos provocativos, espectaculares y, a su vez, sentimentales.

- Los soñadores deseosos de evadirse de los problemas y de la monotonía de la vida cotidiana, dotados de gran imaginación que buscan el exotismo en otras culturas e intentan llevar a la práctica un sueño idealizado.

Estos socioestilos evolucionan constantemente, de ahí la necesidad de readaptarlos según necesidades, como podemos comprobar al analizar diferentes publicidades destinadas a la mujer durante un determinado período sobre un mismo producto. El creativo "predispone" con claridad su discurso según el tipo de clientela a la que se dirige, focalizando su mensaje en función del centro de interés potenciado: mujer – ama de casa, mujer – objeto, mujer- "masculinizada"… En sentido amplio, el discurso publicitario está predeterminado por prejuicios vinculados a la transformación de la mentalidad.

Existe pues una simbiosis entre el mensaje y el público meta. Por una parte, dicho público sobrepasando sus necesidades primarias, atribuye relevancia a necesidades secundarias vinculadas al éxito (social, profesional, personal) o a motivaciones de carácter fantasmagórico (sueño, evasión). Por otra, el discurso publicitario se ve sometido a un importante trabajo figurativo para adaptarse a dichas necesidades. Este trabajo de figuración difumina la comunicación referencial a favor de una comunicación connotativa que responde a sus expectativas. Clasificaremos los mensajes centrados en el receptor en función de: -Su éxito psicoafectivo (consumidor narcisista, seductor). – Su carácter militante (consumidor adepto al producto). – Mensaje de simbiosis (identificación consumidor – producto). - Mensaje con valores culturales implícitos. En una sociedad intercultural como la nuestra, calificada de « postmoderna », el público busca nuevos puntos de referencia, se interesa por sus raíces… Ligados a valores personales y nacionales los nombres de marca representan en el ámbito publicitario un patrimonio cultural identitario: Francia, país de ingenieros (*Renault, Citroën, Michelin*), nación conquistadora *(Danone, L´Oréal, BNP, ACCORD, Carrefour)*; ligada al terruño y a la tradición (*Bonne maman, Ricard, Kir)*; preocupada por la difusión de la cultura *(Fnac, Nouvelles Frontières, Larousse, Hachette, Didier, Hatier…)*; país que apuesta por la vida saludable sin descuidar la alimentación *(LU, Président, Chambourcy),* la higiene o los cuidados de belleza *(Savon de Marseille, Yves Rocher).* Ejemplo de buen gusto, de lujo, elegancia y sensualidad que se manifiesta en sectores tan diversos como la alimentación *(Perrier, Vichy, Moët & Chandon…),* el perfume *(Yves Saint Laurent, Guerlain, Chanel)* o la alta costura *(Chanel, Dior, Christian Lacroix, Lasserre).*

A pesar de los efectos de la globalización, las marcas se convierten a menudo en auténticos abanderados de la cultura que las ha creado.

Conclusión

Tras el análisis realizado nos cuestionamos sobre el valor real de la publicidad en el marco de referencia actual: ¿espejo de la sociedad y, por consiguiente, de una sociedad concreta? o ¿prescriptora de comportamientos y actitudes homogeneizadores que tienden a la uniformidad?

Como indica Jouve "Si la publicité suit sa mission et connaît ses classiques, elle n'est pas moins sensible aux mouvances de notre société" (2000: 262).

La didáctica del discurso publicitario debe partir de la explotación de estas referencias de carácter nacional, regional, local… implícitas en él y que podríamos calificar de "antiglobalizadoras", altamente enriquecedoras en los intercambios comunicativos interculturales, que evidencian el rechazo a ser considerados simples "ciudadanos del mundo" y reivindican nuestra identidad.

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La traducción de los titulares como estrategia didáctica en traducción de textos especializados

Resumen
En este trabajo se pretende demostrar la rentabilidad que ofrece un estudio exhaustivo de los titulares en los textos informativos de la prensa económica para mejorar las habilidades y competencias en la traducción de textos especializados dentro del escenario pos-Bolonia.

En términos generales los titulares recogen la información principal del texto y cumplen diferentes funciones ya que deben despertar el interés del lector e incitar a la lectura de la noticia. Sin embargo, un análisis detallado de los titulares de la prensa financiera y económica nos revela que hay que tener en cuenta una serie de convenciones que separan las culturas y que las convierten en únicas. Por otra parte los titulares son segmentos textuales complejos, autónomos y polifuncionales.

A partir de un elenco de titulares recogidos en un corpus de textos originales de la prensa económica francesa y española mostraremos en un primer momento las tendencias y convenciones ortotipográficas, funcionales y por consiguiente culturales propias a cada una de ellas. Los resultados de un trabajo exhaustivo de estas características estimulan a los estudiantes de traducción de textos especializados a observar, analizar, opinar, formular hipótesis, buscar soluciones, documentarse y descubrir por sí mismos las convenciones y terminología propias de las lenguas y culturas de trabajo. Además una vez dominadas esas convenciones los estudiantes tendrán unos criterios claros a la hora de tomar una decisión para traducir no solo los titulares de los textos periodísticos de carácter especializado sino estructuras sintácticas propias de cada cultura.
Palabras clave: Traducción, titulares, didáctica, habilidades.

Abstract

Holders as a teaching strategy in translation of specialised economic texts.

This work aims to demonstrate the profitability that offer an intensive study of the headlines in the text of the press information to improve the skills and competencies in the translation of specialised texts in the “post- Bologna” plan.

Overall the headlines collect information of the text and serve different functions since they must awaken the reader's interest and encourage the reading of the news. However, a detailed analysis of the holders of the financial and economic news shows that we must take into account a number of protocols that separate cultures and that make them unique. On the other hand textual segments holders are complex, autonomous and multifunctional.

From a list of headlines collected in a corpus of original texts in French and Spanish financial press show at first trends and orthographical and typographical conventions, functional and cultural therefore proper to each. The results of a thorough job of these features encourage students to translate specialized texts to observe, analyze, review, formulate hypotheses, find solutions, documented and discover for themselves the conventions and terminology specific to the languages and cultures of work. In addition, once students mastered these conventions have clear criteria when making a decision to translate not only the headlines of the articles of a specialised nature but syntactic structures of each culture.

Key words: Translation, headlines, didactic, aptitudes/abilities/skills

Algunos aspectos preliminares

En esta comunicación se pretende demostrar la rentabilidad que ofrece un estudio descriptivo de carácter científico y, a la vez, comparativo del titular de una noticia de temática económica financiera en los textos periodísticos para mejorar determinadas competencias relacionadas con el saber (cognitivas), el saber hacer (procedimentales) y el saber ser y saber estar (actitudinales) en la docencia de la traducción especializada en general y la económica en particular. La prensa ofrece numerosos recursos para introducir al aprendiz traductor en la lectura y la traducción del ámbito económico.

A lo larga de la última década se pueden encontrar numerosos estudios que han probado las ventajas que ofrecen los titulares en el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras (Gozalo Gómez 2003). En el ámbito de la traducción y unos años antes, Christiane Nord estudia los titulares en los libros con el objetivo de clasificar y definir el género al que pertenece la obra (Nord, C. 1994: 85-103 *y* Nord, C.1994: 261-284). Ya más recientemente podemos leer otras reflexiones sobre la traducción de los titulares, pero centradas en el inglés lengua de partida (Eva Fernández Samaniego (2010: 265-288).

Este trabajo está orientado a la didáctica de la traducción económica, concretamente a la enseñanza de la materia Traducción económica Idioma I francés-español (directa e inversa) del Grado en Traducción e Interpretación. Las actividades, diseñadas para potenciar determinadas competencias en el aprendizaje del proceso de traducción, pretenden implicar de forma activa al alumnado que deberá participar en el conjunto de acciones que se llevarán a cabo. Se busca así optimizar el rendimiento de su trabajo y cumplir con mayor eficacia los objetivos marcados.

Nuestra experiencia como docente en traducción en la Facultad de Filología y Traducción de la Universidad de Vigo nos ha mostrado que implicar al alumnado en el estudio comparativo de los titulares en español y francés resulta una práctica muy eficaz para que los futuros profesionales de la traducción se familiaricen con las convenciones de las lenguas de trabajo y dominen aspectos esenciales del proceso de traducción el cual incluye la lengua y la cultura, pero también el contexto o situación. Además de controlar la terminología el aprendiz traductor tiene que concentrar sus esfuerzos en los aspectos textuales, pragmáticos contextuales, semióticos o metalingüísticos porque también forman parte del nivel semántico del texto que se traduce.

Objetivos

Por imperativos de espacio y tiempo no nos será posible desglosar todos los objetivos marcados, pero rescatamos en el listado siguiente los más relevantes y aquellos que mayor incidencia ejercen en la formación de los futuros profesionales de la traducción económica.

- Desarrollar destrezas para la búsqueda y evaluación de la información/documentación necesaria. En este sentido, la competencia documental del traductor no se circunscribe al acto puntual de recuperar información a partir de fuentes documentales de diferente índole, sino que engloba también el saber sistematizar la información, compilar un corpus estructurado para la posterior recuperación de la información y extracción de los datos (factográficos, lingüísticos, terminológicos, etc.) requeridos en el proceso traductor (Schnell y Rodríguez 2010: 187).

- Dominar las técnicas terminológicas y neológicas para resolver problemas de traducción, y saber elaborar información terminológica.
- Lograr las habilidades indispensables para la representación y la transferencia de cualquier texto del ámbito económico tanto de la lengua extranjera a la materna como de esta a la lengua extranjera (directa e inversa)
- Mejorar el conocimiento de los principios constitutivos de la comunicación textual dentro del ámbito económico y financiero, reconociendo los principios fundamentales (cohesión, coherencia, intencionalidad, aceptabilidad, informatividad, situacionalidad, intertextualidad), los diferentes tipos de textos y sus funciones.
- Distinguir las cuestiones ortotipográficas o convenciones propias de cada cultura. Por ello se trabajará, en estas primeras actividades, con textos originales y no con traducciones.
- Potenciar la investigación en los aprendices traductores y
- Seguir un enfoque teórico-práctico

Unidades didácticas y contenidos

MÓDULO I: ASPECTOS TEÓRICOS	• El proceso de la traducción. La traducción económica y competencias específicas (documental y terminológica) • Conceptos económicos y financieros básicos: mercados financieros, índices macroeconómicos, instituciones, etc. • La prensa. Tipologías textuales. • Los titulares: definición y características

MÓDULO II. APLICACIONES PRÁCTICAS	• El corpus. Criterios de selección • Análisis contrastivo • Conclusiones

La traducción como proceso, como acto de comunicación y hecho textual

Partimos del hecho de que traducimos textos, es decir, unidades semánticas y pragmáticas cuyo sentido ha de buscarse en una situación comunicativa determinada, en la que la intención del hablante, el destinatario, el canal utilizado y otros elementos de la comunicación delimitan su extensión, su carácter, su estructura y, en definitiva, sus rasgos lingüísticos. Por este motivo trabajamos con un corpus de textos que hemos seleccionado dentro del discurso periodístico y de temática económica en dos culturas diferentes, la española y la francesa. Para una primera aproximación del texto proponemos la definición de Enrique Bernárdez (1982: 85 y 1982: 76). Si bien entre los textos periodísticos y otros tipos de textos median ciertas diferencias que hay que determinar.

La prensa. Tipologías textuales

Formar, informar y entretener son las tres finalidades del periodismo y a pesar de que cada género periodístico cumple varias funciones, los textos periodísticos desempeñan siempre dos funciones: la función informativa y la función pragmática. De ahí que sea necesario tener en cuenta los aspectos pragmáticos (o extratextuales) que intervienen en el acto comunicativo (el emisor y la intención comunicativa, el receptor, el canal (en este caso *on-line*) y el código utilizado. Pues además del lingüístico, los textos periodísticos recurren también a códigos paralingüísticos con elementos ortotipográficos y/o códigos gráficos). Por otra parte, estos textos cuentan con una estructura peculiar que no poseen los textos literarios o científico-técnicos, por ejemplo. De ahí que para facilitar la lectura y la localización de la información los contenidos se organicen en secciones. Junto con los titulares estas secciones se dejan ver como los dos elementos constantes en los textos periódicos los cuales se suelen agrupar en tres géneros: informativos (noticia, reportaje y entrevista), de opinión (editorial, columna) y mixtos (crónica y crítica). La noticia es la modalidad principal de la prensa y consta de tres bloques: el titular, la entradilla y el cuerpo[22]. A su vez el cuerpo se estructura generalmente en forma de pirámide invertida, es decir de lo más a lo menos importante, siendo el titular lo primero que leen los lectores y a veces lo único. Pues el titular junto con "la entrada, o primer párrafo de la noticia, tienen como objetivo satisfacer la curiosidad del lector e informarle del contenido de la noticia, sin que sea necesario acudir al resto de la información" (Gozalo Gómez, 2003: 658).

Los titulares de la prensa económica. Definición y funciones.

El titular se exhibe, pues, como el elemento fundamental de una información y en el reside la clave para la correcta decodificación de la misma, ya que representa "la expresión del más alto nivel de la macroestructura informativa" Van Dijk 1990 [1980]: 83). Prácticamente todos los estudiosos coinciden en el carácter de resumen de los titulares. A su vez, Álex Grijelmo (2008: 465) considera que la tarea de escribir titulares constituye el principal trabajo periodístico porque forman el elemento más relevante de una información y los que deben atraer al lector, sintetizando al mismo tiempo lo que se quiere decir. Al tratarse de un resumen, el titular "funciona como un texto autónomo del cuerpo mismo de la información" (Sánchez García 2009: 287). La función de resumir el contenido de la información ya la había destacado Alarcos Llorach en "El lenguaje de los titulares" (1977: 141-142). Según este gramático los titulares proporcionan un resumen del contenido de la noticia, pero cumplen al menos otras tres funciones más: nos informan de la noticia, a la que identifican, jerarquizan y clasifican; son una llamada al lector y despiertan en él interés por la lectura de la noticia; y muestran la disposición, la

[22] Lo que denominamos titulares son con frecuencia unidades que pueden estar compuestas por:

- el epígrafe: título de la sección en la que se incluye el texto
- el antetítulo y subtítulo (o sumario) que complementan al título y suelen contar con un número mayor de palabras que el título.
- el título que resume el contenido de la noticia y cuya aparición es obligatoria
- la línea de crédito que identifica al responsable de la información y el lugar de procedencia.

No mencionamos la entradilla (o *lead*) que se encuentra entre el título y la noticia porque debe ofrecer al lector de una manera clara y precisa los principales datos de la información que se van a desarrollar en el cuerpo.

intención, el estado de ánimo del redactor. El titular requiere una mayor elaboración y realiza por lo tanto tres funciones esenciales de la lengua: ofrece contenidos fundamentales (función representativa), llama la atención del lector (función apelativa) y manifiesta intenciones y valoraciones del redactor (función expresiva).

Sin embargo, si aplicamos el modelo cuatrifuncional de Christiane Nord (2010: 239-255), completamos la lista de las tres funciones básicas de Karl Bühler (1934, 1979) que acabamos de señalar con una cuarta función, la fática. Esta función que ya incluira Roman Jakobson (1960) es la responsable de mostrar cómo se desenvuelve la comunicación entre emisor y receptor (establecer, mantener o eliminar la situación comunicativa). A su vez consta de cuatro subfunciones: abrir el contacto, mantener el contacto, cerrar el contacto y desenvolver la relación entre emisor y receptor. Se trata de una clasificación abierta que debe definirse en principio por el acto de lectura. Si el titular funciona como un texto autónomo, resume lo esencial de la noticia y es polifuncional ¿cuáles son los elementos formales que lo encuadran en una función predominante?

Descripción de las aplicaciones prácticas.

Elaboración de corpus de textos y titulares

Nuestra actividad está diseñada para la Traducción económica Idioma I de Grado en Traducción e Interpretación de la Universidad de Vigo que se imparte por primera vez en el segundo cuatrimestre del cuarto curso (2012-2013). Consta de 6 créditos ECTS, 150 horas de trabajo de las cuales 48 se desarrollan de forma presencial en el aula y las 102 horas restantes representan el trabajo personal del alumnado. La experiencia y el trabajo de campo ya se han llevado a cabo con otros grupos, aplicando estos mismos parámetros. Describimos el que se ha realizado con un grupo de alumnos de Traducción de textos económicos de 4º curso (traducción inversa) de la Licenciatura de Traducción e Interpretación de la Universidad de Vigo, adaptando la materia a las exigencias del Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior (EEES).

Una vez definido el marco teórico se proporciona la lista de los diarios de la prensa española y francesa para que el alumnado se amolde a un corpus con unos criterios bien definidos y se mantenga atento a las noticias. El objetivo consiste en conseguir recopilar información de forma regular a lo largo del cuatrimestre, sistematizar la documentación pertinente, procesarla y crear los documentos según las necesidades de las tareas que se van imponiendo[23]:

Ámbito lingüístico	Prensa española	Prensa francófona
Ámbito cultural	ESPAÑA	FRANCIA
Prensa general	*EP: EL País* (A, D,) *EM. El Mundo* (B, E) *LV: La Vanguardia* (C, F)	*LF: Le Figaro* (A, D.) *LM: Le Monde* (B, E.) *LI: Libération* (C, F.)
Prensa especializada	*EE: EL Economista* (A, C, E.) *EX: Expansión* (B, D, F)	*LE: Les échos* (A, C, E) *LT : La Tribune* (B, D, F)

CORPUS

El alumnado se verá en la obligación de leer todos los días la prensa y estar informado a través de las noticias emitidas alrededor del tema que se propone, a la vez que deberá estar atento a las diferencias formales o convencionales de cada cultura. Entre otras cosas, el ejercicio motiva al aprendiz traductor a la lectura, incrementa su competencia documental y terminológica, consolida lo aprendido y permite mejorar su expresión escrita tanto en español como en francés (inversa y directa).

[23] Estas tareas se desarrollan de forma paralela y sirven de material auxiliar a las actividades y pruebas prácticas de tareas de traducción reales o simuladas que ocupan al menos el 35% del trabajo total del alumnado.

El tema que se ha trabajado giraba alrededor de la crisis del euro, del Mercado de la Deuda Pública, concretamente la Deuda Pública en el contexto de la Unión Europea y la prima de riesgo de Grecia, España e Italia. Los textos que analizamos aquí han sido publicados entre el periodo comprendido entre septiembre 2011 y diciembre 2011. Por otra parte, trabajaremos únicamente con textos originales (se rechazarán las traducciones) para poder comparar con mayor fidelidad y sin posibles interferencias las tendencias de cada cultura. Acudiremos a la vez a la prensa generalista y a la especializada para contrastar la inclinación de los diarios de divulgación y de los especializados.

Se puede trabajar de forma individual o en grupo de tres alumnos identificados con letras (véase cuadro 1). En nuestro trabajo de campo hemos formado grupos de tres estudiantes a los que les hemos asignado dos diarios diferentes, uno de carácter general y otro especializado. El análisis se puede llevar más allá de la mera comparación de las publicaciones, ya que nos permite contrastar de forma transversal los resultados entre los distintos grupos. Los estudiantes (por grupo) han de presentar un documento Word para cada publicación periódica en la que los textos deberán aparecer correctamente identificados en los que será preciso conservar absoluta fidelidad a cuestiones como la puntuación y otros signos ortotipográficos (siglas, acrónimos, cifras, comillas y espacios irrompibles antes y después de la doble puntuación como las comillas, los dos puntos, la interrogación y la exclamación, etc.) que forman parte de las convenciones propias de cada cultura y que junto con las funciones serán objeto de estudio. Los alumnos de grado en T&I que hayan cursado la materia optativa de Ortotipografía tendrán la ocasión de consolidar lo aprendido y los demás se familiarizarán con estos aspectos indispensables a una buena traducción.

Observación y análisis del material recogido

Recordemos que la observación y el análisis del material que se va recogiendo a lo largo de todo el cuatrimestre se realiza de forma paralela a actividades de traducción propiamente dicha. Se trata por lo tanto de ejercicios de apoyo relacionados con la resolución de problemas de traducción y la adquisición de competencias. Veamos unos ejemplos de la prensa francesa:

DRIF, Anne, 2/12/2011 **Liquidité : la crise de l'été a coûté cher aux banques.** *Les Échos* nº 21071. http://archives.lesechos.fr/archives/2011/LesEchos/21071-145-ECH.htm?texte=la prime de risque [consultation 15/12/21011]

Gazanne Hayat 13/09/2011 Les pays émergents pourraient venir au secours de l'Europe. Le Figaro. <http://www.lefigaro.fr/conjoncture/2011/09/13/04016-20110913ARTFIG00647-les-pays-emergents-pourraient-venir-au-secours-de-l-europe.php>

La Tribune 28/10/2011 **Chine : jusqu'à 100 milliards pour aider l'Europe** <http://www.latribune.fr/actualites/economie/international/20111028trib000660220/chine-jusqu-a-100-milliards-pour-aider-l-europe.html>

Libération 13/09/11 **La Grèce fait brûler les banques.** http://www.liberation.fr/economie/01012359515-la-grece-fait-bruler-les-banques

Le Monde avec *AFP* 24/11/2011 **Crise de l'euro : les enjeux du sommet Merkel-Sarkozy-Monti** <http://www.lemonde.fr/europe/article/2011/11/24/zone-euro-merkel-sarkozy-et-monti-a-strasbourg-pour-un-mini-sommet_1608317_3214.html>

Asimismo presentamos algunos de los titulares recogidos en la prensa española en fechas, si no idénticas, al menos muy próximas que dedican un espacio más o menos relevante a los acontecimientos más relevantes relacionados con el tema que se ha propuesto:

GALVÁN, Rocío 13/09/2011 **¿Salvarán los Brics a los Pigs?** http://www.elmundo.es/elmundo/2011/09/13/economia/1315927176.html [Consulta 13/09/2011]

El Economista 13/09/2011 **Los BRICS estudian elevar la compra de bonos europeos para apoyar a la Eurozona** http://www.eleconomista.es/publicidad/bolsa12/flash/noticias/3371196/09/11/Los-BRIC-consideran-compras-de-bonos-europeos-para-apoyar-a-la-Eurozona.html

El País 13/09/2011 **Merkel llama al orden a los que especulan con la quiebra de Grecia** http://www.elpais.com/articulo/economia/Merkel/llama/orden/especulan/quiebra/Grecia/elpepueco/20110913elpepueco_1/Tes

Expansión 14/09/2011 **Francia advierte de que la quiebra de Grecia dejaría frágiles a España o Italia** http://www.expansion.com/2011/09/14/economia/1315994445.html?a=b2274f4a64d9114faec56e04c5c28871&t=1325708657

La Vanguardia 2/11/2011 **La UE congela la ayuda urgente de 8.000 millones a Grecia hasta que se celebre el referéndum** http://www.lavanguardia.com/economia/20111102/54237462130/la-ue-congela-la-ayuda-urgente-de-8-000-millones-a-grecia-hasta-que-se-celebre-el-referendum.html

Lo primero que salta a la vista es que los titulares en ambas lenguas nunca aparecen en primera persona, sino en tercera. Sin embargo, la gramática y la sintaxis de los diarios en una y otra cultura difieren en las formas verbales y en la ortotipografía. En segundo lugar, todos resumen en pocas palabras el contenido principal de la noticia porque deben informar al lector de qué trata la noticia que encabeza, de ahí que sus notas características sean el resumen, la contracción y la alusión. No obstante, podemos constatar que, contrariamente a los franceses, la ausencia de verbo en los titulares españoles es muy escasa, por lo que los titulares extensos abundan más en la prensa española que en la francesa. Ello no quiere decir que los franceses interpreten menos los hechos que los españoles o que sus titulares den lugar a mayor equívoco. No olvidemos que el estilo periodístico ha de ser claro y crear sorpresa formal o/y de contenido (Grijelmo, 2008: 307-309).

La puntuación.

Los titulares franceses concentran y resumen la noticia empleando recursos como los signos ortográficos (dos puntos y comas) y la nominalización del titular. De esta forma se simplifica la sintaxis pero se mantiene íntegra la estructura gramatical. El signo tipográfico de los dos puntos sustituye conectores y evita recargar así el estilo. También suple al verbo y anuncian una cita, una enumeración, una causa, una consecuencia o una explicación como el caso que sigue.

> LEFEBVRE, Étienne; Massimo Prandi, Anne Drif, Richard Hiault, Rejane Reibaud, Isabelle Couet et Nessim Aitkacimi 13/09/2011 **Crise de la zone euro : les 10 questions clefs.** http://www.lesechos.fr/entreprises-secteurs/finance-marches/actu/0201630003264-crise-de-la-zone-euro-les-10-questions-clefs-218455.php

La nominalización.

Por todo ello podemos decir que el hablante en lengua francesa opta por una oración nominal allí donde el español recurre al empleo de un verbo concreto y una subordinada. A la hora de traducir un titular o incluso otra oración dentro de un texto del español al francés deberemos evitar las subordinadas y las formas verbales si existe una posibilidad de nominalizar para mantener el genio del idioma y optimizar la legibilidad del texto. La falta de verbo en francés responde a esa necesidad de concisión. Incluso se acude al empleo de participio sin auxiliar porque como apunta Furet (1995:

55) «Très souvent les verbes auxiliaires (être, avoir, faire) peuvent disparaître sans aucun dommage:… Mieux vaut un titre sans verbe qu'un titre alourdi d'un verbe faible voire inexistant». En cambio el emisor español utiliza verbos concretos y subordinadas para evitar ambiguedades innecesarias. Pues una de las caracterísitcas básicas del estilo periodístico se fundamenta en las tres "C": escribir con claridad, corrección y concisión.

La voz pasiva

El francés también recurre a la voz pasiva con menor frecuencia que el inglés pero con mayor constancia que el español por lo que el traductor del francés al español tendrá que dar preferencia a la activa frente a la pasiva:

La influencia del inglés y del francés, idiomas donde la pasiva adquiere mayor presencia que en español, está conduciendo a muchos periodistas a olvidar el verdadero genio de su idioma. Y también a los traductores poco duchos en su oficio: no se pueden trasladar literalmente al castellano las continuas construcciones pasivas de un texto inglés o francés, porque al final resultará un texto poco español, pese a que lo leamos en palabras castellanas. (Grijelmo, 2008: 177)

El complemento circunstancial

Otra constante en la sintaxis de la oración francesa y en los titulares es la anteposición del complemento circunstancial para resaltar una información o enfatizar una noticia:

> FAUJAS Alain 05/11/2011 **Au G20, la zone euro laissée seule à ses tourments**
> http://www.lemonde.fr/crise-financiere/article/2011/11/05/au-g20-la-zone-euro-laissee-seule-a-ses-tourments_1599548_1581613.html

Conclusión

Los titulares brindan un material muy rentable para la didáctica de la traducción porque sintetizan las funciones de los textos y su extensión resulta más manejable. Además su análisis supone para el alumnado una herramienta eficaz no solo para descubrir las funciones, sino para reconocer y asimilar las principales convenciones lingüísticas de las culturas y lenguas de trabajo. El adecuado desarrollo de los contenidos y la participación activa del alumnado en la construcción de su propio aprendizaje —en la que se convierte en actor principal y no en mero actor pasivo— mejora las competencias lingüísticas, textuales y traductoras en el aprendiz traductor.

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Van Dijk (1990)

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An examination of the concept of 'genre' as a tool for the design of speaking activities for English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

Abstract

This paper presents the results of the study of using the concept of 'genre' for designing and teaching speaking activities to ESP students of political management in Bremen University (Germany). While genre-based methodology has been extensively applied for teaching academic writing in ESP, less attention has been paid to oral academic genres. In this study the concept of genre is used as a tool for the development of speaking activities to teach the genre of political discussion to ESP students of political management in Bremen University of applied Sciences. The research for the materials development is based on access routes for the designer of academic English courses described by John Swales (1990). Internet video resources have been used to select a corpus of extracts of political discussions. SFL- and ESP- based approaches to genre analysis of the selected corpus made it possible to identify lexico-grammatical and phonological features as well as pragmatic meta-discourse relevant to teaching the genre of political discussion. Speaking activities were designed for five phases of teaching and learning cycles (building the context, modelling and analysis, scaffolding for independent construction of texts, independent production of a genre, comparing to models) (Feez, 2001). Activities included analysing generic structure, practising pragmatic skills, practising the genre of speaking on a small scale. The data of video recordings of the learners' performance at the stage of production as well as their self- and peer-assessment reports have been analysed in order to evaluate the effectiveness of genre-based methodology for teaching speaking in ESP. Descriptors for assessment of pragmatic and linguistic competence in discussions have been developed on the basis of the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference). Relevance of a genre-based approach to teaching speaking in ESP in light of post Bologna context is discussed.

Key words: genre-based teaching, genre analysis, oral genres

This paper presents the results of two- year research conducted by the presenter for the Doctorate in Education at the Open University (UK). The research is aimed at examining the process and effectiveness of using the concept of genre for teaching speaking to ESP students of Political Management in Bremen University.

Despite the fact that genre-based methodology has been increasingly popular in recent years, its focus has been mainly on teaching writing. The general view has been that 'spoken language is concrete, context-dependent and structurally simple' (Biber, 1988:

However, it may be argued that speaking plays an important role both in the academic environment and in the workplace of university graduates who need to be able to use English in formal oral communication. Indeed, English is an international language being used as a Lingua Franca, for instance, in many Master courses in European universities, as well as at conferences and business meetings in numerous European institutions and organisations.

Due to recent changes introduced into the German higher education system in line with the Bologna process, students are expected to spend two semesters abroad as a part of their university study programme. In this respect teaching speaking is becoming more important since proficiency in oral communication is one of the major requirements for such programmes. Genre-based methodology provides a perfect theoretical framework for designing speaking activities for such learners because it lays emphasis on authentic spoken genres produced in certain cultural and social contexts. Mastering the structural, lexico-grammatical and phonological features of these genres will help students to function better in the new environment.
One of the tasks of this research is to obtain further findings in exploring the use of genre-based methodology for teaching speaking and to see how genre methodology on writing can be modified for researching and teaching spoken genres.

Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework for the research is based on ideas of text-based teaching and learning, also known as genre pedagogy, which grew out of systemic-functional linguistics developed by Halliday (1994). The text-based approach suggests that 'language occurs as whole texts which are embedded in the social contexts in which they are used' (Knight, 2001, p.162), and that language is learnt through working with texts which exemplify different genres.

Since the educational goals of students of political sciences and political management may be viewed as part of ESP, it was the ESP approach suggested by Swales (1990) that guided the research in identifying relevant oral genres in this project. His framework for the development of academic English courses to design research methodology was used in this project. The following three theoretical concepts have been instrumental: the concept of genre, a discourse community and a framework for developing academic English courses.

Access routes for the designer described by John Swales (1990) were used to design the following stages of the research:

1) Ethnographic studies of the relevant discourse community; Identifying oral genres relevant to the students' needs;
2) Genre analysis: Identifying lexico-grammatical and phonological features of these genres
3) Designing the activities to teach the identified oral genres
4) Genre-based teaching
5) Analysis of data from the stage of teaching
6) Introducing changes into the syllabus

At the stage of the ethnographic studies a questionnaire was designed for a discourse community of students of political management who had returned from a semester abroad. As a result of the study it has been revealed that the most frequent rhetorical situations in which English is needed in an academic environment are discussions, presentations and seminars. Due to the limitations of the time and scope of the project further research was focused on the genre of discussion.

Selection of corpus

Since genre-based teaching is based on the selection of authentic texts, initially the main criterion for preparing texts both for genre analysis and teaching was authenticity. I have been exploring three different types of resources: corpora, such as the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE), English as a Lingua Franca in

Academic Settings (ELFA) and British Academic Spoken English (BASE); TV materials, such as BBC programmes, for instance Big Questions; and general YouTube videos. Several problems have been identified while considering the Corpora for modelling. First, the availability of materials is limited, and only MICASE presents sample audio materials with transcriptions online, while the others offer a selection of transcripts without audio or video recordings. Another problem for practitioners is that according to the terms and conditions of use of most of the corpora (e.g. BASE, ELFA), corpus holdings are not supposed to be reproduced in full for a wider audience (i.e. for publication or for teaching purposes).

Another aspect which should be taken into account while modelling authentic oral genres is the length of texts selected for teaching since it takes quite a long time to listen or watch a complete event, whereas a teaching session normally lasts only ninety minutes. Therefore, it is suggested to select short extracts of several minutes both for research analysis and for the purposes of teaching. It should be noted that while selecting texts for modelling, a practitioner faces the dilemma between the quality of the presented materials and the authenticity, since an authentic model of an oral genre may not necessarily be the best model to follow. For this reason it may be necessary to use some of the available commercial teaching materials which exemplify the selected genres and can be analysed in order to identify specific features of these genres. In this part of the project, attempts have been made to select texts for modelling the genres of political discussions, presentations and seminars.

Models of the genre of academic political discussion have proven to be the most problematic to obtain since universities do not provide access to relevant online materials. Thus, BBC discussion programmes have been transcribed for creating the corpus, which was then analysed to identify the specific lexico-grammatical and phonological features of the genre of discussion

Discussion is a genre in which ‘people take up positions, pursue arguments and expound on their opinions on a range of matters, with or without some sort of lead-figure or chairperson’ (Carter and McCarthy, 1997:10). It is argued in this project that BBC discussion programmes can exemplify this genre since they model the argumentative discussion of politics-related educated speakers in the formal settings. In the academic settings of a university, students are expected to be able to lead and actively participate in this type of communicative event.

Six extracts from three BBC discussion programmes with an average of 1,500 words each have been transcribed using Eggins and Slade (1997) transcription conventions. The extracts were chosen to represent the speech of both non-native and native speakers of English and include regional variations.

Genre analysis of the corpus

The genre analysis of the extracts was aimed at revealing phonological and lexico-grammatical features in these texts that are essential for designing speaking activities to teach this genre.

Genre analysis of intonation

A qualitative approach based on Halliday and Greaves (2008) Systemic Functional Phonology is taken for the genre analysis of intonation aimed at investigating various examples of the use of intonation in the transcribed extracts.

One of the most important functions of intonation is organising textual meanings which can be performed through the systems of tonality and tonicity. Tonality divides spoken discourse into its separate individual intonation units containing one piece of information which in an unmarked case coincides with a single clause.

Here is an example of marked and unmarked tonality in one of the extracts:

Intonation units (Unmarked tonality (UT) if an intonation unit coincides with a clause):

> And therefore (Marked tonality)
> whatever people want to believe in the privacy of their own home, (UT)
> in the privacy of whatever religion they're practising, (UT)
>> they're free to do that, (UT)
>> but to teach young people things that we know they're not true, (UT)
>> is tantamount to abuse of young people (UT)
>> within the classroom situation. (Marked tonality)

The findings of Tench (1996) and Halliday and Greaves (2008) were used to investigate how the inter-personal function is expressed through intonation. Interpersonal meanings relate to different tones which help to convey the attitude of the speaker towards the listener and towards the content of his/her own message. Halliday and Greaves have identified different attitudinal meanings that are associated with the five primary tones in English: a strong attitude for a rise-fall, reserved for a fall-rise, non-committal for level rising, challenging for a rise and neutral for a fall. In addition, Tench (1996) argues that the effect of attitude is mainly to be found in the extent of fall.

Examples of using attitudinal tones:

1) We need to look at the science without this loaded interpretation. (The wide fall for dominance, shows confidence in one's knowledge)

2) Evolution is a fact. (The wide fall for expressing confidence in one's knowledge)

Making students aware of intonation units is an important part of teaching intonation in this project. The tasks suggested for teaching activities include identifying intonation units while listening to texts belonging to different genres as well as reading out the texts with the marked tonality and comparing it to the original. Ultimately students are expected to be able to divide their utterances into appropriate intonation units.

Analysis of lexico-grammatical features

The analysis of lexico-grammatical features specific for the genre of political discussion is based on the Systemic – functional perspective. Two meta-functions have been examined in detail: the textual meta-function which organises text into a coherent whole, and the interpersonal meta-function which investigates meanings about roles and relationships. A combination of quantitative and qualitative methods was used to conduct genre analysis.

A theoretical framework for the first part of the analysis of the textual meta-function draws on the approach taken in Plum's (1988) dissertation. It is aimed at identifying the prevalent types of clause complexes in order to examine the syntactic complexity of spoken discourse belonging to the genre of a TV discussion. Three types of language structures were examined: independent single clauses, clause complexes and ellipses.

Frequency counts showed that clause complexes with hypotactic relations between clauses are the prevalent type of language structures in the genre of political discussion. Surprisingly, the analysis has shown that elliptical clauses are an insignificant part in these texts. At the same time there are very few unfinished sentences in all five extracts. This may be a special feature of the genre of a political discussion in which the effect of persuasiveness depends to a large extent on the clarity of presented arguments, and speakers are normally given a longer time to express their views. Another reason for the absence of many elliptical sentences may be the factor related to the speakers' awareness of their participation in a discussion and preparation for it. It is interesting to note that speakers mostly leave their sentences unfinished if they are interrupted, however even in this case they make a second attempt to repeat their message.

Hyland's (1998) approach to characterising metadiscourse in academic written texts was employed to examine and classify linguistic means in spoken discourse of political discussions. Hyland (1998) distinguishes between textual and interactional meta-discourse which reflects the Hallidayan SFL approach to the analysis of three meta-functions. The following categories of textual metadiscourse that have been used by Hyland (1998) seem to be useful for examining the textual meta-function in spoken discourse: logical connectives, which express semantic relations between main clauses and frame markers, which explicitly refer to discourse acts or text stages. In addition, ways of adapting this approach to the analysis of spoken interactions were explored and several new categories were created by the researcher.

The following categories were used to analyse textual meta-discourse in discussions. The category of logical connectives, which 'helps readers interpret pragmatic connection between ideas by signalling additive, resultive and contrastive relations' (Hyland, 1998, 442) and the category of frame markers, which are 'explicit references to text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure, either introducing shifts in the discourse or preparing for the next step in the argument' (Hyland, 1998, p.443). Three more subcategories were added to 'sequencing' and 'announcing the discourse' used by Hyland (1998). These are 'stating the intention of giving or demanding information', 'focussing' and 'insisting on carrying on when interrupted'.

Below are some examples of frame markers identified in the corpus of TV discussions.

Frame markers

a)Sequencing

1) I think there are two things quickly. One is that … (Ex6)

2) I think that the second thing that I want to say (Ex6)

b)Announcing discourse goal

1) my view is

2) the point is that

c) Stating the intention of giving/ demanding information

1. Can I just say
2. We ask this morning

d) Focussing:

1) relating to another point
2) I'm following the professor's earlier comments. (Ex1)
3) addressing the point whether or not we should be coming out

e) Insisting on continuing a speech act when interrupted

1) Let me just make my point. (Ex1)
2) I just want to give you a little story and I hope you will give me time to say this

A new category was introduced by the researcher to conduct the analysis of linguistic means used by speakers to emphasise salient points in an argument. These are 'emphasising markers' which reflect the rhetorical function of persuasion that may be considered the key function in an argumentative discussion. It is suggested here that emphasising meta-discourse can be sub-divided into several groups depending on the language structures used for emphasis. The following types of emphasising meta-discourse have been identified:

Cleft sentences:

> What we need to do is to use the existing laws we've got

Rhetorical questions:

> Right, some people might think that the battle of Hastings was in 1266, but we don't actually teach that, we teach that it was in 1066 (applause), right?

Heads:

Heads[24] is a language structure which involves placement of a topic theme at the front of a clause.

> Seven million people have been made refugees, how's that a success or doing the Afghan people a favour?

Repetition:

> There has been a terrible loss of confidence in the police.(…) There has been a huge loss of confidence this week in the police.

Accumulation:

Its function is to add more information or ideas; it is expressed by semantic chains:.

> …they are people's husbands, and wives, and brothers, and fathers, etcetera, etcetera. And so they needed reinforcement

The results of the analysis, which involved frequency counting, are presented in the following table:

	Extract 1	Extract 2	Extract 3	Extract 4	Extract 5	Extract 6	Total
Logical connectives a)additive relations	6 (and)	6 (and)	8 (and)	4 (and)	3 (and)	15 (and)	42
b)Contrastive relations	17 (but)	8 (but)	1 (but)	3 (but)	0	3 (but)	27
c)Resultive relations	2	3	3	2 (because So)	2 (so That's why	5	17
d)Conditional relations	1 (if)	2 (if)	2 (if)	7 (if)	5(if)	6 (as long as If, when)	23
Frame markers							

[24] The term is taken from Carter and McCarter's (1997) glossary of important terms for describing spoken language

a)Sequencing	0	1	0	0	1	3	4
b)Announcing discourse goal	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
c) Stating the intention of giving or demanding information	1	1	2	2	1	5	12
d)Focussing	2	4	1	1	1	0	9
e)Insisting on continuing a speech act when interrupted	5	0	0	1	0	0	1
Emphasising markers							
a)Cleft sentences	3	18	4	3	0	10	38
b)Heads	0	2		0	0	3	5
c)Tails	0			0	0	3	3
d)Repetition	2	3	1	1	0	2	9
e)Rhetorical questions	1	2	4	4	0	1	12
f)Accumulation	1	2	1	3	0	3	10

The analysis has shown which textual meta-discourse is used in the genre of political discussion. In the category of frame markers, 'stating the intention of giving or demanding information' and 'focussing' are the groups with the highest number of items which reflect the nature of the genre of discussion. Indeed, these are markers which help to concentrate the listener's attention on the discourse that follows and enhance its expressiveness.

The four types of emphasising textual markers most frequently used in the transcribed extracts are cleft sentences (38), rhetorical questions (12), accumulation (10) and repetition (9). These are clearly the language structures that are most relevant for teaching and therefore specific activities are needed to teach them. On the whole, students should be made aware which of these structures are specific for spoken interaction and genre awareness exercises should be designed to familiarise them with the various features which distinguish politics-related speaking and writing in terms of textual organisation.

All in all, the analysis has shown that although the genre of political discussions is a spoken genre, it has several features which distinguish it from other spoken interactions, such as casual conversations. The oral contributions of speakers in discussions show their high level of knowledge of a subject, experience in expressing their views and the ability to formulate complete sentences. Therefore, in terms of production, this kind of discourse may be considered planned and to some extent prepared, even though speakers are expected to produce their arguments spontaneously. This means that participation in a political discussion is a very demanding experience which requires at least some preparation.

Activities for teaching the genre of discussion

In designing a set of activities for teaching the selected genres of oral speech to students of political management, I drew on the five-phase methodology of interactive cycles of teaching and learning. This model was introduced by Rothery (1996) and described by Feez (2001: 223). In addition, the design of the activities was based on Vygotsky's (1934/1978; 1986, cited in Feez, 2001) ideas on teaching as co-construction of meaning

by the teacher and the learners during teaching-learning cycles. This approach provides a useful framework for selecting, organising and sequencing the elements of activities, therefore helping learners to move to a stage of independent language use.
Activities have been developed for three teaching and learning cycles to teach discussion skills in five phases. Each teaching and learning cycle was designed for 2-3 lessons and covered a certain topic.

Phase 1: Building context. At this phase learners explore the social and cultural context of the target text type preparing ‘the foundation of subsequent language learning’ (Feez, 2001:223). Activities for this phase of teaching in my project included viewing videos of relevant TV programmes (such as Panorama on BBC), listening to radio programmes (e.g. Radio 4 ‘Today’), and guided reading of relevant material.

Phase 2 is modelling and deconstructing texts. It is central to genre-pedagogy since it is aimed at demonstrating tools of genre analysis to learners and at raising their genre awareness. The teacher’s role here was that of an expert guiding learners by eliciting answers to the prepared questions. Three types of discussions were presented to learners: BBC Sunday Live, BBC Question Time and BBC Big Questions. The students’ task was to identify a generic structure of texts presented to them. Students’ attention was drawn to the common moves in the generic structure of the discussions of controversial issues.

Whilst viewing the discussions for the second time, students were asked to follow the transcript and highlight textual meta-discourse identified in the genre analysis as characteristic of this genre. In particular, students’ attention was drawn to thematic emphasisers, such as rhetorical questions and cleft sentences, i.e. those language structures which are used to achieve the rhetorical function of persuasion in an argumentative discussion. The aim of the exercise was demonstrating to students the frequency of these features in this genre and their role in emphasising ideas.

Example of activities:

Watch the video again and pay attention to the ways each of the speakers uses to make their argument sound more convincing. Look at the script and find sentences in the text which mean the following but are expressed differently:

1) The reason why there isn't a regulatory body is the cowardice of politicians (S1).
2) We need to use the existing laws. (S3)

(Answers: 1) There's only one wrong reason why there isn't a regulatory body and that's been the cowardice of politicians up till now. 2) what we need to do is to use the existing laws we've got.)

b) Do the speakers ask rhetorical questions? Highlight the rhetorical questions that they ask.

Further activities for genre analysis were aimed at examining both textual meta-discourse, for instance repetition and accumulation, and inter-personal meta-discourse, such as hedges and attitude markers. Micro-analysis of a few separate arguments permitted exploring these features in detail.

An important part of the deconstruction of texts of oral genres was identifying phonological features. Conducting some analysis of kinesic features, such as body language, eye gaze, mimics, was helpful for drawing comparison between German and English cultural conventions associated with the genre of a political discussion in this mode of communication.

Examples of activities for the analysis of kinesic features:

Read this part of the script and answer the questions below.

- S1 Would more pro-acting policing, more force, have calmed things down, shut things down earlier?

S2 Ah I don't know about force (smiling). …

1) Does Speaker 2 give a direct answer to the question? Why do you think she is smiling when she answers the question? Is it common to smile in a situation like this in your culture?
2) How does Speaker 2 express her attitude (underline the words she uses to describe her feelings).

….

4) Do gestures that she uses help her to sound more convincing? What do you think about using gestures while presenting an argument?

Phase 3: Practice: Special activities have been developed for practising the use of meta-discourse identified as important for mastering the genre of discussion at the stage of genre analysis.

Phase 4: Independent construction. At the end of the cycle, students presented their work to the class. Since groups held discussions in front of the class, their performance could be observed by other students as well as by the researcher who had an opportunity to video record them. During this phase, learners were expected to apply the skills of genre analysis they acquired earlier and to analyse each other's contributions.

Examples of activities:

Brainstorm a list of topical issues in relation to immigration that you would like to discuss. Form groups with a host and two sides with different opinions and prepare for a discussion. Use an assessment form to assess your performance.

Phase 5: Comparing to the model/ assessment. Students were asked to provide self-assessment and peer-assessment reports which were used for evaluating the effectiveness of the activities. This phase was essential for the production of oral genres since it gave students an opportunity to compare their contributions and provide feedback to each other. At the same time, this stage was used to collect data on students' performance in the form of video recordings.

Evaluating the effectiveness of genre-based methodology

Data for this stage of the project consisted of observational notes from the teacher's journal produced during the phase of modelling and deconstruction, and the transcription of video-recorded discussions. Interpretative analysis of the observational data has revealed that the stage of modelling and deconstruction is particularly important for acquainting students with kinesic features and their interpretation in different cultures. For instance, when asked which speakers they found most convincing in terms of expression after watching extract "Discussion of riots", some of the students considered that "the least emotional one was the most convincing". This perception of a speaker's verbal and non-verbal behaviour by the students deserves attention since arguably it is influenced by the norms and conventions common in the students' culture and may therefore signify cross-cultural variation in the ways of self-expression. Indeed, students in other European cultures might have stated the opposite (that the most emotional speaker is the most convincing).

Genre-awareness exercises at the phase of modelling and deconstruction were useful for raising students' awareness of the difference in phonological features in German and English. The task of reading out text pronounced by a host on a TV show and comparing it with the intonation in the model helped the students to pay attention to a more varied intonation pattern in English speech. Students' first response to this exercise was the disbelief in the naturalness of the intonation used by the host. Students' attempts to reproduce the tones of 'high falls', 'fall-rises' and 'rise-falls' were useful for experiencing the differences in phonology. It may be stated that this exercise was effective both for raising students' awareness and for teaching phonological features relevant to the improvement of their communication proficiency

Summing up, joint analysis of non-verbal communication along with verbal expression is essential for sensitising students to the cross-cultural differences in the genre of discussion. An important conclusion that may be drawn from this stage is that explicit instruction is vital for maximising the use of video resources to raise cultural-linguistic awareness. Indeed, such tasks as the interpretation of facial expressions and body language, comparing and reproducing intonation in various parts of discussion help to pinpoint the cultural variations which otherwise would be left unnoticed and therefore unexplained.

Analysis of students' contributions

The data produced at the stage of independent construction of genre consisted of recordings of thirteen discussions held in two different groups of students of political management, eight of which were transcribed. Recordings for transcription were selected with a view to comparing contributions of the same learners in different discussions after they completed activities in the previous phases of teaching and learning cycles, and include learners of different proficiency levels.

Examining the success of the activities at the phase of independent construction, it may be stated that the unfolding of the genre was taking place without teacher's intervention and therefore all participants in the discussion had an equal power status and a chance for independent production. Thus 'opportunities were created for learners to control the discourse' (Ellis, 1998, cited in Thornbury and Slade, 2006) and all learners participated in near-authentic political discussions. The outcome suggests that the main task of reproduction of the modelled genre has been accomplished and therefore success has been achieved. Indeed, the main task of holding a discussion resulted in "language use that bears a resemblance to the way language is used in the real world" (Ellis, 2003) which is the main objective in genre-based teaching.

Detailed discourse analysis of transcribed discussions has helped to make the following conclusions.

The level of speakers' competence is related to their overall language proficiency as well as to their strategic and discourse competences. Students who had higher scores in a multiple-choice quick placement test (carried out at the beginning of the course) had more variety in expressing themselves using vocabulary and grammar than students who had lower scores in this test. The analysis also shows that these students demonstrate a better ability to internalise emphasising language (such as rhetorical questions, cleft sentences and pragmatic markers) introduced at the phase of deconstruction and practising. The analysis of students' contributions shows that the frequency increases in the subsequent discussions. At the same time, it can be seen that even advanced students base their answers on the materials used during the phases of context-building and modelling. This testifies to the fact that these first phases of teaching and learning cycles are of great relevance to a successful outcome at the phase of independent production of a genre.

Lower-level students achieve communication both on account of having internalised the language at the pre-production phases of teaching and learning cycles and due to being able to use communication strategies, which 'are deployed in order to overcome difficulties, specifically to compensate for some linguistic deficiency in the linguistic system' (Thornbury and Slade, 2006, p.220). These communication strategies included leaving clause complexes incomplete, creating non-existing L2 words; using mime and gestures, code switching, turning to a conversation partner for help and using filling words to fill pauses.

Conclusions:

The research suggests a framework for using genre-based methodology for designing and teaching speaking activities to ESP students. It shows how methods for teaching writing can be effectively adopted for teaching speaking. This approach has proved to be effective for creating opportunities in the academic environment to enable participation of students in communicative events similar to those in which they will take part during their studies abroad. At the same time the research has revealed the potential of the genre-based methodology for teaching cultural variations and socio-linguistic features in oral interaction. This aspect needs to be further explored and prospects of making it part of the ESP syllabus should be examined.

Important findings in this study concern characteristics of an oral genre of discussion. An approach taken in this research has helped to reveal phonological, lexico-grammatical and kinesic features of this genre and to show its differences from other spoken genres.

And finally, this research highlights the need for creating a video corpus of different cultural events relevant to the needs of students who are required to spend a semester in a foreign country. Resources in such a corpus could be used for teaching socio-linguistic features of different genres.

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Partnering for improving quality standards in professional communication

Abstract

In this communication we present some experiences involving the partnership of language institutions across educational levels, both national and international, whose goal is the development and implementation of quality assurance approaches in language education: the English for International and Intercultural Communication Teachers' Network, supported by the University of Zaragoza Teaching Innovation Program and the ISQALE (Improving Standards of Quality in Adult Language Education) project, funded by the EU lifelong learning – Grundtvig Program. The ultimate goal of both projects is to explore the members' common concerns and needs and to share the best of their academic management, performance and assessment programs. Work in cross-level and multinational teams has allowed to benchmark the existing experience and to generate new ideas for quality language education eventually leading to the proposal of a set of indicators and procedures aimed at enhancing the quality of language teaching of young and adult learners in lifelong learning. The aim is to assess the quality of CEFR-based curricula, of personal development and satisfaction of needs, of achieved communicative and cross-cultural competence, of self-learning and lifelong learning or of European values-driven learning. Because they seek to respond to the perceived need to introduce and disseminate unified quality language requirements and more effective and updated quality assurance tools, the projects have meant an excellent opportunity for national and international cooperation.

Partnering and Networking with a focus on quality assurance

The need for higher quality language education is well recognized throughout educational institutions, levels and borders. A holistic approach to Quality Assurance (QA), which responds to current challenges, is clearly demanded:

> The evaluation of learner outcomes (testing) is no longer seen as the key indicator of programme quality; a range of process factors are equally valid, and more informative on what improvements are desirable. Process evaluation can illuminate the interplay of different

> aspects of a programme, and thus enable practitioners to make modifications for improvement. (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998)

The culture of QA in the Spanish higher education system, also of our department, the Department of English Studies at the University of Zaragoza, has meant the introduction of national (ANECA, ANEP) and regional QA Agencies (ACPUA in Aragón). At the University level, the mission of the UZ QA system is to develop tools, practices and control systems which can assure quality and excellence in all three areas of teaching, learning and research: from institutional-level programs aimed at acquiring informational literacy, at improving learning outcomes or towards attaining QA accreditation to degree quality assessment committees (department, faculty/school and university-based committees). However, these initiatives cannot succeed unless supported by local and individual initiatives. The projects undertaken by different research groups make this institutional effort become more meaningful, more practical and more connected to the teaching/learning process.

In this line the InterLAE research group action plan aims at the transferability of research results into pedagogical practice and thus at developing efficient procedures and instruments for teaching/learning and to revise and test their effectiveness for language assessment. By fostering self-reflection on professional practices, the applied linguistics research interests of the group are also oriented towards the identification of critical success factors and of potential areas of improvement. Of particular importance for staff-development purposes are teacher training programs and EAP writing and speaking courses, which also seek to fully meet the criteria of employability and social accountability in applied linguistics research and teacher training. For these purposes three networking and partnering research and teaching/learning innovation projects have proved particularly helpful: the *English in Europe. Opportunity or threat?* project, centered around the new role of English in the research world; the *Teachers Network* project, which links teachers of English across educational levels; and the *ISQALE* project, a lifelong learning – Grundtvig program aimed at developing and implementing quality assurance approaches in language education.

The *English in Europe* Project[25]

The *English in Europe* (EiE) project analyzes the changing attitudes towards the role of English in Europe, exploring whether, as widely explored in the literature (Belcher, 2007; Lillis & Curry, 2006; Pérez-Llantada, Plo-Alastrué & Ferguson, 2011; Salager-Meyer, 2008) its dominance as a lingua franca in the international sphere means an opportunity for speakers to participate in science, research or business contexts, or rather it means a threat to minoritarian languages in Europe, and thus to national cultures and identities. The project, funded by the Leverhulme Trust, is coordinated by the Centre for Linguistic Research, University of Sheffield, and represents a collaborative network between five European universities: University of Sheffield (UK); University of Copenhagen (Denmark), Charles University (Czech Republic), University of Zaragoza (Spain) and the South - East Europe Research Centre (SEERC), CITY College, Thessaloniki (Greece). With a clearly research-oriented aim, the project, extending between 2012 and 2014, will host five conferences in contrasting European regions to examine the role of English in a particular context in order to understand more fully the relationships between English, other languages and their users.

The *English for International and Intercultural Communication Teachers' Network* Project

The *English for International and Intercultural Communication Teachers'* (EIIC) *Network* project,[26] supported by the 2010 and 2011 Teaching Innovation Projects initiatives of the University of Zaragoza, was created in 2010 as a space for English language teachers across educational contexts (primary, secondary, vocational and university education). Its goal is to share ideas on research, innovation and employability across educational curricula. The EIIC Teachers' network is meant to provide a link between university teachers and those in other educational contexts in our community, Aragón (Spain), characterized by a diversity of academic and professional profiles. The goal of the network is to find a space where teachers with very diverse backgrounds and needs analyze the reality of the regional educational context, share their experiences and good practices as teachers of English as a Foreign Language and coordinate methodological approaches and curricular issues.

[25] http://www.englishineurope.postgrad.shef.ac.uk/
[26] https://eiicteachersnetwork.wikispaces.com/EIIC+Teacher%27s+Network

The motivation for creating a network of teachers came from the concern that across educational levels–particularly in the university context–individual, local innovative methodological approaches, projects and initiatives are being implemented but these are unconnected experiences. This brought to the fore the need for continuity and for finding common criteria, particularly in methodology and assessment, which makes the teaching/learning of English a more structured, continuous practice. This is a time of educational challenge in our community: in the secondary education context, ESL has been considered a strategic objective of the local government, with many schools having started bilingual and CLIL programs. The new university-entrance exam, based on oral skills rather than on written skills as has been the case so far, will require a totally new curricular design and will imply newer methodological and assessment approaches. It is also a time of educational challenge for the university, after the introduction of the new degrees, adapted to the European Higher Education Area and based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). In this climate, concerns about language teaching/learning quality, about the implementation of newer methodological approaches, of more active and collaborative, communicative task-based approaches and of the sound use of ICTs have arisen.

Teachers across university levels, and particularly at the university, as a teacher trainer institution, have also become increasingly aware of the need for transferability of academic skills into the workplace and of course of the accountability in Higher Education (responsibility, answerability, ethics). The project has given us the opportunity to analyze our perceived lacks or needs: the need to work horizontally and transversally, the need for continuity and thus for coordination, the need for academic training and recycling. Above all the network has provided us with a global view, to gather information about difficulties but also about achievements, to exchange experiences and best practices. Our work has also materialized in a survey-based diagnosis of the oral skills of the students in our community. With the participation of the network members we have defined the linguistic competence profile of our students, indentifying and evaluating the attitude and motivation towards the acquisition of oral skills as well as the training needs of the teachers when dealing with the challenge for the teaching and learning of oral skills.

The *Improving Standards of Quality in Adult Language Education* Project

The *Improving Standards of Quality in Adult Language Education* (ISQALE) project involves the development and implementation of a Quality Assurance Scheme in language education. The goal of ISQALE is to explore the needs, country specific requirements and best practices in the area and, based on these findings, to propose a set of indicators and procedures aimed at enhancing the quality of language teaching of adults in lifelong learning. This three-year international partnership project (2011-2013) integrates members from OPTIMA-Bulgaria, QUEST-Romania, QLS-Greece, CALF-Croatia, and the English and German Studies Department of the University of Zaragoza in Spain and is funded by the EU lifelong learning – Grundtvig program, which involves the formation of multinational working groups focusing on different content areas to propose common parameters for assessing and maintaining the quality of language education.

The ISQALE project attempts to contribute to the pan-European requirement for the provision of quality language tuition and standardized levels of attainment and assessment in the field. The general quality principles and criteria are often interpreted in various ways by different language teaching centers, which leads to subjectivism and often lack of transparency and credibility. In this sense there is a perceived need to introduce and disseminate unified quality language requirements which are acceptable by the majority of institutions, and which can thus be verified by international teams of experts in different countries and educational contexts to enhance the credibility of the QA process.

ISQALE is inspired by the Council of Europe's (2001) Framework and by the aims of the European Association for Quality Language Services (EAQUALS, 2011), which has promoted high standards through its Charters and Inspection and Accreditation Scheme, and builds on the expertise developed by the national associations established in participating countries, associate members of EAQUALS, which have created their own Inspection Schemes and procedures for language quality services.

The main goal of the project is to develop a common international Quality Assurance Scheme in adult learner education that meets the specificities of ESP teaching/learning.

Designed for self-assessment (i.e. used by language learners) and external assessment (i.e. used by auditing services, managers and language services providers), the scheme revisits the ACPEL bank of descriptors and identifies core learner's competencies and quality indicators (i.e. sources of evidence) and involves teachers, researchers and language school/departments managers. The scheme deals mainly with pedagogical (Teaching and learning) and management issues, in content areas which include quality assessment of CEFR-based curricula, innovative practices, personal development and satisfaction of needs, achieved communicative and cross-cultural competence, self-learning and lifelong learning and European values-driven learning. In order to establish valid and reliable criteria, systematic feedback has been collected from learners, teachers and school managers. Regular project meetings, seminar days and exchange visits have been the major communication channels between the partners and have allowed the exchange of best practices, of teaching materials, learning and assessing processes and procedures. The project has facilitated the exchange of quality inspection schemes and procedures used by local or international teams of inspectors, of quality teaching and assessment based on CEFR.

Evaluation is being conducted on an on-going basis throughout the project life, running trials of the quality assurance system in the different countries, recording the outcomes and seeking feedback from teachers, learners, school directors and sponsors by means of observations, brief but focused questionnaires and interviews, which contain a commonly agreed set of basic questions as well as some context specific questions. The development of QA parameters and procedures thus actively involves teachers, researchers and managers who can actively contribute to the implementation of the system by trialling it out in their own classrooms and by providing feedback on the effectiveness of the system, which finally contributes to the evaluation process. Also learners themselves can gain advantage of quality learning and benefit from improved syllabi, teaching materials and methods, self-study activities, additional services, etc. They can provide feedback on the usefulness and added value of quality-oriented class and out-of-class activities, of CEFR and ELP-based (self) assessment of communicative competences in various languages. By linking more reliable quality assurance to teaching methods, materials and ultimately student performance, the goal is to facilitate the processes of lifelong education of adult learners and continuing professional development of teachers and managers.

The purposeful and intensive exchange of experience between the project partners has finally helped to meet the need for teachers, managers and administrative staff in language institutions in various parts of Europe to speak the same language of quality through mobility and exchange programs. Thus the development of unified requirements for quality assurance in language schools can impact formal and informal education by adopting good practices through multilateral cooperation and by combining the regional specificity with the common European standards, a milestone on the road to fully implemented European standards.

Strategic Importance of Partnering Projects: Impact and Dissemination

The partnership projects presented in this communication have been proposed to engage a number of partners representing schools and institutions with varied experiences and traditions, whether in the international academic research sphere, in young and adult learners instruction, in teacher training or in inspection procedures. Cooperation has first of all allowed the most fruitful exchange of ideas and good practices. Most specially, it has brought to the fore the shared commitment of the participating institutions to provide quality language instruction materialized in the common attempt to develop an enriched quality assurance system.

Partnering projects have proved to be an excellent opportunity for providing feedback into the activities of the participating language schools or University departments. The results of the different projects should undoubtedly lead to the optimization of course planning, student performance and administrative and academic management to ensure efficient foreign language tuition. In this way the development and implementation of a Quality Assurance System should provide a solid framework for every institution to better meet national and international needs in the provision of language education by developing new solutions to match the requirements of lifelong learning in each individual institution. Teachers can improve their skills and abilities through the exchange of good practices and, through their participation in joint activities, which will help them to acquire habits for continuing professional development.

The implementation of the quality system in terms of classroom applications will be integrated into the teaching, learning and assessment process, adding value and motivation to pre-planned curricula activities. Learners can profit not only by being exposed to high quality tuition and internationally comparable certification but also by taking part in all appropriate events and activities within the different projects, which can enable them to network with their counterparts in other countries.

Partnership projects have created excellent opportunities for cooperation during and beyond the project life. This cooperation will be built on the project networking activities but it will also connect to the existing networks of the individual partners, thus creating new human bonds. Quality assurance initiatives should thus be transferred and spread to other educational levels, other schools/departments, other countries or regions. The exchange of ideas and initiatives related to quality language teaching and management provides a fresh impetus for continuous professional development of institutions and individuals, new approaches and innovative practices related to quality materials, programs and performance which should increase the chances of each language school or department for success and competitiveness.

Quality language instruction also represents a very effective vehicle that integrates language learning with the ability of adults to communicate cross-culturally and thus to achieve higher language standards. Both national and international cooperation allow the mobility of learners, teachers, managers and assessors, which facilitates the continuous national and international communication and exchange of ideas and guarantees the effectiveness and sustainability of quality assurance. The mobility of professionals ultimately helps to improve understanding of other cultures, thus facilitate access to high quality international study programs, and thus contribute to the mobility and employability of European citizens, irrespective of their country of origin and mother tongue.

Together with the Internet, the different dissemination events organized, such as international conferences, seminars, thematic meetings and round tables, have contributed to enhancing the visibility of the partnering projects, among the media, the teaching and admin staff, students and the general public at regional, local, national and international levels. These should also become not only a vehicle to disseminate activities but also a very effective tool to raise the awareness of the local communities and government policy-making institutions in the participating countries about the advantages offered by quality language education.

In short, these partnership projects have facilitated the exchange and integration of language teaching experiences across education levels and European borders. The three projects presented in this communication have allowed the InterLAE group members to acquire a holistic approach of language teaching education and research. The projects developed have provided the partners with equally helpful insights as well as with more effective and updated quality assurance tools with the final goal of better developing quality assurance programs integrated into current pedagogic and research programs.

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8. 6º painel: Linguística Cognitiva e Línguas para Fins Específicos

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Teaching *a la Bolognaise*? Changing attitudes and developing generic skills in a translation class.

Abstract

One of the many objectives of the Bologna process was to "prepare students for their future careers and for life as active citizens in democratic societies, and support their personal development" (in *The official Bologna Process website 2007-2010*).
Thus, the *in Bologna* HEIs and the different courses of the various Programs need also to stimulate in their students generic transversal skills – such as creativity, problem solving, decision-making, initiative and entrepreneurial spirit, and will to succeed, amongst others - that can be useful in finding the first or ideal job or in being a better European citizen. In other words, this shift in structure should be followed by a shift in attitude and bring forth more creative and entrepreneur students able to face the labor market when applying for the first job.

This was the main goal of this case-study, where final-year students in Business Communication were asked to develop a CV, where the only mandatory requirements were to be (i) bilingual (Portuguese and English), (ii) multimedia, (iii) subtitled and (iv) real. All the design, format and content should be decided by the students according to their personalities, goals and desired job profiles.

With this case-study, we (i) intend to show how a semester project on creating a Multimedia CV could, in some way, help Portuguese final-year students develop some of the generic competences indicated before, change their attitude towards the challenge of "How to Apply for a Job" and increase their self-marketing strategies, creativity and entrepreneurship.

Keywords: Bologna Declaration, generic skills, applied language

Introduction

More than ten years after the Bologna Declaration was signed, all degrees offered in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Portugal are already structured according to its principles.

Therefore, these last years have been really demanding for Portuguese HEIs, namely the ISCAP, the Institute of Accounting and Administration of Oporto, where all five bachelor's degree programmes and five master's degree programmes have been (re)designed, as far as curricula, workloads, ECTS, and other structural Bologna requirements are concerned.

One of the many objectives of the Bologna process was to 'prepare students for their future careers and for life as active citizens in democratic societies, and support their personal development' (in the official Bologna Process website 2007–2010). New curricula and new approaches were therefore developed in order to switch from a teacher-centred teaching process to a student-centred learning process that instead of focussing on the achievement of learning outcomes targets the acquisition of competences that will prepare graduates well for their future role in society in terms of employability and citizenship. This society is, as we know, global and constantly changing, and therefore students need to develop both generic and specific competences to allow them to succeed in the labour market, as recent graduates, and allow them to go on adapting in a life-long learning process.

Case study

Introduction

This case-study refers to a project carried out by final-year students of the Business Communication programme in ISCAP. Having been adapted after the Bologna declaration, this is a 3-year programme and students are to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to work in various communication and marketing fields.

In their final year they follow Translation and New Technologies I and II, in English, in the 5th and 6th semesters, where they know and use several language and translation tools and acquire intercultural knowledge to improve their communication skills and English proficiency.

Although they are final-year communication students, one of the main issues we often encounter when addressing them and presenting the syllabus and the goals they must achieve is lack of motivation and self-confidence and fear of the ‘difficulties of the unknown’. Moreover, maybe because the language of instruction is English, a foreign language, although they are already advanced students, also creates an extra factor of strangeness, apart from being more demanding for them to process, understand and produce messages.

Being last-year students, one of the questions that we inevitably ask them is: ‘What do you expect to be/find after you graduate?’ The answer generally reveals the fear of not being hired for a job or of not being prepared for the labour market (always perceived at a regional and national level), e.g., they still seem to be expecting to be offered a proposal they would like to accept but that they fear not to be possible due to the national and international economic crisis.

This should actually not be considered a fear, since it is a fact. According to the last statistics concerning the unemployment rate in Portugal we had access to before writing this paper, the percentage of unemployed graduates had increased 27.6% between July and September 2009. Apart from the high unemployment rate amongst young graduates, there is another sociological phenomenon that was first identified in Spain but that is also to be found in Portugal: the *mileuristas*—the thousand-euro generation: highly educated (having an undergraduate, master’s, or foreign language diplomas), in their thirties, who struggle to accomplish their high expectations with low wages. Low salaries, an oversupply of graduates, and social changes have forced them into low-paying jobs. In Spain, they share apartments, do not own a car or a home, and have realised their future is not going to be as bright as they had thought. In Portugal, this is happening too, with a highly qualified generation earning less than 1000€ and living at their parents' most of the time.

<u>The problem</u>

These facts can understandably cause some lack of hope and despair in members of this generation, who are now finishing their undergraduate studies and will probably invest

in a post-graduated programme because they do not know what else to do, apart from graduating, in order to have an independent life and a career.
However, these higher education qualifications should not be hindering students' prospects but helping them achieving what the Bologna declaration has stated:

'In the decade up to 2020 European higher education has a vital contribution to make in realising a Europe of knowledge that is highly creative and innovative... Europe can only succeed in this endeavour if it maximises the talents and capacities of all its citizens and fully engages in lifelong learning as well as in widening participation in higher education' (ministers responsible for higher education in the countries participating in the Bologna Process, Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, April 2009).

Also, in the Bologna work plan 2009–2012, one of the education priorities for the next decade is, precisely, employability, here defined as *the ability to gain initial employment, to maintain employment, and to be able to move around within the labour market.*

Employability was of course not a new concept in the Bologna-related discussions. Nevertheless, it was not before 2007 that the European Community prioritised this issue, making seven references to the concept of employability and dedicating a whole section to the subject.

Before, during the Bologna Seminar on Employability held in Bled, Slovenia in 2004, official debates defined the concept as a '*set of achievements—skills, understandings and personal attributes—that make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy*'.

In order to achieve this goal, the role of higher education is considered *to equip students with skills and attributes (knowledge, attitudes and behaviours) that individuals need in the workplace and that employers require and to ensure that people have the opportunities to maintain or renew those skills and attributes throughout their working* *lives. At the end of a course, students will thus have an in-depth knowledge of their subject as well as generic employability skills.*

Although employability seems to be one of the main concerns of Europe and HEIs seen as one of the vehicles to achieve it, providing students with the necessary generic skills, the last unemployment rates and sociological studies on this issue concerning young graduates show that there still seems to be a long way to go to accomplish the goals, namely, we would say, as far as *attitudes and behaviours* are concerned. In fact, the Bologna process has brought a shift in the learning structure, with a more student-centred and life-long approach. Nevertheless, and if the structure was hard to change and to implement, it does not seem to be so easy to change students' attitudes and behaviours, namely towards the labour market, despite all the goals and efforts of the Bologna process in creating the European Higher Education Area (EHEA).

<u>The project</u>

Aware of this and of the role of the HEI as a ‘test tube’ for life, we realised that these students, always so concerned about and trained in developing effective communication and marketing plans and strategies for corporations, were lacking plans and strategies for themselves. They were absolutely not concerned about working out self-marketing strategies (to apply for a job, for instance) and were relying on a standard job application and résumé to find their first job.

Although the EHEA intends to create a common background and e*asily readable and comparable degrees* and *fair recognition of foreign degrees and other higher education qualifications* and, therefore, has developed common tools and forms to achieve this goal, like, for instance, the Europass Curriculum Vitae, this should not be seen as a standardisation of everything. These tools and forms can and should be used (as said on the Europass website), but customisation, creativity and innovation should never be overlooked.

Bearing this in mind and aware that this would only be a small contribution to helping them succeed, we decided to challenge their self-marketing strategies, creativity, and above all their attitude before they apply for their first job, as training for other situations in their future life. With this purpose, they were assigned an individual semester project which consisted of the creation of a multimedia CV in Portuguese and English (see Appendix no 1). They could develop it almost completely freely, the only requirements being:

a. a video file
b. audio in Portuguese and subtitles in English (or vice-versa)
c. no longer than 3/4 min.

All the contents and design were to be decided freely by the students, according to their preferences and target employers. Moreover, the multimedia CV had to be delivered in a CD, together with a brief report (two A4 pages max.) explaining their options, selection of content, formats, etc.

The day the assignment was presented in class, the first day of classes in the Summer Semester 2008-2009, most of the students showed lack of enthusiasm and, above all, some alarm because they did not know exactly what they had to do and how to do it since there were very few instructions. They were, nevertheless, given a link with some examples of multimedia CVs so that they could have some idea of what they could do, but every format was allowed as long as it respected the requisites listed above and could really be used in a job application.

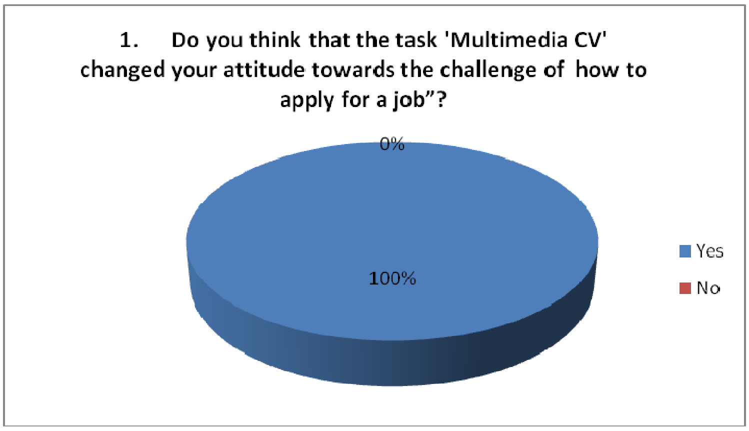
They were given 11 weeks to develop the project since some of the skills (namely in subtitling) had yet to be acquired. During more than half of that time, anxiety and lack of enthusiasm were still in the air, and they kept on trying to get more guidance on the way they should present themselves in a multimedia CV. Nevertheless, it was also always repeatedly said to them that one of the points of the assignment was exactly to lead them to reflect and find the best way to advertise themselves according to everything they had learned and could now be shown as a product to sell to future employers. But it honestly seemed to us that this was exactly what frightened them most at this stage: not to be able to see themselves as a 'product' that needed to be advertised as an added value to a company.

Fifteen students carried out the project and presented it in class. Some really good projects were prepared and overall everyone appeared to have invested a lot of time in developing it; some enthusiasm and self-confidence could finally be perceived in the classroom. Every student was paying attention to their classmates' CVs and expressing their opinion on the projects.

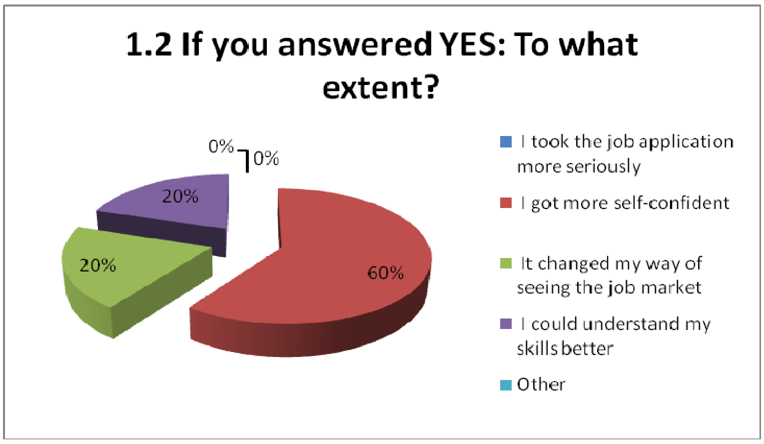
In order to assess whether this task could help them develop new skills and change their attitude towards life and the job market, students were asked to answer a small survey 5 months after their graduation. Ten students answered it and the results are somewhat confusing.

Data analysis

All students seemed to recognise that this assignment made them face searching and applying for a job in a different way, which was actually the main purpose of the task, which was aiming at a shift in attitude.



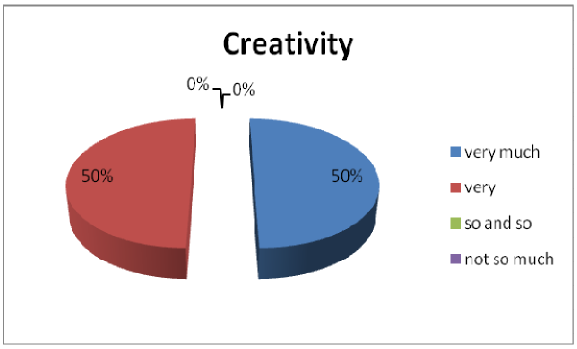
This was also confirmed by their answers justifying this result, since 60% declared that their self-confidence increased and their perspective about the job market changed.

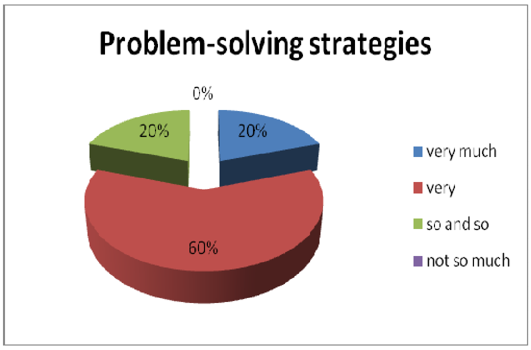


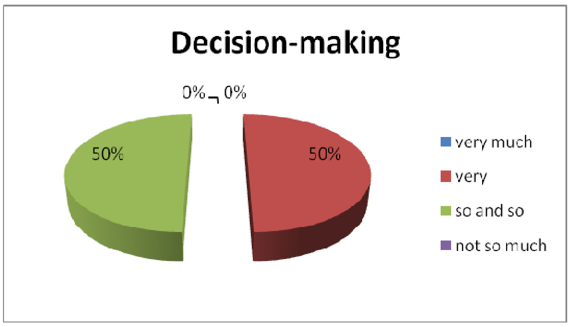
Because no perspective or attitude can be in fact changed if you do not acquire the right skills to put it into practice, we wanted to know whether the task had helped the students to get general transversal skills such as creativity or entrepreneurship for example. So, to the question:

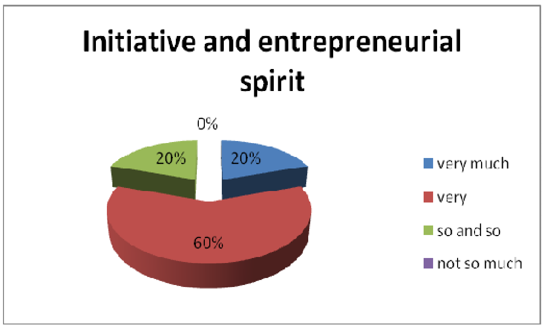
Did the development of the 'Multimedia CV' assignment help you improve some of the following skills? To what extent?

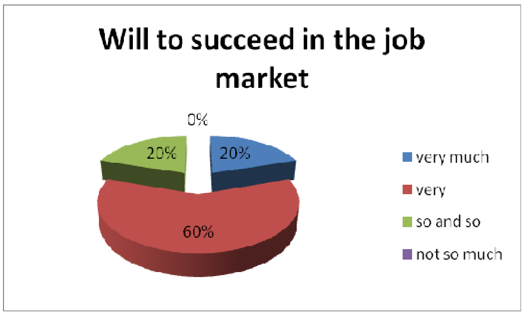
We got the following results:

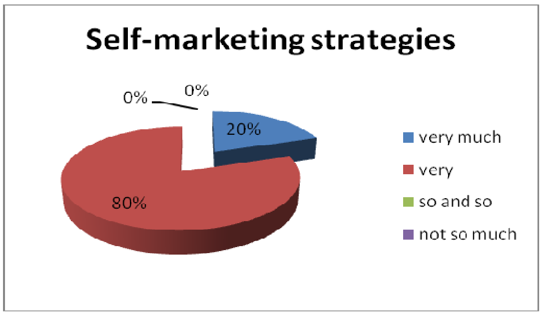












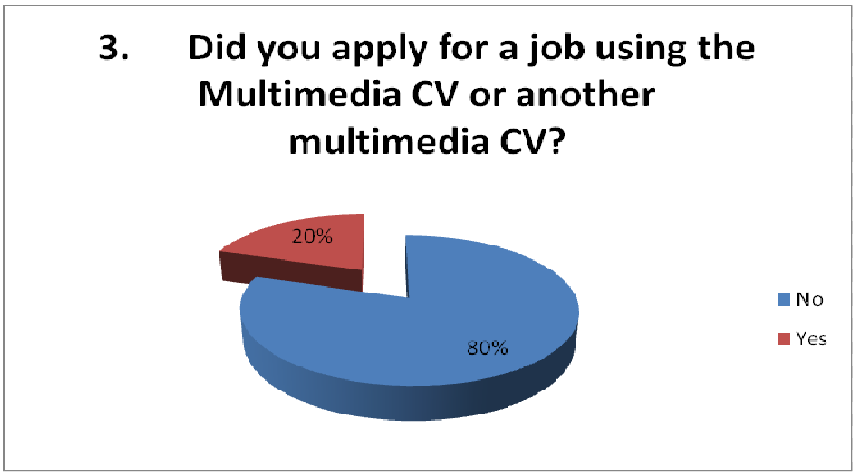
As we can see by the results, more than 50% of the students stated that they increased their generic skills, at least the ones mentioned. When they name the reasons why they thought so, we understand that the main reason was the need to 'think'[27] of the best

[27] This verb can be found in 70% of the statements.

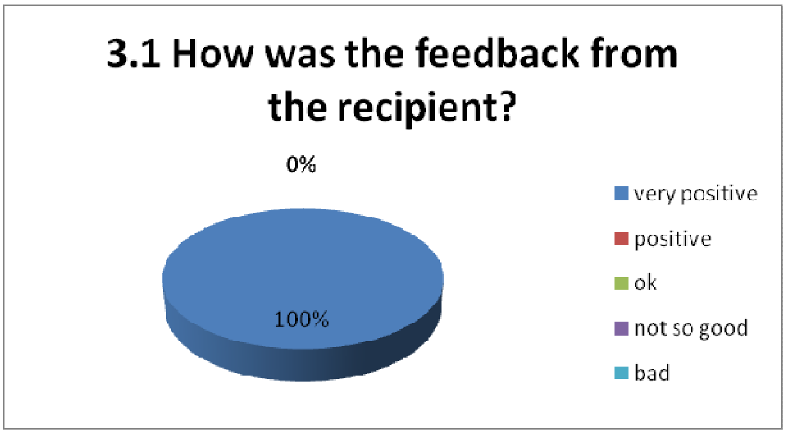
strategy of promoting themselves in a serious, innovative and effective way. In fact, their answers show that after they had overcome the barrier of the format (multimedia), it was in fact the demand of reflexivity and selection of the contents and information about themselves that turned the assignment into a challenging experience.

According to this data, we could conclude that the assignment had in fact accomplished its goals and that the shift in structure had, in fact, brought forth a shift in attitude, since the responding students admitted that they had changed their outlook towards a job application and the need for self-marketing and generic transversal skills when working on the multimedia CV. This CV was moreover even considered 'a great help to search for work in marketing and publicity' that 'could make a difference', 'a good way of distinguishing and affirming myself in the labour market', and a 'different way to distinguish ourselves from others and stand out in the middle of millions of CV's', to give only some examples.

However, when we analyse the results of the last question of the survey—'Did you apply for a job using the Multimedia CV or another multimedia CV?'—since the survey was sent to the students 5 months after their graduation, we can conclude exactly the contrary, since only 20% were confident and entrepreneurial enough to search for a job using a different form of CV, as we can see below.



However, and also maybe because the target labour market is in the communication and marketing fields, the ones who dared to be different got very good feedback and actually managed to find a job in the communication field.



Conclusions

This was only a trial experience—a semester project—which, as stated before, aimed at stimulating final-year students of communication to face the job market with a more self-assured and positive feeling.

After the presentation of the case study, we can conclude that what at the moment the lecturer presented the project caused some stress and anxiety in the students turned out to be, in some cases, a surprising demonstration of how creative and innovative students can be and brought some self-confidence and motivation to most students. Moreover, some of these students (although very few) used, as suggested, the multimedia CVs in their job applications with success, which will certainly be a motivating element for the lecturer to go on proposing such kind of assignment.

In fact, it is our conviction that although the role of universities is mainly providing students a formal education, our role as educators and mentors facilitating learning is also to aid students understand the need to acquire non-formal skills (the so-called *soft skills*), which, together with the knowledge acquired (*hard-skills*), can enhance an applicant's or employee's profile.

Thus, the HEIs that have embraced the Bologna process and the different courses of the various programmes also need to stimulate students' generic transversal skills such as creativity, problem solving, decision-making, initiative, entrepreneurial spirit, and the will to succeed, amongst others, which can be useful in finding the first or ideal job or in being a better European citizen and professional.

In other words, the shift in structure brought by the Bologna Declaration, together with the particular economic and sociological moment we are now facing, must be followed by a shift in attitude and bring forth more creative and entrepreneurial students able to apply for the labour market with the attitude of a negotiator showing what they have to offer rather than of a claimant requesting and hoping for an answer.

Nevertheless, as the results of the survey show, even when students admit to having changed their attitude and acquired these skills, they tend to be cautious and less entrepreneurial than they declare they are. We therefore believe we can conclude that if the shift in structure towards the Bologna model was a hard task to do, the shift in attitude seems to be equally (or even more) difficult to accomplish, particularly because it depends entirely on individuals.

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Intercultural awareness in the teaching of English for engineers.

Abstract

Cultural awareness is considered a key element for engineers communicating in international settings. The cultural factor becomes especially relevant in situations where English is not the native language of any of the speakers conducting business.

This presentation is based on the final degree project carried out by a student of telecommunications (Morante, 2011) where he intended to transmit his real experience in the world of business to the academic community. Real practice in international companies led him to believe that cultural awareness is a necessary ingredient to the twenty first century engineer´s profile.

In this paper we present some activities carried out in class to make students aware of the intercultural component in communication. The Japanese context will serve as the background for analysis of cultural differences in oral and written communication in business. The film *Fear and Trembling,* based on the novel by Amélie Nothomb, will be a useful resource to show different cultural viewpoints and how they affect communication in business. Factors such as hierarchy in the company, the channel of communication used, and the style that is proper are identified and discussed with the students.

Key words: culture, communication, English for Specific Purposes

Resumen

Familiarizar a los alumnos con las diferencias culturales resulta un elemento clave en la enseñanza de la comunicación en relación con la ingeniería. Esta comunicación se inspira en el proyecto de fin de Grado de uno de nuestros alumnos de la EUIT de Telecomunicación convencido de la necesidad de conocimientos culturales para el ingeniero del siglo XXI. En su trabajo (Morante, 2011) da a conocer a la comunidad universitaria su experiencia profesional en un entorno laboral internacional y en concreto, su conocimiento de la cultura japonesa

En esta comunicación presentamos la experiencia llevada a cabo en la asignatura de inglés académico y profesional para hacer ver a los alumnos la importancia de los factores culturales en la comunicación. Mediante la película “Estupor y temblores” (Corneau, 2003) basada en el libro del mismo nombre de la autora belga Amélie Nothomb, presentamos a los alumnos un problema de conflicto cultural en un entorno laboral. La película relata la experiencia de una trabajadora europea en una empresa japonesa y permite explicar cómo influyen en la comunicación profesional factores culturales como la importancia de la jerarquía, el canal de comunicación, el estilo o la formalidad.

Palabras clave: cultura, comunicación, Inglés para fines específicos

Introduction

Nowadays, the intercultural factor needs to be a key ingredient in the teaching of English for Professional Communication. Its relevance increases when teaching at a telecommunications engineering school whose future professionals will be mainly working for international companies. English has become the language of exchange in global business, but intercultural competencies are also needed. Today´s professionals have to be prepared to understand not only the meanings and dimensions of cultures, but also what is corporation culture and how communication is accomplished in the international marketplace. (Tran and Skitmore, 2002; Spencer-Oatey and Stadler, 2009; Flannagan, 2011).

In fact, European higher education plans and engineering associations are already aware of the need (Sánchez et al., 2011). Our Engineering School (*EUITT*) from *Universidad Politécnica de Madrid* is including in its recent Bologna degrees competencies such as:

ability to work in multidisciplinary teams

Development of interpersonal skills and abilities to work both at a national and international context using English for speaking and writing

Ability to show flexibility, to negotiate and solve conflicts as well as leadership skills

In this presentation, we explain how we used an analysis of Japanese culture and communication style in our teaching of English for Professional Communication. This

experience was carried out with the help of one of our graduates, Morante (2011), who taking advantage of his work as an engineer in the international context focused his final project on the Japanese culture, thus inspiring the practice introduced in the course.
As a teaching resource, the film "Stupeur et tremblements" (Corneau, 2003) was chosen. This film based on an autobiographic novel by the Belgian writer Amélie Nothomb (1999) that tells the experience of Amélie, a European girl who starts to work in a prestigious Japanese company and sees how her dream job situation does not develop as expected. After watching the film, students will be able to understand and interpret some of the problems that can arise when there is a lack of intercultural sensibility between interlocutors.

The intercultural experience is enhanced by the fact that the film is French with subtitles in English, but it is located in Japan and all the characters but Amelie are Japanese. With the film, the students will enjoy three different linguistic elements French, Japanese and English which will make them focus on the cultural problem and forget about the importance of language itself. Western and Eastern cultures are confronted in the film. The students will become aware of cultural dimensions as well as of the competencies needed to cope with intercultural situations.

Intercultural studies and the interest in Japanese culture

In the first part of the twentieth century, the difference between Eastern and Western cultures was studied by the pioneers of "Interculturalism". Among these scholars, Edward T. Hall is considered the first author who explicitly wrote about "intercultural communication". Hall´s book *The Silent Language* (1959) was the result of the work carried out by a series of linguists and anthropologists at the Foreign Service Institute of the United States, Washington D.C., from 1946 to 1956. In that period they were in charge of training American diplomats to get ready to work abroad and both teachers and trainees realized that language alone was not enough to achieve the successful communication needed in intercultural settings (Roger, Hart and Miike, 2002).

The Silent language helped to conceptualize non-verbal communication in Japan and to shape the field of intercultural communication in that country. Later American and Japanese scholars analysed communication behaviour by stressing the differences and established a number of intercultural dimensions, in other words, parameters or characteristics that affect behavior and ways of doing things in a specific culture (Rogers, Hart and Miike, 2002).

A brief account of intercultural dimensions

In this communication, six cultural dimensions will be presented following the work of Flannagan (2011). This author analyzed the communication differences between two of the greatest Japanese and American motor companies, Nissan and Ford. These cultural dimensions will help our students to understand the views of different cultures.

1.Individualism versus Collectivism is a key dimension to measure and explain differences in society. In an individualist culture, such as the American or the European, values such as self-efficiency, individual responsibilities, and personal autonomy are enhanced. On the other hand, collectivist cultures such as the ones in the Middle East, Asia, Africa and South America lay emphasis on group over individual rights, needs or wishes; therefore, group harmony and collaborative effort are the most important goals to be achieved in those cultures.

2. Power Distance is considered to be small when superiors and subordinates can speak or have a conversation about work. On the other hand, distance is considered to be great when subordinates are not asked about the decisions to be taken and they entirely depend on their bosses or superiors in rank.

3. Uncertainty Avoidance refers to the tendency to avoid uncertain situations. Such cultures see uncertainty as a threat and conflict as a something negative. In contradiction, other cultures such as the United States´ do not mind having innovations, value change as a chance and they are always prepared to take risk to reduce ambiguities.

4. Masculinity versus Femininity refers to the way a culture views the roles of the two genders. In masculine cultures masculine roles are foremost. Men are supposed to be assertive and focused on material success whereas women should be more concerned with the quality of life. However, in a feminine society both roles are highly considered and equally important. European cultures are more feminine oriented cultures than Japan or the United States.

5. Person´s Nature Orientation is related to how nature is viewed in relation to humanity. From the point of view of Christians, God has created the earth for humanity; therefore, their position tends to be that of "Mastery over Nature" and therefore persons (managers) think they hold control of their lives to a higher extent than other cultures. In other religions, such as Buddhism and Shintoism, the tendency is to have "Harmony with nature". Nature is viewed as something to be observed and as something that inspires human existence.

6. High Context culture is a type of culture whose individuals share a lot of information and they expect their interlocutors to be able to guess the information that is not explicitly transmitted. This dimension explains the particular rapport between verbal and non-verbal communication observed in Japan and the difficulty in understanding their messages.

The next section will deal with the competencies needed to communicate in different cultural contexts in order to solve the problems that may arise in communication because of the different cultural dimensions.

The need for Communicative Competence in professional settings

As a means to prepare students to face intercultural professional conflict, communicative competencies are presented (Fig.1) as part of a model of "communication effectiveness" (Griffith, 2002).

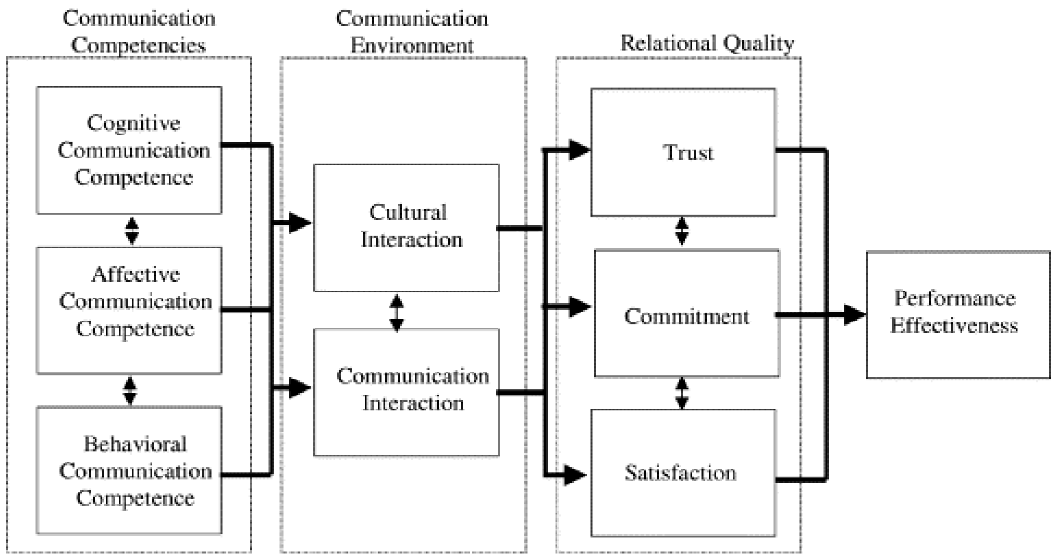

Fig. 1 A model of Communications effectiveness (Griffith, 2002)

Communicative effectiveness is achieved as the result of three types of communication competencies: cognitive, affective and behavioural. Cognitive competence refers to the ability that allows someone to understand the verbal and non-verbal meaning of a message and decode the message in the suitable way. Griffith (2002) explains that cognitive competencies are closely related to the individual´s psychology and values. Affective competence refers to the ability that allows someone to create good feelings in relation to communications. This capacity is related to personal motivation and personal attitude in situations that require tolerance to ambiguity, adaptive motivation, empathic motivation, etc. Finally, behavioural competence refers to the flexibility and resources an individual is able to apply when reacting to communication encounters. All these competencies help workers at an intercultural setting avoid negative stereotypes, be flexible and think positively to cope with unknown situations.

Some intercultural dimensions and the case of Japan

In this section the focus will be on some features of Japanese culture which are very different from our Western ideas of life. These are the cultural dimensions known as *high context* and *collectivism*. These two cultural dimensions are responsible for the special way of establishing communication in Japan where verbal language, written or spoken, is always accompanied by some form of non-verbal language.

The dimension of high context is especially present in the Japanese culture as can be seen in the table below (Fig.2) where Japan is at the top of all the countries mentioned.

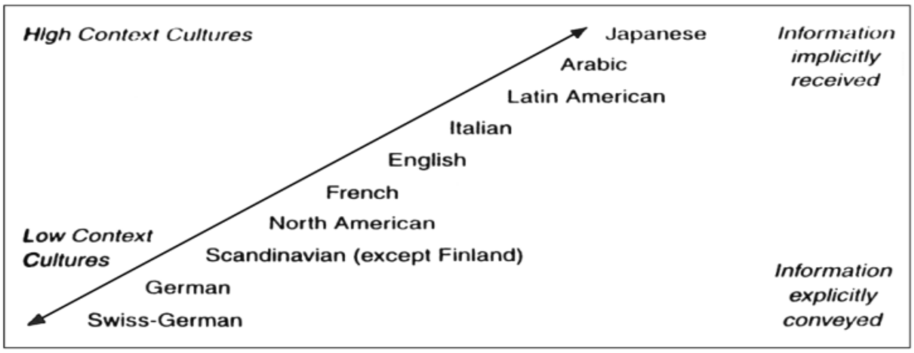

Fig. 2 High versus Low context ranking (Katan, 1999)

High context communication is usually associated with the following characteristics: a social hierarchical structure, uniform ruled behavior, listeners sharing a common social context, turn-taking when speaking, sensibility towards non-verbal language, common sociocultural background and avoidance of negative answers. All this is especially relevant for Japan where a high degree of cultural cohesion is the result of a long history of isolation because of the geographic factor. For the same reason the dimension of collectivism has special connotations in Japan:

"In the Japanese culture, for example, collectivism involves a focus on the concepts of wa (roughly translated as "harmony"), amae (roughly translated as "dependency"), and enryo (roughly translated as "reserve" or "restraint") (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1994).

Professional communication in Japan: verbal and non-verbal language

In this part of the presentation we deal with some of the features that are especially relevant for our students.

First, the different communicative style of high context and low context cultures as it is reflected in written documents. Flannagan (2009) in his master thesis where he compares Corporate Social Responsibilities reports of two firms: an American firm, Ford, and a Japanese firm, Nissan points out that in high context cultures, written texts are longer. In fact, he analyses a sustainability report by Nissan (Flannagan, 2009:52) which happens to be much longer than the equivalent text written by the American company. The English text is written to give concise and direct information which results in the presence of bullets or other marks for listing ideas. The reason is that the American firm follows the typical written style of low-context cultures and avoids giving long explanations.

Another example of how cultural differences are reflected on language is noticed when companies deal with innovations. The cultural dimensions involved here are uncertainty avoidance and a collectivist view of business. According to Flannagan (2009:49) even though Nissan presents a good record of new products they do not talk about it directly: *"We will continue to make proactive efforts, working with society to create a brighter future for our planet and generations to come."* However, the tone employed by Ford is much more categorical, welcomes innovations, and shows an individualist point of view: "*We believe that creative collaboration and innovative technologies that integrate diverse public and private modes of travel can harness the benefits of mobility*"

A third case of the importance of high context in Japanese communication in professional documents is shown in the level of formality. In general, Japanese style is much more formal than any other language. This Spanish e-mail, which would not be suitable for a Japanese audience is presented to our students to be corrected as if it were to be sent to a Japanese firm.

De: Araceli Benito
Enviado el: Miércoles 8 de Enero de 2003, 11:06
Para: María Teresa Álvarez
CC: Tomás Martín
Asunto: Muestras de madera

Hola Manuel:
Como sabes, acabamos de recibir los datos de muestras de madera de la semana 51 de 2002. En relación con este tema, me gustaría que pudieras aclararme algunas dudas que todos tenemos:

1. Falta **incorporar la línea de caoba** Ref.5543 en la lista de productos

2. Las **lecturas de las semanas 45 á 51** de palo santo no figuran, cosa que nos extraña mucho. ¿Que dicen los de Grecia sobre esto?

3. En los desgloses que tenemos de paneles sintéticos que encontramos al final de la lista de productos aparece: "Paneles teñidos sintéticos", y más abajo "paneles filosaturados".
¿Por qué no ponemos la línea de "Sintéticos" junto con las líneas de "Ecológicos Color", que tenemos en primer lugar, y eliminamos el resto?

Espero que puedas aclararnos estos puntos lo antes posible, debido a la proximidad de los planes de marketing.

Gracias anticipadas por tu colaboración y un saludo

A.Benito

Fig. 3 Example of e-mail that should be modified if intended for a Japanese firm

The high context dimension also affects non-verbal communication. A key element in Japanese communication that is particularly interesting is *silence*. Silence is differently evaluated according to cultures. A Japanese person would judge inappropriate and rude to be asked twice while he is still thinking about an answer. Silence for a Japanese person may mean “I want to think about it”, “I don´t agree with you” “I am not going to comment right now” On the contrary, for some Westerners, too long a silence can make someone feel uneasy and they tend to avoid it. Silence is a feature that our students must recognize as it plays an important part when communicating with Japanese people.

In Japan symbols, colours, body language and all sorts of signs take part of the common context that adds meaning to communication. In job interviews and presentations our students need to know the importance of facial expression. In intercultural communication a good first impression can even change the state of negotiations. For Japanese people, a smiling face is the symbol of a right personality. When greeting, in contrast, they will not look to each other´s eyes as a sign of respect and if someone does it can be considered intimidating.

Furthermore, in Japan a facial expression of sadness or anger will be avoided as they are educated not to show their emotions what is sometimes difficult to understand for Westerners. It is also humiliating for them to be ashamed in public; to lose face is something hideous, so that most Japanese people try not to do anything embarrassing publicly. This information is something our students should know because as future negotiators they should take into account the values and sensibility of their colleagues.

Non-verbal communication in Japan is the consequence of an inherited knowledge and this is why it is difficult to be interpreted by people from another culture. It is likely that for our students some of the Japanese symbols below (Fig.4,5,6,7) will be incomprehensible showing the need of knowing the context to understand communication.

Fig. 4 Japanese gesture meaning something is promised

Fig.5 Notice that avoids saying “No”

Fig. 6 Notice banning tattoos on public baths

Fig.7 Notice forbidding stepping on

But knowing the style of the differing culture can be remarkably positive. An excellent example of this is the use of candlestick graphics nowadays for decision making in the stock exchange, foreign change, commodity and option trading. In the book entitled *Beyond candlesticks* (1994), the American author Steve Nison explains the old Japanese candlestick chart technique that was used to explain the trends in the rice market. This technique was based on the use of some special visual aids using colours and a special pattern. Its advantage is that more information can be conveyed using that type of charting than with bar charts and can easily be accounted for because Japanese people being members of a high context culture are accustomed to express details that contribute to expand meaning.

Finally, some other characteristics of the Japanese culture highly influenced by the high context dimension are: being punctual, being patient and hardworking, being modest in language and behavior, being ambiguous so as not to hurt, observing the protocol or confirming when listening. When facing cross-cultural communication listening is a very important fact and interlocutors should be open and keep their minds attentive to interpret an unexpected response.

***Fear and Trembling*: cultural conflict in a Japanese corporation**

Through the film “Fear and Trembling”, life in a multinational corporation in the last decade of the twentieth century is shown. The following statements spoken by different characters in the film show how the cultural background and the attitudes behind it can produce intercultural conflict.

Amélie to Miss Mori (Mori-san): *I´m so glad we are both daughters of Kansai! That´s where the heart of the old Japan still beats” I was five years old when we left the Japanese mountains for the Chinese desert. That first exile made such a deep impression on me that I had felt that I should do anything to return for the country that for so long I thought of as my native land”* (harmony with nature and old idea of Japan)

Miss Mori Amelie´s boss wants that Amelie apologizes to her because being her superior she is responsible for Amelie´s acts but the Belgian working girl denial is based on “*honour also exists in the West”*. (idea of “honour” based on duties and respect to hierarchy versus on personal response to a situation)

Tenshi-san to Amélie: “*if you do talk (to Mori-san), there is a serious chance of making things worse*” Amélie to herself “*I must speak otherwise I´ll never forgive myself*” Eastern/Western honour.

Saito-san to Amélie: “*why do you think you can defend yourself?*

Amélie-san and Mr Tenshi skipped a step in the organizational ladder “*We were called traitors, uncompetent, snakes, deceitful and- the height of injury- individualists*”.

Mr Tenshi in defense of Amélie who had helped him with a report argues: “*Mr Saitama doesn´t speak French…he would have found it far more difficult than Amélie san*”
Mr Omoshi answers: “*Be quiet.* ***This disgusting sort of pragmatism is worth of a Westerner*”** (Hierarchy versus pragmatism)

Mr Tenshi trying to protect Amélie said: “*She is a Westerner, she is young, she has no experience”*. (Mr Tenshi´s intercultural competence)

Mr Omoshi remarks angrily “*how could our business partners have any feelings of trust in the presence of a white girl who understood their language?” (uncertainty avoidance)*

Amelie´s thought: “*Quitting would have been the most logical thing, but to Japanese eyes it meant losing face.”* (Amelie´s intercultural conflict)

Amelie loves Japan, however, Japanese culture with enormous respect to hierarchy and experience in detriment of individualism, pragmatism, or individual´s rights make her fall in disgrace as quotations 2,3,4,7 show. The different use of verbal language in communication in Japanese is also responsible for some of Amelie´s worst blunders. These situations also reflect the cultural dimensions involved such as harmony with nature (1), uncertainty avoidance (8) and individualism versus collectivism (5) and the intercultural competence of Tenshi-san at (7) when trying to justify Amelie´s position before his superiors.

All this cultural information is not clearly perceived by our students and their reaction to the film is that of **s**urprise both by Amelie´s attitude and by the whole situation.
In order to make them think about cross-cultural conflict we prepared some questions for the students:

What was the thing that most called your attention in the film?
In your opinion who were the two main characters in the film and why?

Why do you think Mori-san wrote to Amelie in Japanese at the end?

Why do you think finally Saito san took pity on Amelie and apologized?

Do you think the film is biased to any of the two cultures?

Was there anything wrong in Amelie´s attitude? What else could she have done?

Has the film improved your understanding of the intercultural issue?

To make the activity more motivating, encourage the students to speak and make the experience really cross-cultural we added a listening activity. We invited a student from Swansea University to watch the film and record her opinion on that and answer the questions prepared. Our Spanish students had a native speaker´s opinion to listen to and her answers would elicit our students ´opinions either agreeing, disagreeing or adding their own point of view. As an example of the interest of the discussion and the involvement of the students we can mention the opinion of Edisson. This student who comes from a South American country, sharing by birth a high-context culture, remarked that for him the most incredible thing about the film was to see how Japanese people could hide their feelings, especially negative feelings like sadness to show their strength in public. In this student´s opinion showing one´s feelings should not be a key factor for being or not a good boss. His opinion encourages further research as expressing feelings in professional contexts does not seem necessarily associated to the fact of belonging to a high or low context culture as it could have been inferred at first sight. The same student wrote, "*competitiveness between workers is like a disease in the Japanese corporation portrayed in the film*" which indicates our students start to become aware of cross-cultural differences.

All this intercultural discussion about the film and the examples given to our students for raising their intercultural awareness will permit to practise English in class with the purpose of acquiring the intercultural competence needed for today´s global marketplace. The students will practice professional skills and language skills (writing, listening, reading and speaking) with an eye on foreign cultures that will make them more open-minded and ready to learn.

Conclusions

The goal of this communication has been to show the need of making our students aware that intercultural competence is needed when English is spoken in international contexts. Engineers know that technology is nowadays produced and sold everywhere in the planet and language is no longer the only factor needed to achieve an effective communication.

Moreover, learning to understand different cultures one´s own culture is understood and professional skills can be so improved. Personal qualities are also addressed in the intercultural issue and it will contribute to create engineers with wider interpersonal skills.

When teaching intercultural awareness it will be helpful that the teachers find the opportunity to put into contact students from different universities so that the activities to raise intercultural awareness will be even more attractive. In our teaching experience, a student from Swansea University recorded her voice answering questions about the film and our students were motivated to listen to her opinion especially when she even studied a different degree.

Finally, it presents a specific cultural conflict by means of a film. To conclude, a last comment on the title of the film, maybe in the old times Japanese people followed the old imperial protocol addressing his emperor with "fear and trembling" but today things have changed. Foreseeably, in the future, cultures will likely no longer be considered an obstacle for communication but an important way to enrich our thoughts and behaviour.

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A Contrastive Analysis of Spanish Scholars' Academic Needs in Medicine and in the Social Sciences

Abstract

There is no doubt that English has become the major language of international scientific communication. As a result, over the last few decades there has been an increasing interest in publishing research in English-language journals.

In this paper, we report some of the results obtained from a large-scale online survey administered among Spanish scholars in the fields of Medicine and the Social Sciences. We focus on their attitudes and motivations towards reporting research in English, their writing strategies, their past experiences and difficulties encountered, and their needs for training in ERPP.

Our results indicate that scholars in both fields generally believe that publishing in English has a major impact in the international context in comparison with Spanish. However, more than a third rate their own writing proficiency in EAP as either low or very low. The aspects of academic writing which need more reinforcement include interpretation of results, conventions of scientific journals, and effective strategies to report on one's research both convincingly and coherently. The information derived from the survey should allow us to design training materials and courses that will be of assistance to Spanish scholars in both fields.

Keywords: ERPP, academic needs, Spanish scholars, Medicine, Social Sciences.

Introduction

The generalized tendency of national assessment systems to reward with more credits the publications in high-impact English journals in terms of promotion and salary increment (Curry & Lillis, 2004; Moreno, 2010) has led, among other intrinsic reasons, to the present situation in which multilingual researchers seem to be unalterably compelled to write in English. This is the case of Spanish scholars in most disciplinary areas (Gómez et al., 2006). The fact of the matter is that, even though native English-speaking scholars may experience difficulties in acquiring a good command of academic literacy (Swales, 2004; Ferguson et al., 2011), it may be argued that publishing in English-language journals represents an additional hurdle for non-native speakers of this language, mainly due to rhetorical divergences from the discourse norms widely accepted by the members of the international English-speaking academic community (Flowerdew, 1999; Lillis & Curry, 2006, 2010; Hanauer & Englander, 2011).

In an effort to facilitate publication in English, over the last few years, an increasing number of intercultural and cross-disciplinary genre-analytic studies have examined descriptively the differences (and similarities) between Spanish scholars' practices when writing in English and Spanish (see, for example, Moreno, 1998; Burgess, 2002; Lorés-Sanz, 2006; Mur Dueñas, 2007, Martín-Martín, 2008; Suárez & Moreno, 2008, to cite just a few). Other more recent survey-based studies (Fernández Polo & Cal Varela, 2009, Pérez-Llantada et al., 2010; Ferguson et al., 2011; Moreno et al. 2012) have emphasized the actual need of Spanish scholars for scientific writing assistance and pedagogical resources to train them in English for Research Publication Purposes (ERPP) skills. However, little is known about differences and similarities of Spanish scholars' needs in specific disciplinary areas.

This paper reports a part of the results obtained from the analysis of the responses to a large-scale online survey which was administered to Ph. D. researchers from various disciplines and affiliated to five Spanish teaching and/or research institutions. On the basis of the responses to this survey, our paper focuses on two specific research fields, namely Medicine and the Social Sciences (Education, Psychology and Sociology). We aim to investigate comparatively Spanish scholars' attitudes and motivations, writing strategies and difficulties experienced with publishing in English-language journals, and future needs for training in ERPP.

Methodological aspects

We started by compiling a total number of 8,794 valid e-mail addresses of staff with doctorates affiliated to the five institutions participating in the project: the Spanish Council for Scientific Research (CSIC), the University of Jaume I (UJI), the University of León (ULE), the University of La Laguna (ULL) and the University of Zaragoza (UZ). After receiving input on questionnaire design from applied linguists, sociologists and psychologists, we came up with a first version of the questionnaire composed of 67 questions and divided into six broad thematic areas:

- Personal and professional information.
- Competence in the use of English and Spanish.
- Language choices for research publication purposes: Attitudes and motivations.
- Past experience and difficulties with the publication of research articles.
- Current strategies when preparing a paper for publication in scientific journals.
- Training in research writing and future training needs and wants.

We then proceeded to the validation of the questionnaire with a pilot sample of 200 informants (2.3%). After subsequent minor design revisions, the final version of the questionnaire was launched among the entire population[1]. The total number of respondents who completed the questionnaire was 1,717 (19.5%). In the specific field of Medical Sciences (MED), the number of responses obtained was 84 (4.9% of the total population). In terms of gender characteristics, 59.5% of the informants were males and 36.4% were females. Their average age was 48.19, and the mean number of years as a doctor was 18,07. As regards their academic status, most of the respondents were senior lecturers and full professors at the universities (35.7%) or tenured staff at the CSIC (14.3%). In the field of Social Sciences (SOC), we obtained 111 responses (7.6% of the total population), out of which 51.5% were males and 48.5% females, with a mean age of 47.03 years and an average of 13.16 years with a doctor's degree. Regarding academic status, most were senior lectures (43.2%) and assistant teachers (20.7%).

Findings and Discussion

In the first part of this section we explore Spanish scholars' motivations and attitudes towards publishing in English-medium international journals as opposed to Spanish journals. In the second part, we present the results of those sections of the survey concerning scholars' self-rated proficiency in ERPP, how this proficiency was acquired, and how it is then employed in the preparation and writing of research papers. In the third part, we attempt to determine the communication difficulties faced by Spanish scholars and their past experiences when reporting their research in English. In the last part, we give an account of the participants' specific preferences in terms of ERPP future training needs, mainly the aspects of academic writing that should receive most attention in a given programme and how the programme should be implemented.

Attitudes and motivations for publishing in English

When asked about the importance of publishing in English for the members of their research communities, most informants (92.9% in MED and 79% in SOC) consider it very or quite desirable to publish in English. In fact, despite the difficulties that Spanish researchers may experience when writing in a language other than their L1, the survey revealed that English is the preferred language of publication in MED, since the mean number of scientific articles that the respondents have published as a corresponding author over the last 10 years is much higher in English than in Spanish. However, in SOC, the results differed in this respect, as seen in Table 1.

	Articles in English	Articles in Spanish
Medical Sciences	15	4.9
Social Sciences	3	33

Table 1. Mean number of articles published as a corresponding author over the last 10 years.

As for the reasons that generally have influenced their decision to publish most papers in English, the main motivation reported was the desire to communicate the results of their research to the members of the international scientific community (88.1% in MED and 89.6% in SOC). This was followed by the desire for their work to be widely recognized (86.9% in MED and 88.1% in SOC), in order to meet the requirements for professional promotion (79.8% in MED and 83.6% in SOC) and, in relation to this previous motivation, as a means of getting cited more frequently (73.8% in MED and 68.7% in SOC). Considering that Spanish institutions value as higher the publication in high-impact English journals, it is not surprising to corroborate that this politics conditions to a great extent the choice for language publication. As a matter of fact, the main reasons reported to decide against publishing research articles in Spanish are the lack of existence of prestigious journals in this language, and the fact that this would not offer them the benefits they seek. Conversely, the main reasons that have led them not to consider to publish in English are related to their self-perceived lack of writing skills in academic English as to reach the standard that international journals require, and to the lack of familiarity with the writing conventions expected by these journals (e.g. putting their research into a wider context, clearly expressing their contribution to the field, making sure their conclusions fit their objectives, etc.). To a lesser extent, they also reported the fact that writing in English is a time-consuming task which implies too much effort, and other factors related to economic issues, that is, resorting to the assistance of translators and text editors involves increased costs for which they do not have funds available.

These reasons contrast sharply with their main motivations for publishing in Spanish (which, in all cases, rated lower), namely: the desire to communicate the results of their research to the local community, as a part of a commission or invitation from an institution, association or publisher, and as a way of fostering the continued existence of scientific journals in Spanish. In relation to this latter motivation, it is interesting to highlight the fact that in MED, as some of the respondents commented, it has been traditionally established to publish only in English-language journals, since the journals in Spanish are not included in prestigious citation indexes; this has led to the almost total disappearance of national journals in this area of research.

Turning to the question of how the informants feel when they write up the results of their research in English-language journals, a high proportion of the respondents feel very motivated (58.3% in MED and 82.1% in SOC), fairly capable (51.2% in MED and 52.2% in SOC), sure of themselves (47.6% in MED and 41.8% in SOC) and neither loyal nor disloyal to their native language (35.7% in MED and 46.3% in SOC). In contrast, although their capability and self-assurance is higher when writing in Spanish, their motivation for writing in this language is much lower than in English, arguably due to the reasons stated above.

Regarding the consequences that they perceive when publishing in one or other language, the respondents reported that publishing in English greatly facilitates the dissemination of Spanish research internationally and the participation of Spanish scholars in international networks (90.5% in MED and 89% in SOC), as well as the visibility of Spanish research on topics of international concern (82.1% in MED and 90% in SOC). On the other hand, the informants are aware of the negative consequences of writing in English, namely that it hinders not only the development of academic writing in Spanish, but also the research on topics of local concern and the survival of scientific journals in Spanish.

Needs analysis of the learning situation

With regard to scholars' self-reports of proficiency in ERPP, the majority of respondents (88.1% in MED and 71.3% in SOC) rated their academic reading skills in English as high or very high. More than half of the informants in MED (64.3%) also consider their level of competence in establishing correspondence with editors and peer reviewers as high-very high, and over half of the informants (58.3%) reported high levels of writing proficiency in ERPP. In contrast, writing proficiency was rated low or very low by 48.5% of respondents in SOC.

In both fields, their listening comprehension skills, mainly in terms of understanding lectures, rated lower levels, and even lower rates of spoken interaction proficiency were reported, especially when it comes to presenting papers at international conferences and asking/responding questions at these fora. This indicates that special attention to developing speaking skills in academic settings should be paid at the instructional level.
As for the strategies that have helped them to learn how to write research papers in English, most of the respondents (69% in MED and 61% in SOC) reported that they have acquired their writing competences by means of engaging in the actual task of writing, and in 66.7% of the cases in MED and 67% in SOC, by paying attention to the rhetorical features of professional authors. Other useful strategies that the informants reported as very useful were the comments from journal editors, peer reviewers, and the

editors of their own texts (53.6% in MED and 50% in SOC). To a lesser extent, they also found very helpful the advice received on research visits abroad (41.7% in MED and 25.9% in SOC), and the suggestions from members of their research groups (40.5% in MED and 37.2% in SOC). However, only 16.7% of respondents in MED consider manuals and textbooks as helpful tools for acquiring writing skills, whereas in SOC formal training such as special doctoral courses and practical workshops on academic writing has proved to be much less helpful (5% and 3.7%, respectively). These latter low rates can be explained by a generalized lack of applicability in the survey in relation to the strategies of learning to write in English through doctoral courses, and by participating in workshops and practical seminars. This clearly reveals a paucity of specialized courses that focus on formal academic writing training in Spanish institutions, thus constituting an important aspect to be addressed in further stages of this project.

As part of the preparation process, before sending their articles to a scientific journal in English, most of our respondents (81% in MED and 86.6% in SOC) familiarise themselves to a great extent with the topics the journal covers, the writing conventions (i.e. the structural elements) expected by the journal (69% in MED and 68.7% in SOC), the instructions in the journal's style guide (61.9% in MED and 74.6% in SOC), and the editorial process that the journal typically follows (57.1% in MED and 52.2% in SOC). However, less than half of the respondents (47.6% in MED and 44.8% in SOC) reported to be highly familiar with the stylistic features of academic writing specific to the journal, i.e. typical sentence length, ways of expressing ideas clearly and appropriate style, how to organise paragraphs, grammar and vocabulary. This shows that this last aspect is the one that needs to be paid more attention to in the designing of an academic writing course.

As regards the frequency of use of writing strategies, 51.2% of the informants in MED and only 31.3% in SOC opt for writing their papers directly in English and then have their texts edited by an expert writer who is familiar with their field. Another strategy that greatly contrasts across the two fields (20.2% in MED and 6% in SOC) consists of writing their papers directly in English and then submit them straight forward without any further revision. Conversely, in 10.7 % of the cases in MED and 26.8% in SOC, the writers opt for writing their papers in Spanish and then having them translated, in most cases, by a native speaker of English who is very familiar with their field. The last preferred option reported in MED (7.1%) and in SOC (21%) consists of writing the articles partly in English and partly in Spanish and then have them translated and edited mainly by a native-speaker of English who is familiar with their research area. Although these strategies (especially those which imply writing directly in English) typically involve a high degree of effort, the respondents reported that the effort put into these publishing strategies is matched by the high degree of satisfaction deriving from the outcomes. The results from this part of the survey mainly highlight the important role of expert editors for Spanish academics in the process of preparing a manuscript, constituting this an aspect that should be extensively examined in future research.

Publishing difficulties in English: Past experiences

Another section of the questionnaire was devoted to investigating the sections of the article and other documents involved in its publication with which informants have experienced more difficulties when writing in English. In both disciplines, the Discussion section and the response to peer reviewers' comments are the most challenging parts to write. These are followed by the theoretical framework, the introduction, the results, the conclusions, other sections, the abstract and the correspondence with the editor. As expected, the least problematic parts are the cover letter accompanying the paper when it is sent to the journal, and the acknowledgements.

When asked about the difficulties that have prevented them as corresponding authors from publishing research articles in English journals, the respondents in both fields reported (in a scale from 1 = not at all, to 5 = a lot) the following factors:

- Features of my writing in English, e.g. grammatical, vocabulary, ways of expressing ideas clearly in paragraphs and style mistakes such as long sentences or complex constructions. (5.00 in both fields)
- Not offering results of sufficient interest to the readers of the journal. (3.00 in MED and 2.00 in SOC)
- Supposed flaws in certain areas of the content of the research, e.g. design methods, use of statistics, etc. (3.00 in both fields)

- Not following the writing conventions expected by the journal in which I have chosen to report my research, e.g. putting my research into a wider context, appropriately reviewing the literature, clearly expressing my contribution to field, making sure my conclusions fit my objectives, etc. (2.5 in MED and 3.00 in SOC)
- Not writing in accordance with the instructions in the journal's style guide, e.g. word limits, format of tables, pages, citations, bibliography, etc. (2.00 in both fields)
- Not writing on a topic that fitted the content of the journal to which I sent the article. (1.5 in MED and 2.00 in SOC)

The frequency of occurrence of these aspects coincides to a great extent with the types of revision reported that referees and editors of English journals most frequently require authors to do. However, although the respondents see the features of their writing in English as the main obstacle for publishing in English journals, when asked about the main reasons put forward by editors and reviewers in those cases of rejection, the frequency of occurrence of these aspects varied:

- Supposed flaws in certain areas of the content of the research. (2.59 in MED and 2.28 in SOC)
- Features of the writing of the paper. (2.07 in MED and 2.22 in SOC)
- Not having reflected the writing conventions expected by the journal in which I have chosen to report my research. (2.05 in MED and 2.12 in SOC)
- Not having adhered to the instructions in the journal's style guide. (1.63 in MED and 1.72 in SOC)

This indicates that, although reviewers and editors of international English language journals give great importance to the use of appropriate discourse features, the primary reason for rejection is related to flaws in the content of the study.

Future training needs in RA publication skills

When asked about their needs in terms of future ERPP training, approximately half of the informants (51.4% in MED and 49%in SOC) expressed their intention to continue their training in the writing of RAs so as to send them to scientific journals in English. As regards the aspects of academic writing that should receive more attention in a given programme, the respondents consider that a main focus should be given to academic writing for publication purposes in fields related to their research (65.6% in MED and 73.1% in SOC), and the problems that Spanish authors typically have when writing RAs (65.6% in MED and 59% in SOC). Other important aspects are related to how to write each section of the RA (55.7% in MED and 66.7% in SOC), to academic writing for the journals in which they intend to publish (49.2% in MED and 53% in SOC) and to academic writing for publishing purposes in general (42.6% in MED and 41% in SOC). General aspects of academic writing (39.3% in MED and 46.2% in SOC), and the most appropriate order in which each section should be written (34.4% in MED and 38.5% in SOC) were considered secondary points to be dealt with in a training course.

Furthermore, most of the respondents (77% in MED and 75.6% in SOC) showed their interest in learning how to better 'tell my research story' in accordance with the discourse and writing conventions of the journal. They also mentioned that their training sessions should develop those aspects of RA writing aiming to arriving at a better understanding of 'what' counts as research in scientific journals (42.6% in MED and 50% in SOC), the similarities and differences between research writing for publication in Spanish and international journals (41.0% in MED and 69.2% in SOC), and the review process in scientific journals: the editor's role, the role of the peer reviewers, etc. (34.4% in MED and 53.8% in SOC). In relation to the specific aspect of 'how to tell my research story", the following items were ranked in importance according to a scale ranging from 1 = none, to 5 = a lot:

- Strategies to express my contribution to the field more clearly. (4.44 in MED and 4.18 in SOC)
- Ways of clearly expressing my interpretation of the results of my study. (4.39 in both fields)
- Strategies to ensure text flow so that my readers will readily understand the case I present. (4.27 in MED and 4.35 in SOC)
- Structures for expressing my ideas in correct grammar. (4.27 in MED and 3.94 in SOC)
- Ways of clearly linking the various parts of the article, i.e. ideas, paragraphs and sections. (4.22 in MED and 4.04 in SOC)

- Structures for expressing my ideas clearly and precisely. (4.22 in MED and 4.04 in SOC)
- Ways of expressing my claims with the appropriate amount of confidence and certainty. (4.10 in MED and 3.84 in SOC)
- Ways of organizing my ideas logically and coherently. (4.05 in MED and 3.96 in SOC)
- Appropriate academic style in my discipline, e.g. personal versus impersonal. (3.85 in MED and 4.02 in SOC)
- Ways of appropriately reviewing the literature. (3.73 in MED and 3.55 in SOC)
- The specific terminology in my field. (3.66 in MED and 3.51 in SOC)
- General academic writing vocabulary (3.66 in MED and 3.55 in SOC)

As regards the types of publications which should receive more attention in the training sessions, most of the informants (83.6% in MED and 94.9% in SOC) reported the empirical article in its various forms (experimental, descriptive, analytical, comparative, case studies, survey-based). This was followed by the review article (75.4% in MED and 60.3% in SOC) and, to a much lesser extent, by the theoretical-methodological article (29.5% in MED and 50% in SOC) and the book review (14.8% in MED and 21.8% in SOC).

Finally, when asked about the most suitable ways of receiving RA writing training, the preferred options were (in a scale from 1 = not at all, to 5 = very) by means of translation and authors' editing services (4.00 in MED and 4.35 in SOC), practically-oriented workshops on the writing of research articles (3.93 in MED and 4.12 in SOC), and computer-based interactive help with the writing of research papers (3.69 in MED and 3.99 in SOC). They rated as less helpful the use of textbooks with practical exercises on various aspects of research article writing (3.07 in MED and 3.08 in SOC) and theoretically-oriented books on the writing of research articles (2.56 in MED and 2.74 in SOC).

Conclusions

In this study, we have tried to explore the situation faced by Spanish scholars in the medical and the socials sciences regarding publishing in English-medium international journals. By means of a needs analysis survey, we have examined the experiences and difficulties with the publication of papers. Despite the striking difference in language preference for publication (English in MED and Spanish in SOC), most of the results obtained are similar in both disciplinary fields, and certainly point at a generalised need for training in specific areas of academic writing and writing for publication purposes.

In further research, it would be interesting to study cross-disciplinary variation by comparing these results with those obtained from the analysis of the responses to the survey in other disciplinary areas, i.e. Arts and Humanities, which are more culturally-bound and therefore would arguably yield a greater number of differences in terms of Spanish scholars' needs for ERPP.

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O Português como língua de comunicação especializada?

Resumo

Poderá já ser lugar-comum afirmar que o enorme ritmo a que a evolução científica e tecnológica se processou no último século teve, e continuará a ter, repercussões económicas, sociais, políticas e culturais sem precedentes. A produção científica e tecnológica faz-se a uma velocidade impressionante e com níveis de especialização tais que a comunicação entre profissionais da mesma área pode ser difícil de processar por quem não faça parte desse mesmo círculo. Como tal, a formação académica em qualquer área do conhecimento terá, forçosamente, que permitir aos discentes um domínio pleno dos conceitos e respectivos termos que dela fazem parte, para que sejam bem sucedidos na sua profissão futura. A isto acresce o facto da globalização e internacionalização dos saberes especializados aumentar exponencialmente a necessidade de sistematização e harmonização das línguas naturais, de modo a evitarem o risco real de serem substituídas, em registo de comunicação profissional, por línguas consideradas “internacionais” ou “mais aptas” (como é o caso do inglês).

O nosso objectivo será o de apresentar dois casos práticos em que o português é a língua de comunicação de especialidade em um Curso de Ciências Empresariais (caso prático I) e em que a mesma língua materna é o instrumento mediador da aquisição e compreensão do IFE em um Curso de Gestão e Administração Hoteleira (caso prático II), com o intuito de contribuir para a clarificação do papel central desempenhado pelas línguas maternas tidas como minoritárias/ menorizadas na comunicação e sistematização dos saberes especializados (caso prático I) e para a desmistificação dos argumentos contra a utilização e relevância das línguas maternas no processo de ensino/aprendizagem do IFE, enquanto sustentáculo de uma organização conceptual e linguística que naturalmente se pressupõe com um grau mais elevado de estruturação, quando consideramos a comunicação de especialidade (caso prático II).

Palavras-chave: línguas de especialidade; comunicação especializada, línguas para fins específicos.

Abstract

It may sound as a cliché to state that the impressive pace at which technology and science evolved in the 20th century had, and still does, unprecedented economic, social, political and cultural consequences. The technologic and scientific productions were not only very fast but also reached such a specialisation level that communication among professionals in the same area can be difficult to process by anyone who is not a member. Any tertiary education curriculum should, therefore, prepare the students to fully grasp the concepts and terms it encompasses, thus paving the way for a successful professional career. In addition, the globalisation and internationalisation processes undergone by specialised areas has led to a pressing need for the systematisation and harmonisation of natural languages, with the purpose of avoiding the risk of being replaced, in professional communication contexts, for other languages considered 'international' or "more suitable' (as is the case with English).

Our objective is to put forward two practical cases in which Portuguese is the language used in the specialised communication scenario, namely in a Business Communication degree (practical case I) and in a Hotel Management degree (practical case II), aiming at clarifying the central role played by mother tongues considered minority/ minorised languages in the communication and systematisation of specialised knowledge (practical case I), in the learning/teaching process of ESP and as the mainstay of a linguistic and conceptual organisation seen as more demanding in specialised communication (practical case II).

Key words: specialised languages; specialised communication, languages for specific purposes.

Introdução

O ritmo impressionante a que a evolução científica e tecnológica se processou no último século teve, e continuará a ter, repercussões económicas, sociais, políticas e culturais sem precedentes. A celeridade da produção científica e tecnológica, aliada aos níveis de especialização da comunicação entre profissionais da mesma área, pode ser difícil de processar por quem não faça parte dessa mesma comunidade. Como tal, a formação académica em qualquer área do conhecimento terá, forçosamente, que permitir aos discentes um domínio pleno dos conceitos e respectivos termos que dela fazem parte, para que sejam bem-sucedidos na sua profissão futura. A isto acresce o facto da globalização e internacionalização dos saberes especializados (científicos e tecnológicos) aumentar a necessidade de sistematização e de harmonização das línguas naturais.

Apesar das premissas acima expostas granjearem um consenso considerável junto dos docentes de línguas para fins específicos, as práticas pedagógicas nem sempre revelam uma relação causa-consequência. Se é tido como verdade que as línguas de especialidade são, por excelência, o veículo de comunicação entre os especialistas e os seus públicos, não deveria o desenho dos *curricula* e as actividades e estratégias de ensino a eles subjacentes reflectir a inevitabilidade de, findo o percurso académico, o aluno ter um domínio cabal de conceitos e termos inerentes à sua área de formação?
Não obstante a ausência de resultados estatísticos abrangentes que confirmem o que poderá ser tido como mera intuição, o trabalho em sala de aula ao longo de quase duas décadas, acrescido da partilha com os pares de ensaios de investigação nesta área, são reveladores de que, tanto no que respeita à proficiência em língua materna como em língua estrangeira (para fins específicos), a grande maioria dos licenciados manifesta insegurança aquando da interacção oral e da produção escrita em contexto profissional. Como poderá ter já ficado claro, na nossa perspectiva, o sucesso da comunicação profissional está, em larga medida, ancorado no domínio seguro de conceitos especializados e nas respectivas terminologias e para tal torna-se imperativo investir no desenvolvimento e na aplicação de práticas pedagógicas que conduzam inequivocamente ao domínio *de facto* da comunicação especializada. Contudo, as línguas de especialidade, que estão na base deste tipo de comunicação, já não podem ser vistas apenas como repositório de “vocabulary of subjects to which, it is assumed, the average person will not have access” (Maia, 2001), nem como estruturas rígidas de uma organização lexical inflexível, em que os termos pressupõem uma univocidade inquestionável com a realidade extra-linguística, como era originalmente preconizado pela teoria wüsteriana.

Assim, o nosso objectivo neste artigo passará por apresentar um enquadramento teórico que sustente os dois casos práticos, sem nunca perder de vista a perspectiva eminentemente prática que pretendemos partilhar.

A língua portuguesa no mundo e no ensino superior

Apesar da língua portuguesa contar com 272,9 milhões de falantes (sendo a quinta língua mais falada do mundo, a terceira língua mais falada no hemisfério ocidental e a mais falada no hemisfério sul[28]) e das economias brasileiras e angolana apresentarem crescimentos muito acima da média da economia mundial, há um risco real de perda de domínios na comunicação profissional/especializada:

> "A não comunicação numa língua de especialidade pode conduzir a limitações na conceptualização numa dada língua, o que tem por efeito directo, a dificuldade na transmissão de conhecimentos na referida língua, muito em particular devido ao não domínio ou à não existência da terminologia que lhes permite denominar os conceitos e os respectivos sistemas conceptuais."[29]

A história da humanidade tem testemunhado vezes sem conta o nascimento e o desaparecimento de civilizações e, simultaneamente, das línguas que serviam de suporte a essas culturas, não sendo por isso novidade os processos de extinção linguística - a surpresa reside na velocidade a que têm vindo a processar-se. Sobretudo nas últimas duas décadas do séc. XX e com uma premência ainda mais assinalável no presente século, a globalização económica contribuiu não só para a uniformização de produtos e mercados, mas também para dar um ímpeto aparentemente imparável às línguas internacionais, que dominarão em virtude da necessidade de poupar tempo e recursos, facilitando a comunicação e, obviamente, as trocas comerciais. O domínio claro da língua inglesa tanto na comunicação profissional, como em contexto pessoal e social, é a face mais visível daquilo que muitas vezes é apelidado "novo imperialismo" cultural[30]

[28] Dados do *Observatório de Língua Portuguesa*: http://observatorio-lp.sapo.pt/pt/ligacoes/sitios-de-interesse1/politica-da-lingua/nova-geopolitica - consultado em 3 agosto 2012.

[29] Costa, Rute. "Recursos, metodologias e tecnologias para o desenvolvimento e sustentabilidade das línguas minoritárias e minorizada." Mesa Redonda. Rede Iberoamericana de Terminologia (RITERM), Barcelona, 30 novembro 2004.

[30] Breton, Roland J.-L. "Can English be dethroned?" The UNESCO Courier nr. 53, 4 (2000): 23-24.

e que assume dimensões extraordinárias quando se afere o número de utilizadores por cada língua materna utilizada no ciberespaço[31]. Estes factos apontam para consequências sérias e provavelmente irreparáveis no que concerne o multiculturalismo, uma vez que a perda de terminologias de domínios e a incapacidade de comunicar num língua de especialidade conduzem inexoravelmente à diminuição do plurilinguismo (a base da construção democrática da União Europeia) e para a perda da biodiversidade cultural da humanidade.

Estaremos perante um fenómeno ambivalente de sobrevalorização do inglês como língua de comunicação especializada e subvalorização do potencial cognitivo e profissional das restantes línguas maternas? Certamente porque estes sintomas eram visíveis já há algumas décadas, a partir dos anos 70 do séc. XX assistiu-se a uma viragem dentro da comunicação profissional, com o incentivo inequívoco à variação intra e interlinguística que se materializou, no espaço europeu, com a criação em 1973 de uma base de dados multilingue, o Eurodicautom (Euroterm+Dicautom), com quatro línguas nacionais (alemão, francês, italiano e neerlandês), que em 2007 evoluiu para o IATE (Interactive Terminology for Europe), onde todas as línguas oficiais da União Europeia estão representadas. Temos assim a terminologia ao serviço da política linguística europeia, que faz parte de um plano estratégico detalhado para a preservação do multilinguismo, do qual podemos salientar iniciativas como “2008: Ano Europeu do Diálogo Intercultural”[32] e a proposta para a inclusão nos sistemas de ensino da UE da fórmula “língua materna mais duas”, em que uma delas seria a “língua pessoal

[31] Prado, Daniel. “Le contexte politique et juridique.” Mesurer la diversité linguistique sur Internet. *Publication de l'UNESCO pour le Sommet mondial sur la société de l'information*, (UNESCO, 2005): 35-41.

[32] É interessante salientar que no supra-referido ano, o Presidente da Comissão Europeia, José Manuel Durão Barroso e o Comissário para o Multilinguismo, Leonard Orban, nomearam um grupo constituído por personalidades do panorama cultural, o qual foi designado *Grupo de Intelectuais para o Diálogo Multicultural*, presidido pelo escritor Amin Maalouf. Destacou-se neste âmbito a participação do filósofo português Eduardo Lourenço. A tarefa proposta ao grupo foi analisar a contribuição do multilinguismo para o diálogo intercultural e para a compreensão mútua dos cidadãos na União Europeia. Foi, então produzido, também em 2008, um documento intitulado: *Um desafio salutar: como a multiplicidade das línguas poderia consolidar a Europa.* Neste texto, estabelece-se um nexo causal entre a diversidade linguística e a integração europeia:
Em suma, o ideal europeu parece-nos construído com base em duas exigências inseparáveis: a universalidade dos valores morais comuns e a diversidade das expressões culturais; em particular, a diversidade linguística representa, por razões históricas, uma componente essencial também, como tentaremos demonstrar, uma magnífica ferramenta de integração e de harmonização.(V. Reding, 2006: 8). .

adoptiva"[33] do cidadão, uma língua com a qual se identifica num plano pessoal, profissional ou cultural[34]. O plurilinguismo tem também vindo a ser protegido por projectos de cooperação internacional, sob a égide das Nações Unidas, tais como *Linguapax* (www.linguapax.org) e *International Mother Language Day* (www.un.org/en/events/motherlanguageday) e pela actuação de diferentes organizações não-governamentais como *Terralingua* (http://www.terralingua.org/), *Linguaspehere Observatory* (www.linguaspehere.org), *Language Rights* (www.linguistic-declaration.org) e *The International Federation of Teachers of Living Languages* (http://www.fiplv.org/).

Apesar de todos estes esforços, será na prática o potencial cognitivo e comunicativo das línguas maternas reconhecido pelos seus falantes? Que papel pode o português desempenhar no âmbito da comunicação e da mediação de saberes especializados? É reconhecido, do ponto de vista teórico, que a comunicação de especialidade implica uma maior organização conceptual e linguística do que a comunicação geral:

> "A língua de especialidade visa a intelectualização, ou seja, a precisão semântica, a neutralidade emotiva, a economia formal e semântica e a sistematização conceptual."[35]

No entanto, a nossa experiência docente mostra-nos que o conhecimento especializado em língua materna dos alunos do ensino terciário é de natureza intuitiva, subconsciente e implícita, e frequentemente utilizado de forma assistemática e instável, quando o oposto seria não só o desejável, mas também o normal para este nível de ensino. Consequentemente, temos as seguintes componentes do ensino especializado da língua materna como essenciais a um desempenho proficiente na utilização da mesma:

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[33] Foi concretamente proposto que o português, a par do francês, do mandarim e do espanhol fossem consideradas línguas de "comunicação internacional", podendo ser escolhidas pelos europeus como alternativa ao inglês**.** A proposta de uma «segunda língua materna», também designada «língua pessoal adoptiva», preconizou que os cidadãos fizessem uma escolha com a qual se identificassem por razões de ordem pessoal ou profissional. Este conceito deveria ser entendido pelos europeus como uma língua distintiva, diferente da sua língua identitária e também diferente da sua língua de comunicação internacional.

[34] http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-08-129_pt.htm (consultado em 3 Agosto 2012)

[35] Rute Costa (1993: 22)

a) componente **performativ**a, com o objectivo de estimular o desenvolvimento aprofundado de competências de oralidade, de escrita e de tradução nos contextos de especialidade inerentes ao domínio da formação académica do aluno.

b) componente **reflexiva**, com o intuito de proporcionar momentos de ponderação que estimulem o desenvolvimento de uma consciência crítica acerca das inter-relações entre linguagem, cognição e realidade-extralinguística, subjacentes às diferentes visões do mundo convocadas tanto pela língua materna como pelas línguas estrangeiras.

Não obstante a tendência da maioria das orientações programáticas do ensino das línguas para fins específicos assumir um claro enfoque na componente performativa, acreditamos que sem o desenvolvimento simultâneo do espírito crítico e do conhecimento estrutural dos sistemas linguísticos inerentes à componente reflexiva, o aluno não conseguirá atingir a tão desejada proficiência.

Caso prático I

O primeiro caso prático que iremos descrever versa o ensino explícito da língua materna (o português) como língua de comunicação de especialidade em cursos ligados às Ciências Empresariais, no Instituto Superior de Contabilidade e Administração do Porto. Começaremos por apresentar um exemplo de uma actividade proposta aos alunos da Unidade Curricular de *Estruturação do Texto Técnico* que envolve um percurso teórico-prático de simulação de comunicação especializada nas vertentes oral e escrita, que pressupõe a exemplificação de algumas dimensões da prática oral especializada subjacente à interacção oral de uma reunião e a exemplificação de aspectos da prática escrita subjacentes à dimensão conceptual e terminológica de produção de uma acta.

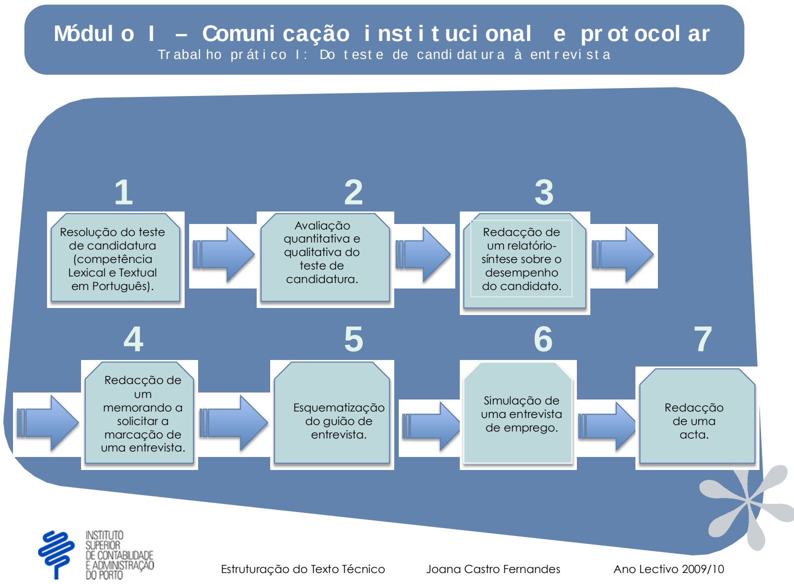

Figura 1 - Estrutura de um projecto de comunicação especializada a realizar pelos alunos.

Cada uma das etapas merece considerações particulares; todavia, para efeitos da presente reflexão analisaremos em maior detalhe os elementos relativos às etapas seis e sete, cujos objectivos propostos se apresentam sistematizados nesta tabela:

Simulação de uma entrevista de emprego **Etapa 6**	**Redacção de uma acta** **Etapa 7**
a) conhecer conceitos fundamentais de terminologia e de análise conversacional;	**a)** analisar criticamente um registo audiovisual de uma entrevista de emprego, aplicando conceitos de terminologia e de análise conversacional;
b) aplicar os conceitos estudados à planificação linguística e para-verbal de uma entrevista de emprego;	**b)** conhecer a micro e macroestrutura expositivo-argumentativa e terminológica de uma acta;
c) ser capaz de personificar, recorrendo à utilização diferenciada de termos técnicos (bem como proxémica e quinesicamente), diferentes papéis da interacção conversacional especializada inerentes a uma entrevista de emprego;	**c)** tomar notas para redacção de uma acta a partir de um registo áudio;
d) analisar criticamente um registo audiovisual de uma entrevista de emprego, aplicando conceitos de terminologia e de análise conversacional;	**d)** redigir uma acta relativa a uma entrevista de emprego, a partir da tomada de notas efectuada e sustentada em microestruturas terminológicas.

Figura 2 - Objectivos das etapas seis e sete.

Os alunos têm ainda ao seu dispor um guião de trabalho detalhado para completarem o projecto, nunca perdendo de vista que os seus produtos comunicativos orais e escritos terão de ser especializados. Apresentamos um fragmento do guião, com orientações directivas para uma articulação consistente a prática e a teoria que lhe está subjacente e que se pretende que o aluno saiba aplicar:

Guião de trabalho

a) Escolha um dos papéis propostos;

b) Estude o perfil linguístico, terminológico, proxémico e quinésico da sua personagem;

c) Planifique a sua intervenção oral, tendo em conta a necessidade discursiva especializada e o conhecimento dos restantes perfis do painel;

d) Estude os conceitos de terminologia e de análise conversacional propostos nas notas teóricas;

e) Rectifique a sua planificação enriquecendo-a com termos e fraseologias técnicas, sequências fáticas, transaccionais e marcadores conversacionais de tomada de vez, de cedência de vez...;

f) Simule a interacção oral com os restantes elementos do seu grupo;

g) Estude agora o Modelo de Cortesia de Leech e aplique-o ao perfil da sua personagem;

h) Prepare-se para iniciar a sua representação.

Figura 3- Excerto do guião de trabalho.

Com o intuito de fomentar o a relevância da componente da língua materna são também propostas tarefas intermédias de pesquisa terminológica, as quais têm por objectivo discutir conceitos centrais à concretização do projecto, como exemplificamos abaixo.

Licenciatura Assessoria e Tradução
Estruturação de Texto Técnico / 1º ano / 2º semestre

Tipologias discursivas empresariais: a reunião

Bibiografia pesquisada para aprofundamento do tema:

....

Reunião /.../10. Encontro de pessoas (sessão de um órgão consultivo) ou de organizações para tratar de assuntos específicos, segundo uma ordem pré-estabelecida de trabalhos (agenda), sobre os quais são tomadas decisões (DLPC, 2001).

(1) Construa a sua própria definição de reunião empresarial.
(2) Enumere as tipologias textuais e discursivas subjacentes a uma reunião formal.
(3) Elenque os principais procedimentos de planificação de uma reunião formal, utilizando a lista de lexemas.
(4) Elabore uma lista de 10 regras para uma reunião formal produtiva.

Ordinária
Extraordinária
Plenária
Alargada
Restrita
Privada
Moderar
Intervir
Assistir
Pública
Formal
Secretário
Informal
De cúpulas
Tempo
Conteúdos
Materiais
Alocuções
Registos escritos
Papéis discursivos
Uso da palavra
Gestão da vez
Proxémica
Quinésica
Brain-storming
Consenso
Expositivo
Deliberativo

Joana Castro Fernandes

Figura 4 : Proposta de trabalho preparatório de pesquisa terminológica.

A entrevista implica a prática oral da variação de registo em função de um perfil pré-determinado e a concretização de papéis discursivos especializados, pelo que nos parâmetros de avaliação do desempenho oral dos alunos está incluído o domínio seguro, através da verbalização, de conceitos especializados e das respectivas terminologias.

Por fim, no que diz respeito ao percurso do exercício de produção escrita técnica, este é constituído por três etapas, sendo que na primeira há lugar à elaboração de um glossário de termos técnicos utilizados na produção escrita de actas, na segunda etapa terá que ser feita a categorização dos termos e das fraseologias especializadas e, por fim, a redacção da acta a partir da escuta do ficheiro áudio e da tomada de notas.

Apresentamos, a título exemplificativo um quadro resultante da reflexão linguística de três grupos de trabalho:

Abertura	Refutações	Intervenções	Encerramento
• Abriu... • Deu início ao trabalhos... • Iniciou...	• Refutou... • Negou... • Rebateu... • Declinou... • Contestou... • Questionou...	• Tomou a palavra... • Fez uso da palavra... • Solicitou a palavra • Proferiu... • Apresentou... • Interveio... • Reformulou... • Reconsiderou... • Esclareceu... • Explicitou... • Expôs... • Fez saber... • Declarou... • Asseverou... • Comunicou... • Participou ao.. • Anadiu... • Deliberou... • Apreciou...	• Foram terminados... • Foram dados por terminados... • Foram concluídos... • Foram suspensos... • Foram interrompidos...

Figura 5: Exemplo de resultados da organização de verbos performativos e de locuções verbais.

A recolha e categorização dos verbos performativos e das locuções verbais especializadas repercutiram-se na qualidade da produção textual das actas e contribuíram para um mais claro entendimento de que a comunicação de especialidade em língua materna exige muito mais do que um mero conhecimento dos mecanismos gerais do funcionamento da língua em contexto de comunicação geral.

Caso prático II

No segundo caso prático a apresentar abordaremos o recurso explícito à língua materna como instrumento mediador da compreensão de uma Língua para Fins Específicos no curso de Gestão e Administração Hoteleira, da Escola Superior de Estudos Industriais e de Gestão, IPP.

O intuito primeiro será o de discutir a utilidade da língua materna enquanto sustentáculo para a aprendizagem de termos técnicos (de cozinha) em inglês, analisando a sua relevância para um projecto que os alunos têm que realizar ao longo do segundo semestre da licenciatura, intitulado “TV Cooking Show Project”, cujos objectivos transcrevemos abaixo:

TV Cooking Show Project

Objectivos

a) Identificar objectos e utensílios do serviço de cozinha e de mesa;

b) Identificar e descrever ingredientes e métodos de confecção;

c) Conhecer a estrutura de e elaborar uma receita;

d) Aplicar estruturas fraseológicas e pragmáticas adequadas ao registo.

Figura 6: Objectivos gerais do projecto de culinária.

O projecto implica a realização de um trabalho escrito e de um vídeo em inglês, sendo que a parte escrita é constituída obrigatoriamente por três elementos: a introdução (na qual os alunos terão de expor as origens culturais e históricas da receita, as alterações ou adaptações necessárias aos ingredientes e/ou métodos de preparação disponíveis e as razões para a escolha que fizeram), a descrição da receita (no âmbito da qual farão a listagem de ingredientes e métodos de preparação utilizados) e um glossário bilingue (no qual deverão elencar todos os termos técnicos que identificaram relativos aos ingredientes, métodos de preparação e utensílios).

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Glossary

Ref.	Name	Explanation
1	Migas	Bread Crumbs
2	Maria Lourdes Modesto	Portuguese writer that published in the 20th the best books about Portuguese food
3	Softened bread	Soggy bread (very wet and soft)
4	Lard	The melted fat of the pig, used in cooking
5	Alentejo	Southern Portuguese region
6	Beira	Middle Portuguese region
7	Cláudio Fornarias	Brazilian writer
8	Algarve, Alentejo, Beira, Trás–os–Montes	Portuguese regions
9	Maria Lucia Gomensoro	Brazilian writer
10	Aragon	Northeastern Spanish region
11	Andalucia	Southern Spanish region
12	Açordas	Made with bread, garlic, and broth
13	Oozing	Emission, discharge (Ooze – to have (something liquid) flowing slowly out
14	Migas com Carne de Porco à Alentejana	Traditional recipe of Migas, made with pork meat
15	Bowl of fire	Glazed earthenware bowl very narrow base and wide at the top
16	Chorizo	Several types of pork sausage originating from the Iberian Peninsula.

Figura 7: Exemplo de parte de um glossário bilingue elaborado pelos alunos.

A receita é depois concretizada pelos elementos do grupo, que procederão à sua elaboração em ambiente e de forma profissional, aplicando os métodos adquiridos em *Práticas Hoteleiras I e II* e gravando todo o processo em suporte digital, esperando-se que no final utilizem também algum do *software* de edição de vídeo (com efeitos sonoros e visuais) com que aprenderam a trabalhar nas aulas de *Informação e Comunicação Tecnológica I e II*.

Figura 8: Imagem retirada de um vídeo com a preparação de uma receita.

Ficarão deste modo claras as mais valias do recurso explícito à língua materna como instrumento mediador e conceptualizador para a apreensão de uma segunda visão do mundo, num contexto de especialidade profissionalizante inerente às LFE.

Reflexões finais

Consideramos que os casos práticos aqui descritos apontam claramente no sentido de os alunos de nível terciário terem bastante a beneficiar da participação em actividades de ensino-aprendizagem que explicitamente contribuam para a melhoria da sua capacidade de comunicação especializada (oral e escrita). As práticas pedagógicas que visem possibilitar o domínio de conceitos e dos termos das áreas de especialidade em que os discentes irão desenvolver as suas profissões futuras deveriam não só ser incentivadas nas Línguas para Fins Específicos e na língua materna, mas também fazer parte integrante dos *curricula* dessas unidades curriculares, nos diferentes níveis de proficiência.

No que concerne o primeiro caso prático, foi notório que após o trabalho de simulação, os alunos reconhecem mais claramente a premência e a dificuldade de saber comunicar em língua materna em contextos de especialidade. Apesar de se aperceberem que não dominam ainda cabalmente o conceito de comunicação especializada, compreendem que têm ao seu alcance uma oportunidade para o seu estudo sistemático. O exercício teórico-prático de assimilação de conceitos, de aplicação e de experimentação de situações ligadas à vida profissional produz resultados de aprendizagem satisfatórios, cuja utilidade e aplicabilidade são prontamente reconhecidas pelos discentes.

Da análise dos elementos referentes ao segundo caso prático, verificámos que após o trabalho de projecto, os alunos compreendem que a língua materna funciona claramente como mediadora em contextos de aprendizagem especializada de uma LE (inglês) e que a utilização da língua materna no processo de aprendizagem da LE em contexto de especialidade permite a valorização da identidade cultural do aluno. A estruturação consistente da língua materna e o conhecimento do mundo passam a ser reconhecidos como factores fundamentais para a conceptualização plena de uma segunda língua, pelo que se confirmará o defendido por Belcher (2004), segundo o qual a pedagogia das LFE tem como principal preocupação a contextualização social do processo de ensino-aprendizagem, *i.e.*, preparar os aprendentes para perceberem porquê, quando e como utilizar a língua para comunicarem de modo a alcançarem os seus próprios objectivos, e não apenas para responderem às expectativas do contexto académico ou profissional.

Esta abordagem tem repercussão nas características reconhecidas às línguas maternas:

> */.../ as línguas maternas podem ser não um factor de fragmentação, mas um testemunho de identidade, singular e plural, individual e colectiva. Se é verdade que separam e se separam, também unem e reúnem. Espaço de memória, veículo de realização ética e estética, meio de amadurecimento pessoal e comunitário, base do desenvolvimento intelectual e psico-afectivo, modelador do pensamento, objecto e objectivo de reflexão, utensílio de trabalho, entidade multímoda, a língua materna é a grande moldura que enquadra os nossos limites e as nossas limitações.* (Álvaro Gomes, 2004:10)

A relação entre a aprendizagem de LFE e da língua materna poderá talvez ser representada de modo mais evidente da seguinte forma:

Figura 9 - O papel da língua materna na conceptualização e verbalização do conhecimento especializado.

Em síntese, é imperativo que os *curricula* manifestem explicitamente o papel da língua portuguesa enquanto língua de comunicação especializada e que os alunos reconheçam com crescente acuidade que a sua língua materna se encontra apta à conceptualização e partilha do conhecimento especializado, sendo também crucial que a entendam e a utilizem como um sustentáculo essencial para a comunicação especializada numa língua estrangeira, de modo a atingirem o grau de proficiência desejável em ambiente de trabalho.

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The Word "Science" in Eighteenth Century English Magazines

Abstract

Science has always been a subject for debate and divulgation in the media. We consider here the interest shown in the word "science" by the social elite that wrote and read general interest magazines in Eighteenth-century England. These magazines, though their circulation seldom reached more than a few thousand, reflect a society taking huge steps towards reason and humanism, and away from religion as a basis for problem-solving. We cite concrete examples of the great interest shown by the upper and middle class in the solution of mathematical (algebraic, geometric, trigonometric, etc) problems.

By contrast, an unquestioning acceptance of an unchanging, mechanical, purely Newtonian universe impregnates the texts in the first half of the century. A pre-Darwinian outlook, full of stereotypes, generalisations, classism, racism and sexism was still rife, and we cite examples of the ignorance shown in some essays, letters and articles. Amateur scientists felt free to set themselves up as authorities on a wide range of subjects.

We consider the positive and, occasionally, negative contributions of these, often anonymous, English writers to the expansion of learning, citing the growing number of references to "reason" and "science" as the century progressed.
Keywords: Eighteenth century, science, humanism, Newtonian universe.

Introduction

This study is based on a reading of a wide selection of Eighteenth-century English periodicals, to see the development of the words "science" and its derivatives in the course of the century. The study is of course limited by the fact that it is not possible to compute exactly the number of times a word or expression appears in the corpus, as there is no system as yet for word-searching these little-read undigitalised documents.

One historian, Roy Porter (2003), has described this period as the most important in the history of humanity, a period when European science strode imperialistically over the rest of the world, and which has influenced us all up to the present day. There was utmost confidence in human power over nature, which expanded with the European Empires beyond national frontiers. However, this advancement in human knowledge was not couched in terms of "science" as such. As in the famous words in the works of Shakespeare a century or so before:

> There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio,
> Than are dreamt of in your philosophy. (Shakespeare "Hamlet", Act 1 Scene 5)

The word "science" is used very loosely throughout the period. This word was often used to mean learning or knowledge of any sort, and only gradually came to mean the discipline of building an accurate picture of the world through experiment during the Enlightenment period.

At the beginning of the 18th century, Joseph Addison, co-founder of the magazine The Spectator, could write in its first issue: "I shall be ambitious to have it said of me, that I have brought philosophy out of closets and libraries, schools and colleges, to dwell in clubs and assemblies, at tea-tables and in coffee houses."

Thus, the concepts and processes that are nowadays considered "science" and "scientific" were at that time mostly couched in terms of "philosophy" and "philosophical". The word "science" hardly appears in English periodicals during the first half of the eighteenth century. Even at the end of the century, The Young Gentleman's and Lady's Magazine (YGLM) (Vol 1: 114), speaking of the way people are offended by advice given to them in good faith, uses the following terms:

> Ye deep philosophers, who can
> Explain that various creature, man.

It is philosophers who can explain that "various creature, man". Later in the same issue (135), one contributor speaks of "philosophical Linnaeus", not "scientific Linneaus", even though he is highlighting his precision: "The systems of Rivinus, of Haller, of Boerhaave, and others, are now only curious speculations: They have all been superseded by the precise and philosophical Linnaeus." Again, in the same issue (207), another contributor states that: "The common people … ascribe the whole [of an astronomical phenomenon] to the agency of the devil, and even the philosophers do not agree in the causes that produce this phenomenon.” So the fact that “even” philosophers disagree implies that they are the most precise and authoritative people available.

Later in the same number (400) it is said that some “philosophers” contend that the sea is rising while others say it is falling. So it is again philosophers who can explain natural phenomena. Philosophers from the Classical period were revered as much as or more than the Bible in these magazines. Philosophy, though it straddles the modern meaning of science and philosophy, was based on reflection about things, states and the human being, human life, and not necessarily solely on the kind of precise experimentation which is the basis of modern science. It is still used by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle in 1887 when he describes Watson’s observation of Sherlock Holmes in his laboratory: “I watched him manipulating his fragile philosophical instruments.” (12)

The full range of derivatives existed for the word “philosophy”, including “philosopher”, “philosophically” and so on, showing its maturity and development within the English language, while only in the twentieth century did the modern notion of science really emerge as a special brand of information about the world, practised by a distinct group and pursued through a unique scientific method.

Other Terms for Science: Natural Philosophy and Natural Knowledge

Newton wrote his famous work “*Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy”* in 1687, *whereas nowadays we would consider what he wrote about to be part not of natural philosophy but of science*. Prior to the 18th century, the preferred term for the study of nature was therefore “natural philosophy”, while English speakers most typically referred to the study of the human mind as “moral philosophy”. By contrast, the word “science” in English was still used in the seventeenth century to refer to the Aristotelian concept of knowledge, secure enough to be used as a sure prescription for exactly how to do something. In this differing sense of the two words, the philosopher John Locke, in An Essay Concerning Human Understanding (640) wrote that “the weakness of our faculties in this state of mediocrity which we are in in this world can attain to, makes me suspect that natural philosophy is not capable of being made a science”. By the early 1800s, “natural philosophy” had begun to be distinguished from "philosophy", though it often retained a very broad meaning, while in many cases, science continued to stand for reliable knowledge about any topic.

The renowned "Royal Society" was founded in 1660, but interestingly it was called "The Royal Society of London for Improving Natural Knowledge", and not known as the "Royal Society for Improving Science", while later, in the 19th century, there was founded the Royal Society for the Advancement of Science. In 1663, Robert Hooke declared the new Royal Society's mission to include "the knowledge of all natural things and all useful: arts, manufactures, mechanic practices, engines and inventions by experiment." So the popular and professional, science and non-science were not so precisely compartmentalised.

The limits of one kind of knowledge or research and another were blurred. Fissell and Cooter (130) argue that in the 18th century neither the concept of science nor the method of spreading knowledge about it were clear-cut: "Few people made an absolute divide between religion, science … and natural philosophy". Knowledge was distributed by means other than the universities, which had low prestige. The Gentleman's Magazine (1731, January 14th: 125) contains the following comment by one contributor: "His nephew Silvio, just come from the university, declaims on every subject you can mention, and imagines himself master of every science." Here the mention both of the university and of his pseudo-science is somewhat disparaging.

Arts or Sciences?

Scientific knowledge was still scant and even amateurish on many matters. The magazines are full of reports of deaths from all sorts of illnesses incurable by anyone at the time. The planets are referred to as "he" and "she", with Venus feminine and Jupiter masculine. They speak of the "passions and affections of the wandering stars." (GM, Jan 1731: 29) We find this paucity of knowledge, for example, in The Diarian Miscellany (366), where the writer affirms: "Air, we say, is an elastic body; when it is shut up in the grains of gunpowder, the action of fire dilates it to such a degree as to communicate to it the power of hurling a globe of iron to a prodigious distance." Outside our corpus, but still in an eighteenth-century periodical, one physician argues than women are hotter and more passionate because they have more blood, heat and spirits and consequently more activity, dying before men because their own heat consumes them! In the absence of advanced science, the way was clear for people to use their fancy and proclaim on a variety of subjects all together. The Gentleman's Magazine (February 1731: 92) advertises: "Three Essays on artificial philosophy, or universal chemistry" by one Peter Shaw. Those books advertised in the March 1731 edition include "A New Enquiry of the Earth's Motion, proving the Sun to move, and not the earth" by one Isaac Leach.

Terminology, and indeed science itself, was thus confused and in a constant state of flux. In the same periodical in May (198), one contributor says science is different from natural philosophy: "Moral knowledge, or the science of life, is absolutely necessary for our own happy conduct. Natural philosophy entertains and fills the mind with great and sublime ideas of the first cause." In February 1731, GM includes knowing the value of money as a science (34f): "In order that he might know the value of money (as necessary a science as can be learned… he was obliged to keep an account of every fathing expended …, which at once perfected him in the science of numbers". On page 57 of the same issue, speaking of fashions, one correspondent states that one thing: "…which influences the modes, is a superior skill in arts and sciences." And again on p62: "The daintiness of our appetites has made cookery a science." History is considered a science, rather than an art, as today: "History, as it is one of the most ancient, so it is also one of the most improving sciences." (62) Science is generally seen to be solely the realm of men, while women can shine in the arts. One author in YGLM comments (50): "It is not to be expected that females are to be deeply skilled in criticism, in mathematics, in natural science". Women are depicted by some as a kind of sub-species, whose natural role is merely to give support to men in such serious matters. However, there are others who think differently. In YGLM (2) a poet claims:

> Happy were England, were each female mind,
> To science more, and less to pomp, inclined.

And then it goes on to praise a female: "Behold in her, a scientifick wife". And later: "To men the arts of war, to women equality in a scientifick mind." In the same issue, we note the overlapping concepts of "art", "philosophy" and "science" (196): "[Linnaeus's]

Philosophia Botanica … may be considered as a grammar of the art. The Species Plantarum may be regarded as the dictionary of botanic science."

Derivatives of the Word "Science"

"Science" is used as a countable noun; there are obviously "sciences" as well as "science", so there is at least one derivative, the plural form. And "scientific" already exists in 1731, though with an added "k" at the end of it. The word "astronomy" / "astronomer", "naturalist", "botany / botanic / botanist" are used frequently in the magazines, way before the word "scientist" was used as a generic term for those dedicated to it: "cultivator of science" was used, for example. The word "scientist", meant to refer to a systematically-working natural philosopher (as opposed to an intuitive or empirically-minded one) was coined in 1833 by William Whewell. Talk of "scientists" as a special group of people who did science grew in the last half of the 19th century.

But other derivatives do emerge in our corpus, such as "scientific" in GM (January 1731: 198): "It was nevertheless after the lapse of many ages that botany assumed a scientific form, or was regarded as an object of particular study… Holland, which during the time of Boerhaave took the lead in almost every kind of scientific pursuit …" It is on the way to becoming a classification into which many specialisations will fit conveniently.

Compartmentalisation of Science into Branches: Science as Practical Science

In YGLM, at the end of the century, they use the term "branch of science" for the first time (Vol 1: 239): "While France and Germany overflow with elementary books on every branch of science…" The writer goes on to criticise what he sees as a scarce attention to science in English education, suggesting that inquisitiveness a good thing to inculcate in the young, here a girl. We notice the different "branches" of science already being talked about: "By the time she was fifteen, she was a prodigy of intelligence – could talk with the naturalist, and even puzzle the mechanic."

History and geography are included in sciences, as branches of it. Talking of William of Lisle, one contributor states (408) that: "his father was celebrated for his knowledge of history and geography. He taught these branches of science in Paris with great success." There was a deepening curiosity about nature, about mankind, about society, and its past. In all studies there was greater precision, and an increased reliance on observation, with a growing detachment from the intellectual attitudes of the past.

Thus Science is being compartmentalised by the end of the century. For example, "botany" and its derivatives. YGLM (Vol 2: 237) says that "having now traced the history and explained the principles of botany, and pointed out the road to the acquisition of this delightful science…" On p199 we find the derivative "botanical" "His botanical magazine is … a very elegant publication" and on the same page we find "botanists" "To young English botanists … it may be of use to point out a small library on the branch of the science."

In YGLM (Vol 1: 367), we are given the secret of the clear advantage English, and in general northern European societies, held over their southern European counterpart, which lay in the practical application of scientific progress. Here, one writer describes the development of algebra, and comments that: "Algebra, having been invented in order to facilitate calculation, has degenerated into a science which calculates only imaginary magnitudes, and which proposes to itself theorems only, totally inapplicable to the demands of human life." Earlier (255) we had read how the author uses walks by the seaside, not just for fun, but in order to observe the things found on the beach and learn from them. A lack of illustrations means a richness of language is required to convey ideas, here, to describe a pebble found on the beach in Yorkshire, elsewhere to describe gems and precious stones (YGLM Vol 2: 377). In England there was beginning a tradition of "useful science", based on widespread literacy. Science was increasingly democratic, with different opinions welcomed. It was becoming international, and this was the age of the inspired amateur. The stress on astronomy in these periodicals, which is sometimes almost an obsession, is linked to the comparatively widespread possession of telescopes. People who own them can view eclipses easily, and the periodicals show tables of the different places and different individuals who could see the eclipse and who had sent in their report to the periodical. For instance, eclipses were said to have been observed in Paragua [sic], Nankin, Wirtenberg, Padua and Lima. Also, nearly everyone, from sailors to the sick, to farmers to merchants, could see the beneficial results of the advancement of science (172): "To be well grounded in school learning is the safest and readiest road to eminence and distinction, in every science and in every sphere of action."

A Positive Attitude to Science

The connotations of the word "science" are always positive in these periodicals, because science is omnipresent and implacably applied to all natural phenomena, which, for example in The Diarian Miscellany (94ff), are accurately and scientifically measurable, with angles, numbers and calculations about eclipses, fields, and so on. The eighteenth century had already begun the agricultural revolution, based on observation, theoretical advances and practical application. The contributors to even these non-specialist periodicals had a clear idea of the theoretical basis of the progress they could see all around them, as in DM (112), in an article headed "In praise of arithmatick [sic]". Without it, trade would go to ruin: "What would come to the nation if by it were not kept the public accounts that regard the state of the commonwealth? (…) What fortifying, attacking, defending, bombing (…) could be performed without the assistance of arithmatick and geometry?" Incredibly difficult mathematical calculations are made involving the sun's angle, latitudes, shadows of trees, and areas of land (usually aristocrats' estates). Science, in agriculture, medicine and navigation, for example, began to have an effect on everyday life, and this fact caused optimism and hope, with the widespread expectation that in the future everything would be known and improved. Often enough, discoveries were made in the 17th century but were applied in practice in the eighteenth.

Attitudes to science were always positive. In CM (Vol 2: 229), a smallpox cure is said to have been invented by a Mrs Stewart who lives near Fleet Street. They began to distinguish between arts and sciences (48), and to prefer the latter: "I am convinced many of the misfortunes and the errors of the female sex have originated from a wrong education… while the utmost attention is paid to the cultivation of boys and young men in every art and science, girls are wholly neglected …" On p124, talking about the terror inspired by a mountain in Germany, one contributor comments: "Fortunately, at this period of time, science is able to detect illusions or to explain existing phenomena on right principles… Germany not only maintains, but has extended, its reputation in science and patient research.”

Interest in science is accompanied by a hierarchical view of humanity, shared by most Enlightenment thinkers, whereby humanity was progressing towards the light, but had left others in the darkness, like in the dark continent, Africa. Spain was also being left behind, as when YGLM (Vol 2: 44) comments that science is incompatible with bullfighting”…nor are the modern Spaniards of a disposition remarkably cruel, … we must therefore suppose that the circumstance originates from … the little advances they have made in learning and science.”

In YGLM (Vol 2: 113) one poet waxes lyrical in a “Hymn to Science”:

> Science, thou fair effusive ray,
> From the great source of mental day,
> Free generous and refined,
> Descend with all thy treasures fraught,
> Illumine each bewilder’d thought,
> And bless my lab’ring mind.

This is a “hymn”, which talks of “blessing” and illuminating, where the object of the hymn is not God but Science. The stated intention of YGLM is there on the front cover of No4, Volume 1: “Intended to open the tender mind to an acquaintance with life, morals and science, the works of nature and of art; and to serve as an useful auxiliary to public and private tuition.” YGLM shows in its frontispiece adults leading young people to the temple of science, in picture form. Youth needs a docile mind and instruction, leading to the understanding of the God-given order of the natural world. It is significant that they lead them to the “Temple”, a religious term, of Science. God is present as is Nature. Youth is docile, to be led by older people, and Science has a shrine, also the site of a mystic experience.

Conclusion

The periodicals are an important contribution to the information and entertainment available in print to the English upper and upper-middle classes in the eighteenth century. They help us to understand the attitudes of this powerful and often enlightened ruling class in England, a country which at that time was a pioneer in many social and scientific fields. A slice of enlightened society was ready to accept the advances in psychology, botany, biology, and so on, although its knowledge was limited and amateurish. Upper-class society was open to ideas based on reason and the correct observation of nature, including human nature. Science, by whatever name it was known, became woven into the fabric of English life in the eighteenth century, with a common feeling that England was on the threshold of a new age.

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Cultura, competencia comunicativa y lengua específica en un proyecto europeo.

Abstract

This paper presents the methodology of the European project "An Integral Teacher Training for Developing Digital and Communicative Competences and Subject Content Learning at Schools'" which integrates communicative and digital competences and subject content in Science and Humanities subjects as well as cultural aspects taking into account specific Language. The project, addressed to initial teacher training, combines ICT with language strategies to develop both communicative and digital competences considering that school pupils should have the notion of a specific language since compulsory education. Culture is also incorporated in the project as an essential element to understand the real world. So, didactic materials have been designed in the project: a CD per country with two modules, one in English and the other in mother tongue, in our case Spanish. Each module consists of didactic activities, addressed to Primary and Secondary school pupils, and didactic suggestions, addressed to University student teachers to help them in the implementation of these activities at schools. Another aspect of the project materials is that they try to show the relevance of specific language, this will help pupils to be aware of the use of a common language by their teachers of Philosophy, Mathematics, Physics or Art and also of the differences existing in discourse, vocabulary, etc. depending on each subject. This notion of specific language can help pupils to understand the concepts of every subject and, consequently, to express them. The paper tries to describe the project and its methodology furthermore some activities will be shown in the Conference.

Six Universities are involved in the project: The University of Alcala, coordinator of the project, Lisbon, Leicester, Helsinki, Comenius of Bratislava and Karadeznic Technical University of Trabzon.

Key words: Culture, communicative and digital competences, content, specific Language

Resumen

Esta comunicación presenta la metodología del proyecto europeo "An Integral Teacher Training for Developing Digital and Communicative Competences and Subject Content Learning at Schools", que integra las competencias comunicativa y digital, los contenidos de diferentes asignaturas de Ciencias y Humanidades y aspectos culturales sin olvidar la lengua específica. El proyecto, dirigido a la formación inicial de profesorado, conjuga las TIC con estrategias lingüísticas para desarrollar las dos competencias mencionadas, considerando, además, que el alumno debe tener la noción de lengua específica desde la Educación Obligatoria e incorpora la Cultura como elemento esencial para conocer el mundo real. Para ello, se diseñan materiales didácticos en el proyecto, un CD por país que consta de dos módulos uno en inglés y otro en la lengua materna del país integrante del proyecto, en nuestro caso el español. En cada módulo se elaboran actividades didácticas, dirigidas a los alumnos de Primaria o Secundaria, y sugerencias didácticas, dirigidas a alumnos universitarios en formación inicial de profesorado, para la implementación de las actividades en los Centros escolares. Otro aspecto de los materiales didácticos es que contemplan el concepto de lengua específica, con ello se pretende que el alumno sea consciente de que su profesor de Filosofía, Matemáticas, Física o Arte utiliza una lengua común, pero existen diferencias en el discurso, en el vocabulario, etc., según la asignatura. Esta noción de lengua específica ayudará al alumno en la comprensión de los conceptos y, consecuentemente, en la expresión de los mismos. La comunicación describirá el proyecto y su metodología y se presentarán también ejemplos de dichas actividades en el Congreso.

En el proyecto participan las siguientes Universidades: Alcalá, coordinadora del proyecto, Lisboa, Leicester, Helsinki, Comenius de Bratislava y Técnica de Karadeznic de Trabzon.

Palabras clave: Cultura, competencias comunicativa y digital, contenido, Lengua específica

Introducción: Presentación del Proyecto

Esta comunicación comienza con una breve introducción en la que se presenta el proyecto "An Integral Teacher Training for Developing Digital and Communicative Competences and Subject Content Learning at Schools" cuyo objetivo primordial es formar a los alumnos universitarios que siguen un Máster de Profesorado para convertirse en profesores de Educación Primaria y Secundaria a través de una metodología que conjuga el contenido de las diferentes asignaturas, la competencia digital y la competencia comunicativa de manera que la formación del profesor sea integral lo que conlleva un cambio de actitud de los futuros profesores en cuanto al proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje, cambio que ha de procurar dicha metodología puesto que, en general tradicionalmente, el profesor se preocupa únicamente de impartir los contenidos de la asignatura de su especialidad. Con una visión que trascienda los límites de su asignatura, como esta metodología propone, los futuros profesores favorecerán el proceso de aprendizaje de sus futuros alumnos, tanto de los contenidos de las asignaturas como de las competencias digital y comunicativa porque se supone que la metodología que emplearán será una metodología integral de acuerdo con la recibida en su formación. Además, el proyecto considera la Lengua específica de las diferentes áreas o asignaturas de forma que el alumno de Primaria o Secundaria sea capaz de identificar esa especificidad y, también, tiene en cuenta la cultura como un factor importante en el modelo comunicativo y en la formación integral de los alumnos.

Los principales productos del proyecto son:

- la metodología diseñada para el proyecto basada en la conjunción de las competencias comunicativa y digital con los contenidos de las asignaturas y la Cultura por medio del uso significativo de diferentes herramientas digitales.
- La creación de materiales didácticos ya que cada universidad miembro del proyecto produce un CD que incluye dos módulos, uno en lengua inglesa (Módulo I) y otro en lengua materna, español en nuestro caso (Módulo II). Los dos módulos presentan actividades, dirigidas a los alumnos no universitarios, y sugerencias didácticas dirigidas a los profesores en formación inicial para orientar a los futuros profesores en la implementación de las actividades en los centros escolares.

- Un programa de movilidad para los profesores en formación inicial entre los diferentes países miembros del proyecto para promover e intensificar la metodología del proyecto y su impacto y para favorecer la experiencia docente y proyección intercultural.
- La difusión del proyecto a nivel nacional e internacional para darle a conocer y aumentar su impacto a través de seminarios, comunicaciones en congresos, artículos, talleres y el sitio web del proyecto
- La evaluación tanto del proceso del proyecto como de los productos del mismo que se lleva a cabo a nivel interno y externo.

Actividades didácticas: diseño y organización

Para diseñar las actividades didácticas tanto en el Módulo I como en el II, se seleccionan materiales auténticos (Internet, páginas Web, periódicos digitales, vídeo clips, películas, libros, periódicos, etc.) que son la fuente primaria para crear las actividades en las que se fusionan ejercicios y tareas que conduzcan al desarrollo de las competencias comunicativa y digital y los contenidos de diversas asignaturas a partir de un tema.

En el Módulo II, diseñado para alumnos de Primaria, el tema cultural de "Las Fiestas Patronales de San Isidro de Madrid" da cohesión al módulo integrando ambas competencias y los contenidos de diferentes asignaturas, Lengua Española, Geografía, Historia, Arte, Música, Matemáticas, Aspectos Culturales y Sociales que se enraízan en el tema central de las Fiestas de San Isidro, mientras en el Módulo I, titulado "Muriel Spark, *The Prime of Miss Jean Brodie*", preparado para alumnos de Secundaria, la autora y su novela, publicada en 1961, y la película de Ronald Neame de 1969, basada en esta obra, son los ejes sobre los que giran los contenidos de diversas asignaturas: Lengua Inglesa, Literatura, Historia, Arte, Música, Política, Aspectos Culturales, Sociales y Religiosos. Los temas de estas asignaturas aparecen en la obra de Spark, con la garantía añadida de que Ronald Neame es leal a la novelista, aunque haya diferencias como en todas las adaptaciones literarias al cine, pero Neame, sobre todo, sigue fielmente los diálogos de Spark. La novela es tan rica que permite el estudio de tan variadas asignaturas, por esta razón la seleccionamos como fuente principal para el diseño de las actividades ya que deseábamos integrar el contenido de las asignaturas con la realidad porque ésta es global y la Historia, la Geografía, el Arte, la Política, y los Aspectos Culturales, Sociales y Religiosos forman parte de la vida humana, no son piezas desorganizadas de un rompecabezas. Por tanto, en los dos módulos, los temas no se ven de forma aislada, sino interrelacionados de forma que el futuro profesor sea consciente de que los contenidos de las asignaturas no son algo aparte y alejado de esa realidad y, así, los alumnos del centro escolar puedan captar que los temas y asignaturas que estudian están conectados con la vida, la sociedad y la cultura.

La competencia comunicativa se trabaja en todas las actividades porque la lengua es una de las herramientas que ayuda al alumno a comprender el mundo y es un hecho constatado y bien sabido, ahí están los informes PISA, que en muchos países europeos los alumnos tienes serias dificultades para comprender y expresarse porque están educados en una cultural audiovisual y cada vez leen menos con lo que su lenguaje se empobrece. Por ello, utilizamos estrategias lingüísticas en la adquisición del contenido, así esperamos que se mejore la competencia comunicativa y, a la vez, el proceso de aprendizaje. Si la competencia comunicativa se trabaja no solo en la clase de lengua, sino también en las clases de otras asignaturas, tanto la competencia comunicativa como la adquisición de contenidos se verán beneficiadas, cuánto más rico sea el nivel de lengua de los alumnos, mejor podrá el alumno comprender los conceptos y, una vez asimilados, expresarlos con cohesión y coherencia, en resumen, el dominio de la lengua es esencial en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje. Sin embargo, con esta propuesta no se pretende que el profesor de Filosofía, Historia, Física o Matemáticas abandone su programa, pero sí que sea consciente de la importancia de la Lengua en el aprendizaje de sus alumnos, por eso creemos que la formación de profesorado debe ser integral no centrándose únicamente en un área particular ya sea de Ciencias Humanidades.

Además, si, al mismo tiempo, conseguimos que el alumno sea capaz de identificar que existe una lengua específica que utilizan los profesionales de cada área, si los alumnos observan que el profesor de Arte, Literatura, Química o Física tiene una lengua común, pero que existen diferencias ya sea en el léxico o en el discurso o en ambos casos, esa noción de que existe una lengua específica favorecerá también la comprensión de los conceptos explicados en una determinada clase. De ahí que las actividades incluyan, al menos, léxico específico y que en las recomendaciones al profesor se incida en este aspecto. Éste es un punto para reflexionar o discutir, no queremos decir que el alumno no universitario tenga que seguir un curso sobre lengua específica, como hacemos en nuestras Universidades, pero sí que tenga la noción de esa especificidad, la reconozca y la incorpore para expresarse con la precisión debida.

No se podía obviar en esta formación integral de profesorado la competencia digital, por tanto, cada Universidad miembro del proyecto ha seleccionado diferentes herramientas digitales para trabajar con ellas, la de Alcalá ha empleado el blog y el e-portafolio que se utilizan en los dos módulos para que las actividades didácticas puedan implementarse por medio de blogs, mientras que el e-portafolio sirve como herramienta digital en la que el alumno incorpora los conocimientos fundamentales adquiridos en las diversas asignaturas y, también, como herramienta de autoevaluación del alumno.

Es más, las actividades tienen, por tanto, como objetivo no solo mejorar o desarrollar ciertas habilidades relacionadas con las competencias digital y comunicativa o con el aprendizaje de los contenidos, sino también con las destrezas y actitudes transferibles en los alumnos de Educación Primaria o Secundaria. Por otra parte, las sugerencias didácticas que se introducen, dirigidas al futuro profesor, le sirven como guión de lo que se intenta obtener con estas actividades. A continuación se presentan algunas de estas destrezas y estrategias.

Destrezas relativas a la competencia digital

- Buscar y seleccionar información en Internet
- Utilizar la competencia digital de forma significativa, tanto los profesores en formación como los alumnos y, por tanto, .evitar el habitual “corta y pega” por parte de los alumnos.
- Tratar de conseguir un cambio de actitud en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje en ambos casos en los futuros profesores y en sus futuros alumnos.
- Reconocer que la competencia digital es esencial en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje y en el futuro profesional.

Destrezas relativas a la competencia comunicativa

- Las cuatro destrezas: comprensión y expresión orales y escritas.

- Gramática, léxico, pronunciación, entonación y ritmo.
- Estructura del texto y del discurso.
- Aspectos sociolingüísticos dentro de un contexto.
- Reconocer la lengua específica.
- Incorporar el léxico específico.

Destrezas relativas a los contenidos de las asignaturas

- Adquirir el conocimiento de los contenidos por medio de la competencia digital mejorando al mismo tiempo la competencia comunicativa.
- Identificar y relacionar el contenido de una determinada asignatura con otras.
- Adquirir la terminología básica de las diferentes asignaturas.
- Identificar e incorporar el lenguaje específico de cada área.

Destrezas transferibles

- Localización de información con las herramientas digitales.
- Utilización de las herramientas digitales como herramienta de comunicación.
- Capacidad de análisis y argumentación
- Inferencia y predicción
- Toma de decisiones
- Resolución de problemas
- Capacidad de pensamiento crítico
- Capacidad para trabajar en grupo.

Actitudes transferibles

- Desarrollar la autonomía en el trabajo
- Desarrollar el sentido de la responsabilidad.
- Conseguir una actitud participativa.
- Colaborar con otros alumnos o compañeros.
- Comunicarse con otros compañeros.

Organización de las actividades

En cuánto a la organización de las actividades, el Módulo I presenta tres secciones que, a su vez, se dividen en subsecciones. Las tres secciones son: Lengua y Literatura, b)

Lengua, Literatura, Geografía, Arte, Historia, Aspectos Culturales, Sociales, Políticos y Religiosos, c) Diseño y creación de e-portafolios. Esta parte se dedica exclusivamente a la competencia digital, si bien ésta se trabaja en las otras dos secciones del módulo.

En el Módulo II existen cinco secciones: a) Lengua, Cultura, Historia y Geografía, b) Lengua, Música y Aspectos Culturales, c) Lengua, Geografía, Matemáticas y Aspectos Culturales d) Lengua, Arte y Aspectos Culturales, e) Herramienta digital de auto-evaluación que incluye un e-portafolio de auto-evaluación. En todas las partes aparecen sus respectivas subsecciones igual que en el Módulo I.

Sugerencias didácticas

En las actividades didácticas aparecen una serie de ideas, sugerencias y recomendaciones, dirigidas a los alumnos universitarios en formación inicial, para implementar estas actividades con sus alumnos. A los alumnos de formación de profesorado se les sugiere utilizar:

- Las estrategias que aparecen en las actividades para ayudar a sus alumnos a comprender y expresarse en forma oral y escrita, es decir, implementar las tareas que conducen a desarrollar las cuatro destrezas de lengua oral y escrita con respecto a la competencia comunicativa sin olvidar el léxico, la gramática, la correcta pronunciación, entonación y ritmo; la estructura del discurso, el contexto sociolingüístico y la lengua específica.
- Las estrategias que ayuden a sus alumnos a desarrollar la competencia digital explotando las tareas que conducen a buscar y localizar información, organizar y construir información, añadir información e imágenes, presentar y compartir información. resumir contenidos, revisar los contenidos aprendidos, etc.
- Las estrategias que aparecen en las actividades para que los alumnos adquieran los contenidos de las diferentes asignaturas siendo capaces de captar los conceptos de las diversas asignaturas, de establecer relación entre esas asignaturas y también establecer relación entre los diferentes conceptos, comparar conceptos, inferir y predecir información, interpretar imágenes, formular hipótesis, adquirir el léxico específico, etc.

También se les recomienda que trabajen con las actividades para: a) transmitir a sus futuros alumnos lo esencial que es el dominio de las competencias comunicativa y

digital en el aprendizaje y en la vida diaria, b) motivar al alumno para desarrollar su propia autonomía, c) promover el análisis y el debate, el trabajo en grupo, el pensamiento crítico y actitudes de responsabilidad, d) resolver problemas, etc.
Desde el punto de vista de la evaluación del trabajo de los profesores en formación inicial sugerimos que los futuros profesores diseñen su propio e-portafolio para autoevaluar su proceso de enseñanza teniendo en cuenta: los objetivos propuestos y su consecución, la implementación de las actividades y el desarrollo de la clase.

El futuro profesor en formación puede integrar en el diseño de su e-portafolio prácticamente todo lo concerniente a su aprendizaje y trabajo, como por ejemplo:

- Actividades o ejercicios hechos por sus alumnos
- Estrategias y técnicas utilizadas en su clase al implementar las actividades
- Crítica de las actividades, aspectos positivos o negativos
- Crítica de las estrategias y técnicas, aspectos positivos o negativos
- Implementación de las actividades por medio de las herramientas digitales
- La utilización del blog y el e-portafolio por sus alumnos
- El progreso de sus alumnos en la adquisición de las competencias comunicativa y digital y de los contenidos.

Conclusión

En resumen, el proyecto defiende una formación integral para los futuros profesores en la que la Lengua, la Lengua específica, la competencia digital y la Cultura tienen un papel relevante en la adquisición de contenidos para que cuando los alumnos universitarios se conviertan en profesores en ejercicio consigan transmitir a sus alumnos de Primaria o Secundaria los conocimientos de su asignatura de forma integrada apoyándose en la lengua y la cultura porque esos conceptos no son ajenos a la vida real de sus alumnos y, además, de esta manera, muy posiblemente, esos alumnos mejorarán las competencias comunicativa, cultural y digital, competencias básicas que necesitarán a lo largo de su vida y, en especial, en el mundo del trabajo y en la búsqueda de empleo.

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Target situation analysis as a key element in ESP course design

Abstract

Needs analysis is essentially the process of collecting information about learners' needs prior to course development in order to define the teaching objectives. These, in turn, will function as the foundation to develop lesson plans, materials, tests, assignments and activities. However, depending on the specific teaching situation, it is not always possible to carry out a complete needs analysis preceding course development.

A course of English for Biology and Environmental Sciences was offered by the University of Murcia. As the course had to be programmed in advance, present situation and learner factor analyses could not be carried out preceding the implementation of the course. Nevertheless, other elements, such as target situation analysis, were considered to establish the basis of the syllabus design.

To carry out the target situation analysis a questionnaire was designed to be passed out to professionals of the area (University teachers, graduates in Biology and professionals in the field). Some members of the group (teachers/researchers and graduate students) were individually interviewed following identical protocols. Finally, a teacher/researcher was observed in his workplace to get more information on the language used in the tasks performed in his everyday professional life.

Keywords: Needs analysis, target analysis.

Resumen

El análisis de necesidades es esencialmente el proceso de recoger información sobre las necesidades de los estudiantes antes de que comience el curso con el objetivo de definir los objetivos del aprendizaje. Estos objetivos, serán los cimientos para desarrollar los programas docentes, materiales, tests, trabajos y actividades. Sin embargo, dependiendo de la situación específica de enseñanza-aprendizaje, no siempre es posible llevar a cabo un análisis de necesidades completo previo al desarrollo del curso.

La Universidad de Murcia ofertó un curso de Inglés para Biología y Ciencias Ambientales. Dado que el curso tuvo que programarse sin tener información sobre los estudiantes, sus intereses y conocimientos, no se pudo llevar a cabo un análisis de la situación ni de los estudiantes previo a la implementación del curso. Sin embargo, sí se pudo realizar un análisis de la situación término para establecer las bases del sílabo del curso.

Para llevar a cabo un análisis de la situación término se diseñó un cuestionario que se pasó a los profesionales del área (profesores/investigadores universitarios, Licenciados en Biología y profesionales). También se entrevistó a algunos miembros del grupo (profesores/investigadores y Licenciados) siguiendo los mismos protocolos. Finalmente, se llevo a cabo la observación de un profesor/investigador en su ámbito de trabajo para obtener más información sobre el lenguaje usado en las tareas llevadas a cabo en su quehacer profesional diario.
Palabras clave: Análisis de necesidades, análisis de la situación término.

Introduction

ESP courses are designed to teach the language and communication skills specific groups of language students will need to function effectively in their fields of study, professions or workplaces (Baskturmen, 2010:17). Considering that ESP focuses on the teaching of specific language and skills, there must be a previous stage in which teachers and course developers identify the specific skills and language the learners will need. These communication skills and language will be the content of the course and can also be used to assess learners and learning at the end of the course. This process is called “needs analysis”.

Needs analysis thus means carrying out research prior to designing and evaluating lessons/materials/syllabuses, and it helps draw a profile of students/the course in order to determine and prioritise the needs for which students require English (L2). (Richards et al, 1992, cited in Jordan, 1997:20)

The module of ‘English for Biology and Environmental Sciences' was offered by the Faculty of Biology to students in their 3rd year of the Degrees in Biology and Environmental Sciences. The course, which spanned a semester and consisted of 60 teaching hours, was programmed by the Institution for students with an intermediate level of English, although no previous official academic requirements were established to demonstrate competence in the FL before the module began. Thus, it was not possible to know in advance either the exact number of students who were going to participate or any other information about their proficiency level of English, or their personal or cultural background.

To date, there has been no empirical investigation of the communicative needs of Spanish biologists in the workplace. Therefore, teaching English for biologists is far from satisfactory in terms of customizing ESP courses by using the language situation in the workplace as the input to the ESP course. When the specific language needs are not defined based on language use, learners will end up disappointed with the language proficiency level that they achieve regardless of the effort that they put into their language training. On the other hand, the effort of administrators and English language teachers would lack focus if the language needs are not defined in terms of language use.

This study investigates the English language communicative needs of students in the field of Biology by finding out their targeted needs in their possible working contexts and scenarios.

In order to get information about the needs of our students prior to the development of the module, we planned to carry out a needs analysis, to establish the what and the how of the course/syllabus and consequently the first step to be carried out before a course. (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 121)

Needs analysis

Needs analysis (also known as needs assessment) has a vital role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course, whether it be English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or a general English course, and its centrality has been acknowledged by several scholars and authors (Munby, 1978; Richterich and Chancerel, 1978;

Hutchinson and Waters,1987; Tarone and Yule, 1989; Johns, 1991; West, 1994; Jordan, 1997; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

Brindley (1989) and Berwick (1989) offer definitions of different types of needs and accounts of various problems and limitations in making use of this concept, including ways in which we might usefully distinguish between needs identified by analysts and those expressed or experienced by learners.

In the early years of ESP, needs analysis tended to be constructed as a simple procedure to be applied before any course. However, over the years needs analysis has become increasingly sophisticated (García Mayo, 2000; Tajino, James and Kijima, 2005) as can be seen in comparing the definitions provided by Chamber (1980):
"Needs analysis should be concerned with the establishment of communicative needs and their realisations, resulting from an analysis of the communication in the target situation – what I will refer to as target situation analysis",

A. Professional information about the learners: The tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for – *target situation analysis* and *objective needs.*
B. Personal information about the learners: Factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English – *wants, means* and *subjective needs*.
C. English language information about the learners: What their current skills and language use are – *present situation analysis* – which allows us to assess (D)
D. The learners' lack: The gap between (C) and (A) – *lacks*
E. Language learning information: Effective ways of learning the skills and language in (D) – *learning needs*.
F. Professional communication information about (A): Knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation – *linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis*.
G. What is wanted from the course
   Information about how the course will be run – *means analysis*

Today there is awareness that all these type of analysis are complementary and that each of the parts provides an element of needs analysis:

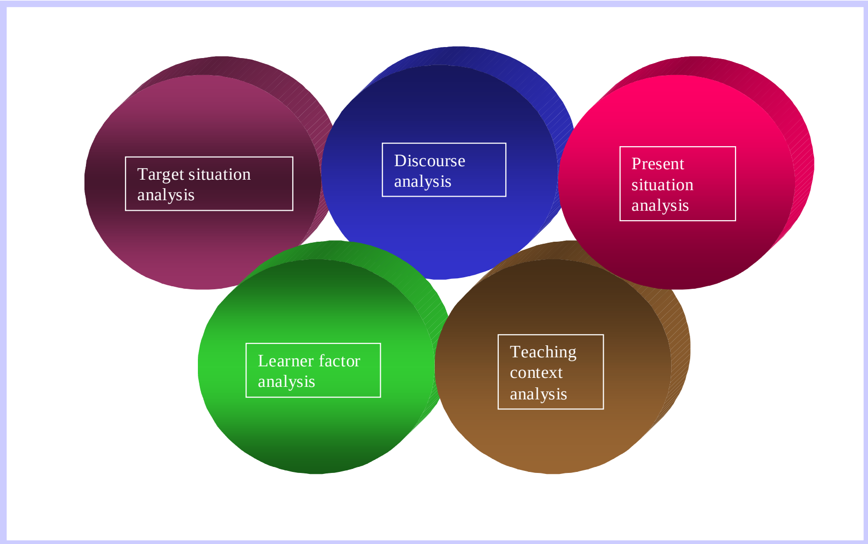

Fig. 1. Needs analysis main components

However, as Jordan (1994) indicates, the main two approaches in needs analysis are the Target-Situation Analysis and the Present-Situation Analysis. The rest of the analyses can be seen as permutations of these two main types (Jordan, 1994).

Methods for conducting needs analysis

Robinson (1991) lists a number of different methods for conducting needs analysis such as questionnaires, interviews, case studies or tests. Jordan (1997) adds to these methods advanced documentation (e.g. requesting extra information that includes educational background, previously attended courses, and other relevant aspects), language tests at home, self-assessment, class progress tests, direct monitoring, structured interviews, learner diaries, previous research comparisons, and follow up investigations. However, this last author indicates that there is no single approach to conduct needs analysis. Every researcher has different circumstances that influence the choice of method in conducting his/her investigation.

In our particular situation, we could not perform a needs analysis that required the participation of the students involved in the course. As we had to program the syllabus before the beginning of the course, we decided to focus on a target situation analysis. Interviews, questionnaires and job shadowing have been reported to be the most effective methods of collecting information for this type of analysis (Baskturmen, 2010).

The majority of the studies use questionnaires as the primary method of data collection. Jordan (1997) indicates that the use of questionnaires is convenient, since they enable the researcher to collect data in a short period of time. The responses are usually anonymous, which allow respondents to offer their opinions and ideas frankly (Kumar, 1996)

Interviews are another method to utilize in a language needs investigation. Interview protocols usually contain open-ended questions aimed at guiding the subjects' responses. These give the researcher a wide variety of different responses that confer a sense of the perceived language needs. However, the disadvantage of this approach is that besides being time consuming, the quality of the data obtained depends on the skills of the interviewer (Kumar, 1996).

Job-shadowing, observing the everyday language experiences of workers in a typical day at work, is another method of collecting information in needs analysis (Price-Machada, 2001).
For researching the targeted needs of our students, we decided to focus on the three methods mentioned above: questionnaires, interviews and job-shadowing.

Developing the questionnaire, interview prompts and lines of observation

Questionnaire

To design the questionnaire, we followed the same principles as those used in second language research (Dornyei, 2003; Jordan, 1997) Works on research methodology often include discussions on how to construct and administer a questionnaire or interview (Kumar, 1996, Mackey and Gass, 2005 and Nunan, 1992).

We designed a questionnaire with three main blocks of questions (Alharby, 2005) and ten questions as follows:

A) To what extent is English used in the everyday tasks of professionals related to Biology?

1. Do professionals of Biology perceive English as an important tool?
2. Do your daily routines require the use of English?
3. What percentage of your daily work is carried out in English?

B) What level of the different skills mentioned below do you need to carry out your professional tasks and what type of tasks do you perform in English?

4. Is it important to have a good level of listening to carry out your work successfully?
5. Is it important to have a good level of speaking to carry out your work successfully?
6. Is it important to have a good level of reading to carry out your work successfully?
7. Is it important to have a good level of writing to carry out your work successfully?
8. What type of activities do you use English for?
   i. Reading textbooks
   ii. Reading journal articles/reports
   iii. Writing research articles/reports
   iv. Attending international conferences/presentations

C) Are graduates in Biology prepared in terms of their English language ability to meet their professional demands?

9. Are the English language courses at University relevant to the activities performed by biologists in the workplace?

10. Do biology professionals feel that the English language courses at the university level are based on biological English?

Questions 1, 2, 4, 5,6, 7 and 8 were measured with a five point Likert scale. For question 3, 5 different percentages were given: 0%, 25%, 50%, 75% and 100%. And for questions 9 and 10, two possible answers were included: Yes or no.

The questionnaire was initially written in English and then translated into Spanish to be completed. It was anonymous and took less than 10 minutes to be completed. We gave the questionnaire personally to the 10 individuals involved (5 teachers/researchers at University level + 5 graduate students in Biology working in different fields) and collected the questionnaires once they had been completed.

The results obtained are summarised in Table1 :

Questions	**Scale**	**Results**	**Average**
1. Do you perceive English as an important tool?	1-5	100%- 5	100% - Extremely important
2. Do your daily routines require the usage of English?	1-5	80%- 4 10%- 5 10% - 3	80% - Very important
3. What percentage of your daily work is carried out in English?	O%-100%	60%-40% of the work 20% - 60% 20% - 20%	60% - 40% of the work
4. Is it important to have a good level of listening to carry out your work successfully?	1-5	80% - 3 20% - 4	80% important
5. Is it important to have a good level of speaking to carry out your work successfully?	1-5	80% - 3 20% -4	80 % important
6. Is it important to have a good level of reading to carry out your work successfully?	1-5	100% - 5	100% Extremely

			important
7. Is it important to have a good level of writing to carry out your work successfully?	1-5	80% - 4 20%- 5	80% very important
8.What type of activities do you use English for:			
a. Reading textbooks	1-5	80% - 4	80% very important
b. Reading journal articles/reports	1-5	100% - 5	100% ext. important
c. Writing research articles/reports	1-5	100% - 5	100% ext. important
d. Attending international conferences/presentations	1-5	60% - 1 20%- 2 20% -3	60% not important
9. Are the English language courses at University relevant to the activities performed by biologists in the workplace?	Yes/no	100% no	100% no
10. Do biology professionals feel that the English language courses at university level are based on biological English?	Yes/no	100% no	100% no

Table 1. Results of the questionnaires passed out to professionals in the field

Focus groups

After passing out the questionnaires, we selected 4 people (2 researchers/teachers and 2 graduate students) and interviewed them individually for 5 minutes in Spanish. We asked them the following questions:

1. What type of texts are students likely to come across in their future professional careers?
2. What type of skills will they practice in their future jobs?
3. If you were given the possibility of designing a course of English for biologists, what would you include?

Questions	**Answers**
What type of texts are students likely to be faced to in their future professional careers?	**a.** Future researchers: specialized books and journals of their field. **b.** Teachers: texts books **c.** Biologists working for the industry: specialized reports and journals
What skills will they practice in their future jobs?	**a**. Future researchers: 1) Reading, 2)writing, 3) listening-speaking **b.** Teachers: 1) Reading, 2) writing, 3)listening-speaking **c.** Biologists working for the industry: 1) Reading, 2) writing, 3) listening-speaking
If you were given the possibility of designing a course of English for Biologists, what would you include?	**a.** Future researchers: texts of the speciality (books and journals). **b.** Teachers: texts of the speciality (books and journals) **c.** Biologists working for the industry: Text of the speciality (reports, books and journals)

Table 2. Results of the interviews carried out among professionals in the area

According to the information collected for the 1st question, the informants mentioned that, depending on their future goals, students should have contact with the following types of texts:

- future researchers (5-10% of the students): specialized books and journals in their field of work
- teachers (25% of the students): textbooks
- people working for the industry (25%): specialized reports and journals
- other (40-45%)

.

Regarding the 2nd question, the skills more likely to be needed are (in this order): reading, writing, listening-speaking.

With respect to the 3rd question, most of those interviewed declared that they would include texts related to the speciality (books and journals) and that the course should be writing-oriented. They also expressed that it would be advisable to give the students some clues on how to write a CV for applying for jobs or positions in English.

Job shadowing

The main focus of the job shadowing was to observe the daily routines of a teacher/researcher and his/her use of the English language throughout the day. For this purpose, we agreed to carry out the observation sessions on two working days.

My main points of observation were the following:

- What percentage of the daily routines have any relation with English?
- What English skills does he/she practice/need to carry out his work?

Prompts	Evidence
What percentage of the daily routines have any relation with English?	70% of the routines related to reading 10% of the routines related to writing
What English skills does he/she practice/need to carry out his work?	70% reading texts from different sources (journals, emails, books, etc.) 10% writing (research papers and answering emails)

Table 3. Results of the job observation sessions

As shown in Table 3, 70% of the time was devoted to reading and 10 % to writing. The tasks carried out with greater frequently were: reading publications to prepare lectures and research tasks, contacting other researchers/teachers by mail and preparing manuscripts to be sent for publication in different research journals.

Oral/listening skills were also needed, since at the moment of the observation, there was a PhD student from Malaysia working in the Department. The language of communication with this researcher during the observation was English.

Conclusions

After analysing the results of the questionnaires, interviews and job-shadowing sessions, we could conclude that these means of carrying out the targeted analysis are complementary and should ideally be applied to any needs analysis. However, we are aware of the difficulties inherent in carrying out job shadowing and interviews for a study performed on a larger scale than the present one.

According to the results obtained from the questionnaires, interviews and job shadowing, it seems clear that biologists essentially need to develop the skill of reading through a variety of texts; the conventions of academic writing should also be practiced from the beginning of the course; speaking and listening should be included in the module as well. With respect to the texts to be included, it seems important to offer students a wide variety of texts from textbooks, reports and journals which could cover all the different sub-fields that make up the universe of Biology**.**

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Specialist Email Communication in Global Virtual Teams: Selected Facets of Politeness

Abstract
In the globalisation age, work is more often undertaken in the form of projects, and (global) project management has become a key concept for professional activity. This applies to both business and academic settings. It is widely agreed that project team members spend the majority of their time communicating with one another. Effective communication, therefore, is a decisive factor for project success.

Successful communication in global project management ties in with the active application of two principles: the cooperative principle and the politeness principle. This paper focuses on the politeness principle, which is of vital importance in intercultural email communication among professionals who work together using ICT tools and never have a chance to meet face to face. Politeness issues are analysed on the basis of email discourse conducted in Business English as a *lingua franca* by a concrete global (virtual) project team, as exemplified by material drawn from a transnational corporation. It differentiates between verbal politeness indicators and structural politeness indicators, with the help of which politeness speech acts may be produced. The conclusion is that in teams consisting of members enjoying a similar professional position, the development and application of politeness strategies, and the use of politeness speech acts greatly influence the effectiveness of the communication process and the project success. It is also relevant to consider the individual features of team members when analysing the aspects of politeness.
Key Words: email, politeness, project, specialist discourse, virtual teams

Introduction[1]: Communication in global virtual teams

The increasing globalisation of trade and corporate activity makes the use of virtual teams a necessity for various organisations. Virtual teams are mainly built in global corporations but they are also formed, in increasing number, in academic settings.

While in companies virtual teams are built in order to deliver certain projects and, hence, boost income, in academic institutions researchers work together within the international arena to develop, enhance, and maintain academic exchange, i.e. to execute specific research projects. In both types of organisations, virtual teams may be labelled 'global virtual teams' (see Zakaria & Amelinckx & Wilemon, 2004: 17) or 'far-flung (virtual) teams' (see Majchrzak & Malhotra, 2003:7), as team members are geographically and/or organisationally dispersed, represent various cultural properties and speak different national languages. Furthermore, they hardly ever work (communicate) face to face; instead they use a combination of information and communications technologies:

Far-flung virtual teams, or far-flung teams, or FFTs for short, take the concept of virtual teams the next level – they are teams of individuals spread across the globe, working collaboratively to innovate, with minimal or no face-to-face interaction. Thus, FFTs are characterized by added complexity over commonly deployed virtual teams. (Majchrzak & Malhotra, 2003:7)

[...] we use the term 'global virtual teams', which adds a more intricate phenomenon, but not a strangely different concept from both the meaning of virtual and global teams. [...] global virtual teams are not only separated by time and space, but differ in national, cultural and linguistic attributes, and use information and communication technologies as their primary means of communication and work structure. (Zakaria & Amelinckx & Wilemon, 2004: 17)

In this paper I use the term 'global virtual teams', as I consider it to be more apt and to the point than the term 'far-flung teams'.

Similarly to traditional (co-located) teams, members of global virtual teams collaborate for a definite period of time in order to create a certain, usually unique, product, service, or result (see PMBOK Guide, 2008: 5). In other words, members of global virtual teams share a common purpose, i.e. the goal of a given project. However, in contrast to co-located teams, some specialists list a number of challenges/drawbacks associated with global virtual teams. One of these is ineffective communication 'in the absence of rich face-to-face communication' (Kuruppuarachchi, 2009: 22) and the necessity to use a common language. On the other hand, communication is of vital importance for the successful execution of projects by global virtual teams, as illustrated by the following comments:

There is a view that communication is a less important skill than planning and doing project management. This is not so. If you communicate badly, your project will fail. (Nokes & Kelly, 2007: 246)

[...] with the benefits of a virtual team also come the challenges---the biggest of which is communication. [...] For virtual teams [...] communication is even more critical and even more difficult. In fact, communicating with your virtual team members should be considered at least four times as challenging as communicating with those sitting right outside your office. (Riley, 2008: 1)

[...] they [= communication skills – J.Z.] can be considered as even more fundamental than learning the various disciplines and processes that make up a project manager's toolkit. They may be missed because they are obvious, or because they are thought of as rudimentary rather than fundamental. (Newton, 2009: 19–20)

It is worth noting that members of global virtual teams usually use the so-called 'Business English as a lingua franca' (see Louhiala-Salminen & Charles & Kankaanranta, 2005; Charles, 2009: 19) and apply multiple means of communication (see Kleinberger Günther, 2005: 306; Funken, 2008: 107; see also *multi-channelling* e.g. Holly, 2006, *multimodality* e.g. Bargiela-Chiappini, 2009: 12; Nickerson & Planken, 2009: 18 ff.) in order to communicate effectively, i.e. they rely on Internet-based communication tools (also called online communication tools) such as email, communicator, audio- and videoconferencing, wiki, (discussion) fora, blogs/ microblogs etc. In this paper I concentrate on the discourse carried out by members of global virtual teams via e-mail. I pay particular attention to politeness issues, which may be reproduced on the basis of specialist e-mail communication in global virtual teams.

Basic terms within the meaning of anthropocentric linguistics

A. Specialist email discourse

Drawing on the basic tenets of anthropocentric linguistics developed by Grucza F. (1983, 1989, 1992a,b, 1993a,b, 1997, 2010) and Grucza S. (2006a,b, 2008, 2010), I regard emails exchanged by members of global virtual teams as specialist texts, and specialist communication conducted via email ('specialist email discourse') as an exchange of specialist emails. Specialist emails are produced, sent, received and understood by specialists (team members) on the basis of their real specialist languages, i.e. their specialist idiolects, and their specialist cultural properties, i.e. specialist idiocultures. The collection of the team members' specialist idiolects may be labelled 'specialist polylect' or 'team language' (see PMBOK Guide, 2008: 230; Zając, 2012), whereas the collection of their specialist idiocultures may be referred to as 'specialist polyculture' or 'team culture' (see more in Zając, 2012).

B. Politeness

The issues of politeness are usually explained on the basis of the politeness theory developed by Brown and Levinson (1987) drawing on Goffman's (1967) 'face' theory (see Blum-Kulka, 1997: 50; Reiter, 2009: 166). The Brown and Levinson model is considered to be the dominant, best known, approach to linguistic politeness (Fraser, 2001: 1408–1423). However, in the context of intercultural and interlingual professional discourse, the Brown and Levinson model should be verified and extended (see Meier, 1997; Fraser, 2001: 1420–1423; Lüger, 2002: 9; Darics, 2010: 132). One of the problems with this model lies in the authors' claim for its universality (see Meier, 1995: 388, 1997: 22–23). Hence, in this paper I have adopted the anthropocentric approach to politeness following Meier's view of politeness as appropriateness (Meier, 1997: 24 ff) and the tenets of anthropocentric linguistics. The former advocates the so-called anthropological approach to politeness, in which the complexity of contextual and situational factors is of utmost importance. In intercultural encounters, cultural assumptions (awareness and sensitivity) underlie the perception of the contextual and situational factors (see also Blum-Kulka, 1997: 54 ff; Günthner, 2002: 267), which "can never be adequately captured by a list of cultural rules or by a recipe for every, or even most, possible constellations of contextual factors" (Meier, 1997: 25). Situational variables (context) and cultural variability are also the focus of anthropocentric linguistics, according to which 'politeness' should be regarded in terms of 'politeness strategies', i.e. as a set of certain (communicative) principles which a given person (specialist) needs to acquire (e.g. during communication workshops or in on-the-job situations) in order to successfully collaborate with other people, e.g. to successfully deliver projects in global virtual teams. This implies that a given person's politeness strategies (idiostrategies) must be differentiated from the politeness strategies of a specific group of people (polystrategies), which Bonacchi (2011) underlined in her book:

Mit „Höflichkeit" wird im kulturologischen Sinne die Gesamtheit von Gesprächsstrategien und Umgangspraktiken bezeichnet, die eingesetzt werden, um kommunikative Akte zu regulieren [...]. [...] „höfliches Verhalten" [unterliegt] sowohl idiokulturell als auch polykulturell einer bestimmten „Grammatikalität", d.h. expliziten und stillschweigenden Regeln, Geboten und Verboten, die die „Syntax" des konkreten Kommunikationsaktes bedingen. (Bonacchi, 2011: 202–203)

What is more, politeness strategies are applied by team members in accordance with the principle of 'recipient design', i.e. by considering other members of the team (Liddicoat, 2007: 227; Sidnell, 2010: 207). Hence, there are no universal or general rules of politeness that can be applied to all professional situations (Meier, 1997: 24).

Literature review

Aspects of politeness in connection with specialist email discourse in global virtual teams have not been discussed to a great extent in literature on the subject. However, two recently conducted studies concerning politeness and email discourse may be mentioned.

Certain remarks on politeness in internal email communication conducted by employees of selected Swiss companies are presented by Kleinberger Günther (2002). In her article "Sprachliche Höflichkeit in innerbetrieblichen *e-mails*", the author elaborates on the form, content, and speech acts with regard to politeness and internal emails. She differentiates between employees at the different levels of the organisational hierarchy and status equals. Van den Eynden Morpeth (2012), on the other hand, analyses issues of politeness and gender in organisational (business) emails exchanged by employees of the Belgian branches of two international companies. In her paper "Politeness and Gender in Belgian Organisational Emails", the author analyses her data on the basis of email structure, verbal indicators of politeness (please and thank-you forms), selected speech acts, and socio-emotional cues (social questions, emoticons, exclamation marks).

Research questions

On the basis of the studies mentioned above and the adopted tenets of anthropocentric linguistics, the following research questions may be posed:

A. What politeness strategies are used by members of global virtual teams when they conduct email discourse?

B. Which politeness speech acts are used by professional emailers working in the international environment?

Data and methodology

The data consists of 41 authentic emails exchanged by concrete team members—four employees of a global corporation coming from various countries, i.e. speaking different mother tongues and representing different cultural properties, while collaborating on a certain project. The members of the global virtual team communicated in Business English as a lingua franca, and gradually developed a common team language. On the basis of the content of the email discourse under study, I divided the discourse into three parts: initial, middle, final. The company from which the data stems did not wish to reveal its name and forbade me to publish any details about its operations. Hence, I do not describe the company in great detail.

The methodological approach of this study is based on the qualitative technique and the ethnographic method, as I established contact with the team members and was able to collect certain background information about the work processes and the participants. For the first research question, about politeness strategies that may be identified in professional email discourse, I drew on Bunz and Campbell's (2002) differentiation between verbal and structural politeness indicators in email discourse. For the second research question, I followed the division of politeness speech acts presented by Bonacchi (2011: 266 ff). According to Bonacchi (*ibid.*), there are three types of politeness speech acts taking into consideration the communicative balance/equilibrium that enables participants to build interpersonal relations when accomplishing certain tasks:

(a) presentative – usually used at the beginning of communication in order to establish the rules of communicative balance;
(b) reparative – used in order to avoid conflicts or misunderstandings, and to restore communicative equilibrium;
(c) supportive – helps to build interpersonal relations and maintain communicative equilibrium.

In intercultural and interlingual encounters, specialist senders often perform communicative activities which contradict the expectations of specialist recipients (Bonacchi, 2011: 296 ff). This may affect the communication process in a negative way. The politeness speech acts listed above are used to mitigate the negative effects of such communicative activities. With regard to all types of politeness speech acts, paraverbal and verbal rules of communication are of great importance (Bonacchi, 2011: 288). However, in specialist email discourse these rules are limited to the formatting and layout of emails, the use of emoticons etc.

Results

A. Structural politeness indicators

Structural politeness indicators may be observed on the basis of (1) salutations and sign-offs, (2) introductions and closings.

(1) The members of the global virtual team greeted their colleagues in every email, and they also signed off every email, even though in some cases they exchanged emails at short intervals. Both salutations and sign-offs may be treated as presentative speech acts as they were used in order to initiate a conversation which aim was to start the performance of collaborative activities (salutation) and the self-presentation (sign-off).

When greeting one another, the team members usually used the word ‘Hi’ in tandem with the first name of the recipient of the email. There were two exceptions to this rule: (a) when the sender used solely the name of the recipient, and (b) when the sender skipped the entire salutation. When a given email was intended for two recipients, the sender either put a conjunction ‘and’ between the first names of the addressees, e.g. *Hi*

A and B (appeared once) or used a collective noun, e.g. *Hi Guys* (appeared twice), *Hi guys* (appeared once), *Hi Everyone* (appeared once), *Hi All* (appeared once). It is worth noting that the first letters of the collective nouns listed (except for *guys*) were written in capitals, which may also be regarded as a politeness indicator. However, native speakers of the English language may not necessarily consider the words mentioned to be polite (see Sax 2012). In three cases, the sender addressed two receivers separately in one email, i.e. the sender formulated two texts beginning with the word 'Hi'. However, the sender signed off both texts together. The sign-offs that appeared in emails consisting of two texts were the same as the sign-offs used in emails sent to one recipient and in emails addressed to two recipients simultaneously. The team members usually used the expressions *Regards* and *Best regards* in their sign-offs. The salutations and sign-offs mentioned may be regarded as the traits of respect demonstrated by the senders for the receivers. It is worth mentioning that the expressions *Regards*, *Best regards* often followed such words as *Thank you*, *Thanks*. For example *Thanks and regards* (appeared five times in the final phase of the discourse), *Thank you. Best regards* (appeared five times). On two occasions an email (request for performing a task) was 'signed off' solely with the expression *Thanks!* In some cases the sign-offs were more complex in order to:

a) reinforce argumentation (also to mark the roles played in the project):

Thanks for your understanding.

Best regards

Hope that makes sense

Regards

Thank you for your understanding.

Best regards

b) express a request once more:

Thanks a lot once more.

Best regards

In all email closings the senders put their first names, leaving out their formal signatures with the name of their position and contact information.

On the basis of the examples illustrated above, it may be concluded that salutations and sign-offs are used in specialist emails composed by the team members for formal reasons in order to demonstrate respect for one another and to create the grounds for working together. They are also used to build interpersonal relations, which may be noticed on the basis of such informal words as *Hi* (instead of e.g. *Dear*) and *Regards* (instead of e.g. *Sincerely yours*). The reconstruction of the sign-offs in specialist emails indicates that sign-offs may also be used for other reasons, i.e. in order to express a request, to reinforce one's arguments, to turn down a request, to close the discourse in a polite manner, and hence, to build communicative equilibrium. To conclude, it can be noted that in specialist email discourse, structural politeness indicators are often used in tandem with verbal politeness indicators (see Section B below).

(2) Similarly to salutations and sign-offs, introductions and closings were used as part of politeness strategies. Concerning the introductions of specialist emails, the phrase *Please find* . . . or expressions conveying similar meaning were commonly used:

Please find attached . . .

I have prepared . . . *You can find it on below location* . . .

Please find . . . *at the location below* . . .

I have uploaded . . . *on following locations* . . .

We have everything on . . .

We have . . . *on* . . .

Attached is . . .

Requested . . . *were uploaded to below location* . . .

Please find updated . . .

Please find completed . . .

Please find . . . *uploaded* . . .

These . . . *are ready* . . .

I have uploaded . . .

I updated . . .

We have . . .

Please note the below . . .

The project team members used the expressions listed above at the beginning of their emails, and in this way they assigned the tasks in the project or informed other team members that the tasks had been accomplished. The highest degree of politeness may be assigned to the expressions with the word *please*.

One of the team members used the word *please* at the beginning of his emails in order to make explicit requests (most often for a given task to be performed):

Please create . . .

Please let me know . . .

Due to the fact that these expressions consituted the entire body of an email, they may also be considered to be concluding expressions (closings). Sometimes the word *please* was used by the team members to finish a given email:

Please, *prepare . . .*

Please, *follow the instructions given by . . .*

The words *Thank you*/*Thanks* were also used in the introductory part of specialist emails. When using these words at the beginning of a specialist email, the project team members:

a) confirmed safe receipt of an email message/files or informed that they were working on an assigned task:

   Thank you for . . .

   Thanks for information.

b) thanked for the job done by another team member:

   Thank you . . . in the meantime we had discussion . . .

   Thank you . . . please . . .

   Thank you. . . . is fine and requirements are met.

To finish off their emails, the team members used the following expressions:

If you have any question, just let me know.

Kindly let me know if there any concerns.

Kindly let me know if there any concerns. ☺

Kindly confirm.

If you have any question, just let me know.

Please acknowledge safe receipt.

Let me know if you have questions or if anything is unclear.

These expressions may be regarded as reparative speech acts as they were used in order to prevent conflicts and communicative problems during the execution of the project. Through the use of these expressions, the senders made an attempt to encourage the receiver(s) to contact them in case of any issues. It is worth noting that the team members used emoticons indicating an informal character of the discourse under study. The emoticons appeared in both the reparative and supportive speech acts. With the use of the emoticons, the participants announced a delay or apologised for mistakes made. In general, the introductions and closings appeared mostly in specialist emails exchanged in the middle part of the discourse. They were used in order to build an interpersonal relationship and to reach optimal communicative equilibrium. Their use was optional and depended on the context and on the aims that the sender attempted to reach. Similarly to the salutations and sign-offs, the introductions and closings were often used in tandem with verbal politeness indicators (see Section B).

B. Verbal politeness indicators

The words ‘thank you’ and ‘please’ are among the verbal politeness indicators used in the specialist email discourse. The word ‘thank you’ was used in 56 per cent of the emails, mainly in the final phase of the discourse, and the word ‘please’ in 66 per cent of the texts, mostly in the initial phase of the discourse, which may be considered logical. At the beginning of the project, the team members asked one another to perform certain tasks using the word ‘please’ and at the end of the project thanked for their performance. In some emails the verbal politeness indicators were used more than once. Moreover, one of the team members did not use any verbal politeness indicators, while another used half of the total verbal politeness indicators appearing in the entire discourse. The team member who used the highest number of verbal politeness indicators was the central person in the project. Although he was not the project manager of the project, he was held responsible for the project outcome. Therefore, he tried to build and maintain communicative equilibrium and good relationships with other team members. This may be concluded not only on the basis of the amount of verbal politeness indicators that he used but also by considering the number of emails he produced (around 35 per cent of all exchanged emails). Another team member, who used about 30 per cent of all verbal politeness indicators in the whole discourse, caused a number of ‘difficult’ situations and made numerous mistakes, which threatened the project's success. By using the words 'thank you' and 'please', he most probably tried to soften difficult situations and to avoid potential conflict with other team members (reparative speech acts). The differences in the use of verbal politeness indicators cannot be explained with 'cultural differences', as the team member who used the second highest amount of verbal politeness indicators and the one who did not use any verbal politeness indicators represent the same country of origin. Hence, it may be concluded that the use of the words 'thank you' and 'please' is first and foremost an individual issue, and cannot be related to the role played by the team member or to cultural differences. This testifies to the anthropocentric approach to communication adopted in this paper.

Conclusion

In the foregoing paper, I have discussed the selected aspects of politeness in specialist email discourse, relevant for project teams in an international environment. The results indicate that politeness cannot be defined as universal politeness rules, but it has to be ascribed to the individual features of emailers. Hence, the thesis of politeness as appropriateness developed by Meier is confirmed. Taking into consideration the situation and intercultural context of the email discourse under study, one may also conclude that politeness indicators helped its participants to soften difficult situations and to reach success in the project. In summary, I advocate following the anthropocentric approach in future studies on politeness.

Notes

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KAPITAŁ LUDZKI
NARODOWA STRATEGIA SPÓJNOŚCI

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