Encuentro Revista del Departamento de Filología Moderna

EDITORIAL

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The authors contributing to the Volume 27 of the Encuentro Journal embarked on the journey that has been marked by the previous issues – focusing on the role of teachers as investigators. Contributions included in this issue present educators from various backgrounds reflecting on their teaching practices. Results of their investigation can serve as a stepping-stone towards increasing quality of education and as an inspiration to those who want to improve their teaching.

Fifteen articles published in this issue cover five main areas of interest: first, language learning and methodology are in focus; next, the attitudes and perception of students are investigated. Foreign languages and literature section explores the areas of Turkish and German language use. Finally, the last two sections concentrate on the use of corpora and on translation studies.

First section begins with the article "Origin and Development of Active Learning within the Spanish Educational System", where **Luelmo del Castillo** talks about the emergence of New School, which gave way to the rise of Active learning. The author then discusses the position of Active learning method within Spanish education system and continues by analysing the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) from its beginning in 1999 up to today, with focus on tertiary education and active incorporation of objectives from the New School and Active learning.

Dorado Escribano in her article "Escape Rooms from a Collaborative and Interdisciplinary Perspective" looks at the use of games in education. The goal of the project described by the author was to include emotional aspect, increase positive motivation and decrease competitiveness through teamwork with assigned roles. Escape Room allowed students to engage in collaborative learning and created connection between various subjects of the school curriculum, while students used exclusively foreign language for communication.

The use of mobile and digital technology in distance learning within tertiary education is emphasised by **Escobar** and **Ibáñez** in their article "ICTS in English for Specific Purposes: A Methodological Proposal". Results of project, carried out in the courses belonging to the Degree in Tourism, demonstrated that participating student performed better in the final exams. Moreover, the collaborative learning, which was part of the project, has proven to be useful for development of students' cognitive abilities.

Another contribution to the subject of ICT by **Jordano de la Torre, "**WIKIS as Support for English Studies' Distance Students to Analyse and Produce EST texts" centres at the use of internet in teaching English for Technology. During six academic terms the shared space provided students with possibility to work on the course material. Not only did wiki worked as a tool, but it also acted as a substitute for the physical presence in the online courses thus proving that the online collaborative language learning context was a right decision for the students.

Students' attitudes are looked at in detail in the second section. **Badrie** and **Abir**, authors of the article "The Impact of CLIL Implementation on Lebanese Students' Attitudes and Performance" described the effect of CLIL on the academic performance of students who are participating in Teachers' training courses taught in English in Lebanon. According to the findings, students considered themselves confident when interacting in unexpected situations since their exposure to CLIL equipped them with resources and put their learning through authentic tasks in social and cultural context.

For **Chiknaverova,** author of the article "The Development of Students` Self-Regulation as a Means to Foster Foreign Language Acquisition", the focus is on differentiating the conscious language acquisition through teacher instruction from independent language learning, with the move from formalized learning process towards possible remodelling of traditional approaches. A study conducted with 177 university students from the same year and of the same native language proved that increased autonomy and use of strategies leads to increased self-control, perseverance and self-possession.

Third section with emphasis on the foreign languages starts with contribution from **Nalan, Işıl** and **Senem** titled "The Representation of Gender in Turkish as a Foreign Language (TFL) Coursebooks". As the name of their article already indicates**,** the authors set to investigate the visual and written content of teaching material to determine the manifestation of male and female characters. Analysis has revealed that despite some efforts, the course books still contain certain gender stereotypes represented by unbalanced portrayal of men and women based on their traditional roles in the society.

"Meta-Literary Narrative in Reading Education: The Case of Contemporary German Youth Novels" by **Hernández Medina** analyses twelve young readers' narratives through the use of meta-literary resources of intertextuality, metalepsis and meta-literary observation. The benefit of these strategies lies in enhancing of the reader-literary competence. Frequent intertextual relationships present in these works encourage the readers to become involved in the narrative and search for its meaning. The author concludes that exposing readers to these texts equips them with abilities for creative writing as well.

Burgos Cuadrillero in her article "Explaining the Linking Element: Certain Patterns of Use in German Compounds with Special Emphasis on the Semantic Field of Gastronomy" reflects on the mechanism involved in formation of compounds in German language. The author intents to illustrate the arbitrariness of the linking element, presenting the related difficulty caused by the fact that a certain disagreement exists between linguists as to its location and use within the German language.

Studies related to corpora are contained in the fourth section. **Martínez Sáez** in his article "Exploring the Level of Specialisation of a Corpus of Scientific Texts and Students' Perceptions and Needs in an ESP Context" presents an overview of the process concerning a unit design using a corpus of Biology themed articles. The aim of study itself was twofold, concentrating on determining the degree of specialization and students' perception of this material while encouraging students to familiarize themselves with, understand and eventually produce scientific reports.

"DDL Integration in Different EAP Scenarios of Academic Writing" by **Curado Fuentes** stays within the topic of EAP and corpus usage, concentrating on the native corpora. The author contemplates the incorporation of Data Driven Learning within the writing course, defending this move by the study carried out over the eight-year period with three different groups of students. The results have shown that comparative knowledge gained by observing and analysing native-like writing proved beneficial for students.

DDL is in focus of the next article as well. "Guidelines for the Design and Generation of Corpus-Based Terminology-Oriented Instructional Material" by **Losey León** underlines the importance of corpora application to teaching English for Specific Purposes. Data Driven Learning allows students to explore language while by using the Context-based learning approach students are motived when engaged with authentic texts. What the author proposes is to incorporate corpus design criteria and compilation methodology and suggest guidelines for teachers who compile and work with corpus.

The focus of the fifth section are the translation studies. **Schmidhofer**, author of the article "El Desarrollo de la Competencia Documental Mediante la Autocorrección en la Formación de Lenguas para Traductores" reflects about how teaching methodology in foreign language classes differ when they are oriented towards translation instead of communicative competence, with the main difference related to use of research techniques. Incorporation of self-correction exercises demonstrated that the students were able to improve research competence, a necessary base for their future professional development.

"The OFFTATLED Project: Offensive and Taboo Exchanges Subtitled by Online University Students" by **Ávila-Cabrera** and **Rodríguez Arancón** describes decision-making processes involved in the translation of audio-visual material from English to Spanish. Researchers observed the transfer of linguistic elements to determine if students carried out faithful translations, or if a manipulation occurred in the process. Apart from the results that confirmed tendency towards the translation faithful to the source text, improvement of students' linguistic skills was also reported.

Finally, the contribution by **Valero Garcés** "Notes on Technology, Machine Translation and Specialized Languages" provides readers with an overview that illustrates the incorporation of technological tools such as CAT, MT and AI into the area of human translation. By analysing studies produced by companies and institutions involved in the area of translation, the author contemplates how this situation has influenced potential work market and translator training offered by educational institutions. Moreover, acquisition of new skills is encouraged to keep up with the changing panorama of translation studies.

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ORIGEN Y DESARROLLO DE LAS METODOLOGÍAS ACTIVAS DENTRO DEL SISTEMA EDUCATIVO ESPAÑOL

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF ACTIVE LEARNING WITHIN THE SPANISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

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Resumen

Este artículo revisa el origen y desarrollo de las Metodologías Activas dentro del sistema educativo español con especial atención a su papel dentro del Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior (EEES). El trabajo cooperativo, basado en problemas, basado en proyectos, gamificado o a través de casos es cada más habitual en las aulas. Sin embargo, no se trata de metodologías de reciente creación. La presente revisión persigue ahondar en el origen común de todas estas metodologías (La Escuela Nueva) con el fin de identificar aquellos rasgos que las engloban dentro de una misma familia y que permiten que el trabajo con ellas sea más efectivo. El concepto de autonomía, el nuevo rol de alumnado y profesorado, el aprendizaje por competencias o el desarrollo de estrategias metacognitivas son los aspectos desarrollados en el presente artículo puesto que son los que dan relevancia a estas metodologías en el contexto actual.

Palabras clave: La Escuela Nueva, Metodologías Activas , EEES, autonomía.

Abstract

This paper aims to revise the origin and development of Active Learning methodologies in the Spanish educational system with special attention to their role within the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). Cooperative Learning, Project Based Learning, Problem Based Learning, Gamification or Case Studies are becoming common practice in the classroom. However, Active Learning Methodologies have not been created in the last few years. This paper seeks to explore the common origin to all these methodologies (The New School) with the purpose of identifying those characteristics that include them in the same family and that allow teachers to work with them more effectively. The concept of autonomy, the new role of students and teachers, learning through competencies or the development of metacognitive strategies will be the aspects to be exposed in the current paper because they are the ones which make Active Learning Methodologies relevant in today's context.

Key Words: New School, Active Learning, EHEA, autonomy.

1. INTRODUCCIÓN

El papel de la Metodologías Activas es cada más relevante en nuestros días dentro del sistema educativo español desde Educación Infantil hasta Educación Superior. En los últimos años, hemos podido presenciar como las aulas se han gamificado, se han llenado de proyectos, se han comenzado a utilizar portfolios de aprendizaje o se han puesto en marcha técnicas de aprendizaje cooperativo.

La implementación de estas metodologías ha exigido y seguirá exigiendo un cambio fundamental en la actitud de alumnado y profesorado que han tenido que adaptar su rol dentro del aula a un nuevo paradigma, que promueve que el alumno se responsabilice de su aprendizaje y sea capaz de tomar decisiones sobre el mismo. Del mismo modo, el profesor ha tenido, poco a poco, que abandonar su papel como fuente principal de conocimiento y encargado principal de todo lo que ocurre en el aula para dar paso a un profesor que negocia con sus alumnos, les guía y aconseja y les permite libertad. Esta nueva relación que se crea dentro de un aula que trabaja con Metodologías Activas, persigue como objetivo final la promoción de la autonomía del alumno.

Conseguir que los estudiantes ganen en autonomía es fundamental dentro del aprendizaje por competencias que aparece dentro de los currículos de Educación Infantil, Primaria, Secundaria y Educación Superior y por eso es importante en este momento entender cómo las Metodologías Activas pueden ayudar en este proceso.

En este sentido, el presente artículo pretende ofrecer una revisión bibliográfica sobre el origen de las Metodologías Activas que ayude a comprender cuáles son los pilares comunes que las fundamentan.

Para poder ofrecer el contexto en el que se originan las Metodologías Activas, es necesario comenzar hablando de la Escuela Nueva. La creación de la Escuela Nueva significó un giro en la concepción de la educación tal y como se entendía hasta ese momento. Supuso una forma diferente de entender al alumno, de abordar los planes de estudio, un cambio en la actitud del profesor y en su relación con el aprendiz. Todos estos principios, llevados por primera vez al aula de manera sistemática en la Escuela Nueva, son aún hoy en día los pilares sobre los que se asientan las Metodologías Activas.

A pesar de que hoy en día no es ya posible encontrar ejemplos de Escuela Nueva tal y como se concibieron en su origen, "muchos de sus ideales han quedado incorporados al común haber de la educación en la segunda mitad de siglo" (Marín Ibañez, 1976, p. 24), y de ahí la relevancia de su estudio en nuestros días.

Una vez revisada tanto la historia como los principios básicos que sostienen las Metodologías Activas, se procederá a analizar su papel dentro del sistema educativo español con especial atención a su papel dentro del Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior (EEES) con el fin de comprender su alcance.

2. LA ESCUELA NUEVA

2.1 El origen de la Escuela Nueva

Se conoce como Escuela Nueva al movimiento de renovación pedagógica surgido a finales del siglo XIX y comienzos del XX que, inspirado por las ideas de pensadores y pedagogos gestadas del siglo XVIII, como acabamos de ver en el epígrafe anterior, propone la creación de un tipo de escuelas que se alejan por completo del modelo tradicional conocido hasta el momento. Algunos autores, (Palacios, 1984), le dan incluso entidad como corriente: "(…) la coherencia de sus planteamientos, la solidez de sus opciones y su prolongada extensión en el tiempo y el espacio, es, por derecho propio, una corriente educativa" (Palacios 1984, p. 16).

Si queremos entender el movimiento de la Escuela Nueva, es importante detenernos, si bien de manera muy breve, en el momento histórico en el que surge. Su origen se sitúa, como acabamos de mencionar, a finales del siglo XIX y su máximo esplendor tiene lugar en el periodo de entreguerras. Debemos tener en cuenta, por tanto, el especial momento de agitación política y social de la época. El movimiento de la Escuela Nueva, la nueva corriente educativa, hay que entenderla dentro de un contexto de cambio más extenso: "existe cierta correlación con otras corrientes generales de orden político, social, económico, filosófico, etc. La corriente educativa aparece como un aspecto, un reflejo, un afluente de una corriente mucho más amplia" (Roselló, 1974, p. 23).

Palacios afirma que el origen del movimiento podemos encontrarlo en las transformaciones sociales, económicas, demográficas y políticas consecuencia, en gran medida, de la industrialización y de los nuevos ideales políticos:

Las conflagraciones mundiales no fueron el origen, sino un estímulo importante para un movimiento que ya había recorrido un camino considerable. El principio de ese camino quizá llevase, retrocediendo, a una serie de transformaciones sociales, económicas y demográficas como son el auge del industrialismo, la transformación de las estructuras rurales, la conversión de la familia patriarcal en nuclear, etc; llevaría también a una serie de transformaciones políticas caracterizadas por la aspiración democrática, por la lucha por alcanzar los ideales de libertad, igualdad y fraternidad, por el deseo de remodelación del mundo; transformaciones, en el otro extremo, caracterizadas por el progresivo auge del capitalismo y por la segregación cada vez más acentuada de las capas sociales en las que este apoyaba su expansión (1984, p. 17).

En este contexto de cambio, la Escuela Nueva persigue ofrecer una alternativa para la transformación de la educación y, consecuentemente, de la sociedad. Se busca una escuela que modifique su concepto, no solo su plan de estudios o su metodología; una escuela que forme otro tipo de individuos. Ferrière, figura clave en el desarrollo de la Escuela Nueva, llega incluso a señalar a la escuela como uno de los culpables de la guerra:

> En todos los países de Europa la escuela se ha esforzado en formar al niño para la obediencia pasiva, y no ha hecho nada, sin embargo, para desenvolver su espíritu crítico, ni ha tratado nunca de favorecer la ayuda mutua. Fácil es ver a dónde hubo de conducir a los pueblos ese adiestramiento paciente y continuo. (Ferrière, 1926, p. 23)

Se hacía necesario, por tanto, un nuevo modelo de escuela que formase ciudadanos más activos, críticos y solidarios. Hay que pensar en la Escuela Nueva como movimiento de transformación que persigue, como fin último y universal, un cambio radical de la realidad escolar dada la situación histórica en la que nace y se desarrolla. Para entender su expansión es importante tener en cuenta el optimismo pedagógico imperante en la época y el convencimiento de que la sociedad podía mejorar a través de la educación. Además, empezó a percibirse interés de la opinión pública en cuestiones educativas. La educación pasaba a ser, no ya una obligación, sino un tema en el que los ciudadanos debían implicarse.

En el terreno ya más en directa relación con la educación, el desarrollo de ciencias centradas en el estudio del niño, tales como la Paidología o la Psicología infantil, tuvo lugar de forma paralela al de la Escuela Nueva. No podemos olvidar que la Escuela Nueva persigue también superar las limitaciones que representaba la escuela tradicional, y por ello propone nuevos objetivos, metodologías y técnicas que enfatizan el valor de la infancia y respetan la naturaleza del niño. Los pedagogos de la Escuela Nueva confieren, tanto al niño en particular como a la clase como grupo, confianza, respeto y libertad (García García, 1990, p. 28).

La Escuela Nueva toma su nombre de las primeras escuelas que se fundan en Inglaterra (*New Schools*), Francia (*Education Nouvelle*), Alemania (*Reformpädagogik*) y EEUU (*Progressive Education*). Hacia 1920 Ferrière acuñó la forma *Escuela Activa* con la que se pretendía capturar terminológicamente la característica fundamental del niño y de la práctica escolar en las Escuelas Nuevas, esto es, la actividad (Del Pozo, 2002, p. 190).

La primera Nueva Escuela, de Cecil Reddie, en Abbotsholme, Derbyshire, Inglaterra, (1889) provocó una reacción en cadena. Un profesor educado en ella, J. H. Bedley, fundaba en Bedales (Sussex) otro centro similar. Ambos iban a ser el modelo para las escuelas que se fundarían a partir de entonces. Se trataba de internados de reducido número de alumnos en sus comienzos (40 en Abbotsholme y 60 en Bedales). Llevaban una vida similar a la de la familia en plena campiña, y las tareas de la casa y el campo eran realizadas por todos los alumnos. Bedales introdujo tres innovaciones fundamentales: la coeducación, el autogobierno por los alumnos y profesores en Asamblea General e incluir a párvulos y primeros grados en la Escuela Primaria. Pronto, estos tipos de escuelas se difundieron por todo el país. (Marín Ibañez, 1976, p. 25).

Fuera del Reino Unido, Demolins funda *L'Ecole des Roches* en 1899 en Francia y Lietz *Landerziehungsheime* en Alemania en 1898. La mujer de este último crea un par de escuelas similares sólo para chicas. Al otro lado del océano, Dewey funda *Cook County Normal School* en 1896 (Del Pozo, 2002, p. 194).

Se pueden distinguir varias etapas en el desarrollo de la Escuela Nueva (Gal, 1978; García García, 1990). Se puede hablar de una primera etapa que se conoce como la más idealista, romántica e individualista y que estaría representada por los precursores de los que se ha hablado al comenzar este capítulo: Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Fröebel y Herbart. Más tarde, entre 1900 y 1918, tendría lugar la etapa de los grandes sistemas, más elaborada y operativa, donde encontramos autores como Dewey y la escuela progresista americana, Kilpatrick y su método de proyectos, Washburne, Montessori o Winnetka y Parkhurst y el Plan Dalton. Una tercera etapa (1918-1939) estaría caracterizada por una fundamentación más rigurosa en la Psicología científica. Sus representantes fueron, Cousinet, Reddie, Hahn, Freinet y Piaget. Palacios (1984) incluye una cuarta etapa que, según el autor, se ha dejado de lado sistemáticamente. Se trata de una etapa de madurez que se materializa con el Plan Langevin-Wallon, fundamentado por el francés Henri Wallon.

2.2. Principios fundamentales de la Escuela Nueva

La Escuela Nueva fue un movimiento plural desde sus orígenes. Tanto sus principios fundamentales, encaminados a redefinir la escuela tal y como se conocía hasta el momento, como los distintos pedagogos que participaron en su desarrollo, así lo demuestran. Su evolución fue compleja y a lo largo de ésta la Escuela Nueva sufrió no pocas transformaciones. De hecho, no faltaron discrepancias entre ellas. Filho lo explica así:

> (…) no se refiere a un solo tipo de escuela o sistema didáctico determinado, sino a todo un conjunto de principios tendientes a rever las formas tradicionales de la enseñanza. Esos principios derivaron generalmente de una nueva comprensión de las necesidades de la infancia, inspirada en las conclusiones de los estudios de la biología y la psicología que se iniciaban entonces. Pero luego se ampliaron, relacionándose con otros, muy numerosos, relativos a las funciones de la escuela frente a las nuevas exigencias de la vida social. (1964, p. 4)

La proliferación de las escuelas en diversos lugares de Europa y EEUU fomentó esta pluralidad. La dispersión geográfica hizo necesario que se tuviesen que delimitar puntos en común. Se decide entonces crear la *Bureau International des Écoles Nouvelles* en 1899, que sería sustituida más adelante por la Oficina Internacional de Educación (conocida como BIEN) en 1925. Ferrière sería su director desde la creación hasta su desaparición en 1926. Tal y como lo explica Marín Ibáñez: “La oficina tuvo por finalidad establecer relaciones de ayuda mutua científica entre las diferentes escuelas nuevas, centralizar los documentos que les conciernen y aprovechar el valor de las experiencias psicológicas hechas en estos laboratorios de pedagogía del porvenir” (1976, p. 27).

A partir de ese momento, las instituciones que querían formar parte de la Escuela Nueva debían solicitar su afiliación al BIEN. Ferrière, a través de cuestionarios, visitas a los centros y entrevistas personales, decidía si el centro que solicitaba la afiliación debía obtenerla o no. Ante la proliferación de las escuelas que querían formar parte, Ferrière estableció un programa mínimo que podía ser considerado como definición general del movimiento (Del Pozo, 2002).

En 1921 se funda la Liga Internacional de la Educación Nueva, que representó la verdadera institucionalización internacional del movimiento. La Liga se propuso introducir en la Escuela su ideal y sus métodos educativos, establecer una cooperación más íntima entre los educadores que se quisieran adherir a sus principios. Para conseguir estos objetivos, se programaron congresos bianuales y se fundaron varias revistas, de las cuales destacaron tres: *Pour l’ére nouvelle* en Ginebra, fundada por Ferrière; *The New Era* en Londres, dirigida por Beatrice Ensor, destinada a los países de lengua inglesa, y *Das Werdende Zietelter*, en Berlín dirigida por Elisabeth Rotten (Marín Ibañez, 1976, p. 27).

En el primero de estos congresos, celebrado en Calais en 1921, se aprobaron los principios de adhesión y los fines de la Liga. Fueron redactados por Ferrière junto con la inglesa Beatrice Ensor, los franceses Decroix y Bermond, el belga Ovide Decroly y la alemana Elisabeth Rotten (Tiana Ferrer, 2010, p. 45). Los siete principios de la Liga Internacional de la Educación Nueva, redactados por Ferrière, exponen claramente su ideario y fueron el común denominador de todos los centros que se adscribieron a ella[1]. Podríamos resumirlos de la siguiente manera (Marín Ibañez, 1976, p. 29; Tiana Ferrer, 2010, p. 47):

- La educación debe conservar y aumentar la energía espiritual del niño puesto que su fin último es preparar al niño para querer a los demás.
- La educación debe respetar la individualidad del niño, que no puede desarrollarse más que por una disciplina que conduzca a la liberación de sus potencias espirituales.
- Los estudios deben dar curso libre a los intereses innatos del niño y que encuentran su expresión en las diversas actividades de orden manual, intelectual, estético, social, etc.
- Cada edad tiene su carácter propio, y por eso la disciplina personal y la colectiva deben ser organizadas por los mismos niños con la colaboración de los maestros.
- La competencia egoísta debe desaparecer de la educación y ser sustituida por la cooperación, que enseña al niño a poner su individualidad al servicio de la colectividad.
- La coeducación que persigue la Liga se entiende como educación en común de ambos sexos, para que puedan colaborar y ejercer sobre el otro una influencia positiva.
- La Educación Nueva prepara en el niño no sólo al futuro ciudadano capaz de cumplir sus deberes hacia su prójimo, su nación y la humanidad en su conjunto, sino también al ser humano, consciente de su dignidad de hombre.

En 1915, Ferrière publica los treinta principios del BIEN[2]. A partir de la síntesis de estos principios, Ferrière propone una descripción de la Escuela Nueva que él denominó programa mínimo:

La Escuela Nueva es ante todo un internado familiar situado en el campo, donde la experiencia personal del niño es el fundamento tanto de la educación intelectual —en particular por el recurso a los trabajos manuales—como de la educación moral mediante la práctica del sistema de la autonomía relativa de los alumnos (en Marín Ibañez, 1976, p. 34).

Para poder llamarse Escuela Nueva, los centros solicitantes debían cumplir al menos quince de los treinta principios. Solamente una escuela, la de Odenwald, en Alemania, los cumplía todos.

Casi todos los centros que solicitaron su adhesión al movimiento en los primeros años eran privados. Los centros públicos lo hicieron algo más tarde. Lorenzo Luzurriaga, uno de los máximos representantes del movimiento en España, distingue cuatro tipos de centros dentro de la Escuela Nueva:

[1] Los siete principios de adhesión y fines de la Liga Internacional de la Educación Nueva pueden consultarse en Ferrière, 1972. Aquí los presentamos de manera resumida.

[2] Los treinta principios pueden consultarse en Ferrière (1972). Marín Ibáñez ofrece un buen resumen en el siguiente enlace http://goo.gl/Zrafkf.

- Las escuelas Nuevas propiamente dichas, que eran privadas.
- Las escuelas experimentales, ligadas a la universidad y que se servían de práctica. Creadas por la influencia de Dewey. Casi todas se situaban en EEUU.
- Las escuelas activas, inspiradas por los creadores de estos nuevos métodos educativos que servían como centro de experimentación de los mismos.
- Las escuelas de ensayo y reforma, que eran centros públicos en los que se llevaba a cabo alguna experiencia renovadora (Luzurriaga, 1958, p. 11-12).

Observamos, de este modo, como el movimiento tomó formas diferentes en sus distintos contextos contribuyendo así a la pluralidad que mencionábamos anteriormente. En julio de 1922, la revista *Pour l'ere nouvelle* publicó una lista de las escuelas que cumplían, al menos las 15 condiciones mínimas necesarias que definían el movimiento: dieciséis en Inglaterra, seis en Francia, ocho en Suiza, catorce en Alemania, una en Suecia, una en Holanda y diecinueve en EEUU. "La cifra es ciertamente reducida, pero su influjo sobrepasó el ámbito de instituciones, formalmente adscritas al movimiento" (Marín Ibañez, 1976, p. 26).

2.3. La Escuela Nueva vs la escuela tradicional

Como hemos visto hasta ahora, la Escuela Nueva surge como reacción contra el sistema de enseñanza tradicional imperante hasta el momento. A pesar de que, como apunta García García (1990, p. 2), resulte "demasiado simple y artificioso reducir la cuestión a la oposición entre lo tradicional y lo nuevo", nos parece interesante detenernos un momento a analizar las diferencias entre la escuela tradicional y la Escuela Nueva.

Ferrière llega a calificar a la escuela tradicional de "anomalía y monstruosidad" (1972, p. 36) y afirma que:

> Muchos grandes hombres, si no todos, que han conseguido una gran situación en la vida, llegaron a ser lo que son, no debido a la escuela, sino a pesar de ella y fuera de ella. Sus maestros los calificaban de malos alumnos. (1972, p. 20)

Es decir, la escuela tradicional, desde el punto de vista de Ferrière, no solo no contribuye al desarrollo del individuo, sino que lo obstaculiza.

Los métodos de enseñanza que utiliza la escuela tradicional no consiguen la motivación de los estudiantes sino más bien todo lo contrario: "Las escuelas aplican el *principio de la incompetencia* sirviéndose de un tedio cotidiano, acompañado de infusiones de lógica abstracta, de gramática, de clasificaciones científicas, o de fechas históricas en altas dosis" (Ferrière; 1924, p. 25). El resultado, concluye Ferriére, es agotamiento que deriva en mediocridad.

Ferrière hace hincapié en cómo la escuela tradicional no tiene en cuenta los intereses del niño sino todo lo contrario, intenta imponer un régimen opuesto a lo que el niño demanda. Lo explica de la siguiente manera:

> (…) todas las vidas de los niños caen bajo su yugo, a todas las sujeta y las moldea, y permanecen bajo su acción horas meses y años enteros. En donde reinaba la alegría de vivir, la escuela hace que reine la inquietud. Donde imperaba el regocijo, se impone la gravedad. En lugar del movimiento espontáneo exige inmovilidad; en lugar de los gritos y las risas, el silencio. (1972, p. 13)

Asimismo, Ferrière critica el parcelamiento de las materias y los estudios, la inadecuación a la capacidad de los niños, el excesivo número tanto de materias como de lecciones en un mismo día, en fin, el desfase entre la escuela tradicional y los intereses del niño:

La escuela tradicional -escribe Ferrière- parece suponer que todos los niños se interesan por igual en todas las materias de la enseñanza, y para nada toma en consideración las diferencias individuales o de grupo. Los programas y métodos tradicionales ahogan la energía, el impulso vital del niño y consigue justamente lo contrario de lo que se proponen. Los programas de la escuela tradicional están estructurados conforme a una racionalidad ajena a la mentalidad infantil. Esto conlleva que se exija al alumno la memorización de conocimientos sin sentido (García García 1999, p. 30).

La Escuela Nueva ofrece una alternativa. Como hemos visto hasta el momento, uno de los pilares sobre los que se asienta la Escuela Nueva es el paidocentrismo; es decir, la escuela centrada en el niño, en oposición al magistrocentrismo que existía en la escuela tradicional. Tal y como lo expone García García:

El fin esencial de la educación es propiciar la actividad centrada en el niño; la que parte de la voluntad y de la inteligencia personal para desembocar en un enriquecimiento intelectual, moral y espiritual del sujeto. No debemos pues, presionar al alumno, sino estimularle para que actúe, ponerle en condiciones apropiadas. Esta es la base de la Escuela Activa (1999, p. 30).

La escuela tradicional centraba el aprendizaje en el maestro, quien debía proporcionar normas y directrices, castigar comportamientos considerados negativos, y tomar todas las decisiones sobre el trabajo en el aula. Sin embargo, la Escuela Nueva se centra en el niño y se fundamenta en su actividad, en sus intereses y necesidades (Del Pozo, 2002 p. 199). La Escuela Nueva quiere dar voz al alumno, escucharle y dejarle tomar decisiones con respecto a su aprendizaje. El papel del profesorado aquí es el de orientar y motivar en lugar de imponer porque uno de los objetivos fundamentales es fomentar la autonomía del alumno:

La autonomía contribuye a desarrollar a la vez la personalidad del alumno y su espíritu de solidaridad. Pero ni autonomía ni reciprocidad pueden lograrse en una atmósfera coactiva y autoritaria, pues, para su formación misma, ambas necesitan la experiencia vivida desde la libertad de investigación. Sin ellas, dice Piaget, la adquisición de cualquier valor humano, no pasa de una mera ilusión (Palacios, 1984, p. 45).

Piaget sostiene que la autonomía es cualidad esencial para el desarrollo de valores en el individuo. La reforma pedagógica que supuso la Escuela Nueva, entre otras cosas, a través de la promoción de la autonomía, persigue la búsqueda del hombre completo a través de la educación. Poco a poco, este antropocentrismo dio lugar a la concentración "en aspectos sociales cuando percibieron que la reforma pedagógica podría ser el origen de la transformación política. Preparar para la vida no es ya solo preparar para la edad adulta sino una mirada hacia el futuro con propósitos transformadores" (Del Pozo, 2002, p. 200).

Palacios resume las diferencias entre ambos tipos de escuela de la siguiente manera:

La escuela clásica prolonga excesivamente la tutela del adulto sobre el niño, tanto en lo intelectual, por el dogmatismo con que se imparten los programas, como en lo moral, por la disciplina ejercida arbitrariamente y ex cathedra por el maestro. Por el contrario, para la Escuela Nueva, así como el trabajo personal realizado sobre los hechos es la condición de progreso intelectual, la disciplina personal nacida de las acciones y reacciones en el medio social de la escuela es la condición del progreso moral; con este objeto, la escuela nueva instituye el régimen de autonomía de los escolares, reunidos en una pequeña "república escolar" (Palacios, 1984, p. 34).

A pesar de que hoy en día no existen ya centros de Escuela Nueva con las mismas características de aquellos primeros, sí es posible encontrar las ideas básicas del movimiento en currícula, en la metodología y en la manera de organizarse de muchos centros. Los ideales de la Escuela Nueva están presentes en el común haber de la educación en la segunda mitad de siglo. Marín Ibañez (1976, p. 39-40) comenta que hoy en día es difícil encontrar alguna corriente educativa, tanto en Europa como en América, que no encuentre reflejados sus ideales en la Escuela Nueva. Además, en los últimos años está surgiendo un renovado interés por recuperar y reinterpretar el movimiento.

La herencia que nos deja la Escuela Nueva se ve reflejada de manera práctica en cuatro aspectos fundamentales (Marín Ibañez, 1976, p. 39-40). En primer lugar, en el valor de los métodos de trabajo intelectual y la oposición al enciclopedismo. En segundo lugar, en la relevancia que los planes de estudio actuales dan a la Educación Física, fundamental en la Escuela Nueva puesto que era la manera de contribuir a la educación de una generación sana. El tercer aspecto importante es el paidocentrismo, que, a partir del movimiento de la Escuela Nueva, ha sido importante dentro de todas las corrientes pedagógicas. Por último, cabe resaltar el papel de la participación activa en la escuela por parte de los alumnos a todos los niveles.

Ferrière se mostraba crítico con los métodos activos y con la evolución de metodologías surgidas a partir de la Nueva Escuela, como el método Montessori o el Plan Dalton (Ferrière, 1982, p. 18): "Los métodos activos son un procedimiento más, uno entre muchos otros, para que los alumnos asimilen un programa fijado de antemano y que recibe el nombre de *materia de examen*". Para Ferrière, la Escuela Nueva era un concepto mucho más amplio, un organismo (Ferrière, 1982, p. 14), y todas estas metodologías posteriores no cumplen con los principios del movimiento. Sin embargo, gracias a la existencia de la Escuela Nueva, se produce el cambio en el paradigma educativo que ha dado lugar a la aparición de las Metodologías Activas, que, a pesar de que no reflejan por completo los principios de la Escuela Nueva, sí que persiguen promover una enseñanza en la que el aprendizaje impere sobre la enseñanza, en la que el alumno sea el protagonista del proceso y se atienda a sus intereses y necesidades; donde la promoción de la autonomía sea la fuerza catalizadora del trabajo y donde, como fin último, el alumno logre desarrollar competencias y no solo conocimiento.

La Escuela Nueva se centraba en el niño; sin embargo, las Metodologías Activas se utilizan hoy en día en todas las etapas educativas desde educación infantil hasta educación superior. Los principios básicos de la Escuela Nueva que conducen al desarrollo de las Metodologías Activas son extrapolables a cualquier nivel o a alumnos de cualquier edad.

3. METODOLOGÍAS ACTIVAS

3.1 Definición

Como se ha mencionado anteriormente, la enseñanza basada en Metodologías Activas es una enseñanza centrada en el estudiante, en su capacitación en competencias tanto específicas, de una determinada disciplina, como transversales. La literatura sobre el tema parece estar de acuerdo en una definición sencilla del término: "Active learning is generally defined as any instructional method that engages students in the learning process. In short, active learning requires students to do meaningful learning activities and think about what they are doing" [3](Bonwell, 1991, p. 2). Estos autores resumen la investigación sobre el tema y concluyen que el aprendizaje activo contribuye a mejorar la actitud de los estudiantes, su pensamiento y su expresión escrita.

Labrador y Andreu proponen una definición muy similar. En su opinión, las Metodologías Activas son: "Aquellos métodos, técnicas y estrategias que utiliza el docente para convertir el proceso de enseñanza en actividades que fomenten la participación activa del estudiante y lleven al aprendizaje" (2008, p. 5).

Meyers y Jones (1993, p. 6) inciden también en la misma idea: "active learning involves providing opportunities for students to meaninfully talk and listen, write, read, and reflect on the content, ideas, issues, and concerns of an academic subject"[4]. Se trata de convertir al alumno en un pensador dinámico, de sacarle de la pasividad que solía imperar en el aula tradicional.

En esta misma línea, enfatizando el papel protagonista del alumnado en el proceso, Johnson, Johnson y Holubec sostienen que: "Aprender es algo que los alumnos hacen, y no algo que se les hace a ellos. El aprendizaje no es un encuentro deportivo al que uno puede asistir como espectador. Requiere la participación directa y activa de los estudiantes" (1999, p. 5).

[3] [El aprendizaje activo se define generalmente como cualquier método de instrucción que involucre a los estudiantes en el proceso de aprendizaje. En resumen, el aprendizaje activo requiere que los alumnos lleven a cabo actividades de aprendizaje significativas y que piensen sobre lo que están haciendo]
[4] [el aprendizaje activo implica aportar al alumnado oportunidades para que hablen y escuchen, escriban, lean y reflexionen sobre el contenido, las ideas, los temas y las preocupaciones de una asignatura académica]

Baro Cálciz (2011, p. 8) completa estas definiciones planteando la respuesta a varias preguntas. ¿Qué enseñan las Metodologías Activas? Las enseñanzas de las Metodologías Activas, tal y como promulgaban los pedagogos de la Escuela Nueva, deben estar basadas en los contenidos que el estudiante considere interesante; el aprendizaje debe ser significativo. ¿Cómo enseñan las Metodologías Activas? A través de la manipulación de los contenidos, de la elaboración y transformación del material objeto de conocimiento. Con respecto al tiempo, la autora propone flexibilizarlo dependiendo del ritmo de aprendizaje de los alumnos. Los espacios de enseñanza pueden, asimismo, flexibilizarse. Cualquier entorno es válido si contiene los estímulos necesarios.

Benito y Cruz (2007, p. 21) proponen cinco objetivos principales de las Metodologías Activas. En primer lugar, y volviendo a la idea principal que hemos encontrado en las definiciones, el alumno debe asumir un papel más activo en la construcción del conocimiento y hacerse responsable de su proceso de aprendizaje. En segundo lugar, resulta importante que los alumnos tengan la oportunidad de establecer interacción con sus compañeros; el intercambio de opiniones y experiencias es otro de los objetivos principales que el docente debe tener en cuenta.

El desarrollo de las estrategias meta-cognitivas del alumno es igualmente importante. El papel de la reflexión en el proceso de aprendizaje es clave dentro de las Metodologías Activas. El alumnado debe ser capaz de planificar, monitorizar, auto-evaluar y fijar objetivos; es decir, pensar sobre lo que hace, cómo lo hace, cuáles son los resultados y las posibles medidas que debe tomar para mejorarlos.

Además, se propone también como objetivo la interacción con el entorno, con el fin de intervenir social y profesionalmente en él. Se destaca la necesidad de que el aprendizaje debe tener lugar en el contexto de problemas reales de la práctica profesional o de la realidad actual (Sáez, 2011, p. 8). Actividades propias de estas metodologías, tales como el aprendizaje a través de proyectos, problemas o el estudio de casos ayudan a conseguir este objetivo.

Por último, en la línea del aprendizaje por competencias, se fija como objetivo el desarrollo "de la autonomía, el pensamiento crítico, actitudes colaborativas, destrezas profesionales y capacidad de autoevaluación." (Benito y Cruz, 2007, p. 21).

Para conseguir estos objetivos, las distintas Metodologías Activas trabajan de diferente manera. Sin embargo, podemos encontrar elementos comunes a todas ellas (Johnson, Groh y Allen, 2000). La primera característica que mencionan los autores citados es el escenario, que establece el contexto sobre el que se trabajará. En segundo lugar, aparece el trabajo en grupo. Como ya hemos mencionado anteriormente, la interacción con los compañeros y el intercambio de ideas y opiniones es uno de los objetivos principales de las Metodologías Activas. El trabajo en grupo, consecuentemente, ayudará a conseguirlo. En tercer lugar, encontramos el aprendizaje por descubrimiento. El enfoque constructivista que subyace bajo estas metodologías propone la construcción del conocimiento por parte del alumno como forma de lograr un aprendizaje completo. De esta forma, el alumno necesariamente debe asumir un rol activo dentro del aula. Por último, y teniendo en cuenta una vez más los objetivos que se persiguen, podemos observar cómo todas las actividades propuestas dentro de cualquier metodología activa están basadas en el mundo real.

Fernández March (2006, p. 54) señala cuales son las condiciones mínimas que garantizan la utilización de Metodologías Activas. Lo primero que sugiere la autora es que debe darse al alumno una situación compleja como punto de partida. A partir de ésta, el alumno debe elaborar un producto observable y evaluable. La última condición es que el estudiante es el agente activo de este proceso y el profesor no es el actor principal, aunque sí tiene un papel importante como guía y recurso.

Podríamos concluir diciendo que las Metodologías Activas son aquellas que requieren que los alumnos lleven a cabo actividades que estimulen su aprendizaje. Estas actividades incluyen, entre otras, lectura, escritura, resolución de problemas, planteamiento de preguntas o debates. Actividades, todas ellas, en las que el alumno debe estar implicado de manera activa. El énfasis reside en el reconocimiento y exploración de las habilidades y destrezas del alumno, en su sistema de valores, sus procesos mentales, su forma de pensar y su capacidad para expresarse.

3.2. Tipos de Metodologías Activas

Existen muchas metodologías que reciben el calificativo de activas puesto que proponen un tipo de aprendizaje que reúne las características mencionadas anteriormente. Entre ellas, podemos encontrar: el Contrato de Aprendizaje, la Lección Magistral Participativa, la Técnica Expositiva, la Simulación, el Aprendizaje a través de Casos, el Aula Invertida, el Aprendizaje por Proyectos, el Aprendizaje Cooperativo, el Aprendizaje Basado en Problemas y el Aprendizaje a través de Portfolios.

Todas las Metodologías Activas presentan características comunes. Mencionaremos, de manera somera, algunos de estos rasgos para contextualizar el estudio del aprendizaje a través de las mismas. En primer lugar, y tal y como se apuntaba en el epígrafe dedicado a la definición de Metodologías Activas, es importante destacar el papel que juegan alumnos y profesores.

Hay que reiterar el papel protagonista y responsable que el alumno asume cuando trabaja con Metodologías Activas. Asimismo, puesto que en la mayoría de los casos se trabaja en grupo y se promueve la interdependencia positiva entre los alumnos, estos deben adquirir habilidades que faciliten la interacción, entre las que se encuentran: ser capaz de gestionar los conflictos que surjan durante el desarrollo de las tareas a realizar y, a la vez, mostrar una actitud receptiva hacia el intercambio de ideas entre pares puesto que, a través del intercambio de información, los alumnos podrán aprender unos de otros. El alumno, a través del trabajo cooperativo, irá ganando en autonomía y adquiriendo las estrategias necesarias para planificar, controlar y evaluar su aprendizaje (Servicio de Innovación Educativa, 2008, p. 12).

Con respecto al profesorado, las Metodologías Activas promueven un profesor que permita al alumno asumir ese papel protagonista, ofreciéndole diversas oportunidades de aprendizaje, sirviendo de guía, ayudándoles a pensar de manera crítica durante el trabajo en el aula y a través de tutorías. Es importante también que el profesor sea consciente de los logros de sus estudiantes. (Servicio de Innovación Educativa, 2008, p. 12).

Otro rasgo común a las Metodologías Activas es el papel de la evaluación. En todas ellas se propone un modelo de evaluación continua, de evaluación del proceso más que del resultado. Morales y Landa (2004, p. 155) explican cómo es importante tener en cuenta el aporte individual, así como el producto final generado por el grupo. Es importante también que exista co-evaluación y autoevaluación, que los alumnos aprendan a evaluar a sus compañeros y evaluarse a sí mismos, que puedan evaluar qué aspectos del proceso podrían mejorarse la próxima vez.

3.3. Las Metodologías Activas dentro del sistema educativo español. El EEES

El sistema educativo español propone la incorporación de Metodologías Activas en todos los niveles. Así, aparece en la Orden ECD/65/2015,[5] por la que se describen las relaciones entre las competencias, los contenidos y los criterios de evaluación de la educación primaria, la educación secundaria obligatoria y el bachillerato:

> Para potenciar la motivación por el aprendizaje de competencias se requieren, además, Metodologías Activas y contextualizadas. Aquellas que faciliten la participación e implicación del alumnado y la adquisición y uso de conocimientos en situaciones reales, serán las que generen aprendizajes más transferibles y duraderos. Las Metodologías Activas han de apoyarse en estructuras de aprendizaje cooperativo, de forma que, a través de la resolución conjunta de las tareas, los miembros del grupo conozcan las estrategias utilizadas por sus compañeros y puedan aplicarlas a situaciones similares. (Orden ECD/65, 2015)

De manera específica se citan el en Anexo II (p. 18) el trabajo por proyectos, el aprendizaje basado en problemas, el estudio de casos y se recomienda el uso de portfolios educativos.

Con respecto a las universidades, debemos, en primer lugar, mencionar la Declaración de Bolonia y la creación del Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior (EEES) que han supuesto un cambio profundo en los planes de estudio, la metodología y la organización de las universidades a nivel europeo. La declaración de Bolonia fue la elaborada por los ministros de educación europeos en 1999. Su finalidad era conseguir los siguientes objetivos comunes en un plazo de diez años:

- Adopción de un sistema comparable de títulos, basado en dos ciclos principales
- Expedición del suplemento europeo al título
- Establecimiento de sistema de créditos transferibles, que incremente la transparencia, la colaboración entre universidades y el aprendizaje en cualquier momento y país de la UE.
- Promoción de la dimensión europea en la educación superior, con especial énfasis en la calidad medida a través de criterios y metodologías comparables

[5] El texto completo se encuentra disponible en el siguiente enlace: https://goo.gl/D4FDJP.

- La promoción de la movilidad de los estudiantes, investigadores y profesores.

En el año 2000, la Comisión de las Comunidades Europeas reflexiona sobre la necesidad de un cambio metodológico en la enseñanza que dé respuesta a las necesidades actuales. Se apunta ya aquí que el cambio debe estar enfocado hacia los estudiantes, que deben pasar a ser los protagonistas del proceso:

> A medida que nos internamos en la era del conocimiento, van cambiando nuestros conceptos de lo que es el aprendizaje, de dónde y cómo se realiza y para qué sirve. Confiamos en que los métodos y contextos didácticos reconozcan y reflejen una gama cada vez más diversificada de intereses, necesidades y expectativas (…) esto implica un giro drástico hacia sistemas didácticos centrados en el usuario, con fronteras permeables entre sectores y niveles. Para que los individuos puedan aprender activamente es preciso mejorar las prácticas actuales y desarrollar enfoques nuevos y variados. (2000, p. 15)

En 2010 se establece el Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior (EEES), cuyas prioridades son:

- La adopción de un marco de titulaciones compatibles y comparables
- Establecimiento de sistemas de evaluación de la calidad siguiendo estándares internacionales recomendados por la *European Association For Quality Assurance in Higher Education* (ENQA)
- Reconocimiento de titulaciones y períodos de estudio mejorando los procedimientos también de títulos conjuntos (Benito y Cruz, 2007, p. 12-13).

Estos acuerdos, tomados a nivel europeo, se contextualizan en cada país de manera diferente. En España, el Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (2006, p. 4) reconoce que: “el sistema universitario español debe emprender una profunda reforma en muchos aspectos, en concreto, en la estructura y organización de las enseñanzas y en las metodologías de enseñanza aprendizaje, de forma que respondan a las demandas de la sociedad actual”.

A su vez, la Ley Orgánica de Universidades, dedica el título XIII al EEES[6]. En 2007, se publican Reales Decretos sobre el Suplemento Europeo al Título, sobre los créditos ECTS, sobre los estudios de grado y postgrado y un conjunto de documentos elaborados por el Ministerio de Educación en los que se indica que no va a existir un catálogo oficial de títulos, sino que las universidades propondrán sus titulaciones a partir de unas directrices generales.

El diseño de los nuevos planes de estudio requiere también un replanteamiento metodológico:

Diseño de un nuevo sistema docente de carácter más interdisciplinar, integrador y constructivo, que poco a poco empieza a implantarse en universidades. La llegada de EEES supone cambios importantes en los estudios universitarios y nos obliga al rediseño inminente de las asignaturas de los planes de estudios. Este nuevo diseño nos obliga a cambiar tanto los contenidos como la metodología (Sáez, 2011, p. 6).

[6] El título completo puede consultarse en el siguiente enlace: https://goo.gl/z1FnlA.

El EEES se concibe como agente de cambio profundo que debe promover en las universidades una reforma desde su raíz. No se trata de una variación simplemente en los contenidos, sino que es necesario y deseable que el cambio afecte a la forma en que se adquieren los mismos:

El diagnóstico de la situación actual podría sintetizarse afirmando que la reforma de las metodologías educativas se percibe como un proceso que es imprescindible abordar para una actualización de la oferta formativa de las universidades españolas, y que de hecho está ya de alguna forma en marcha, lo que no es óbice para que el mismo concite todavía no pocas incertidumbres. El proceso de construcción del Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior (EEES) se percibe como la oportunidad perfecta para impulsar una reforma que no debe quedarse en una mera reconversión de la estructura y contenidos de los estudios, sino que debe alcanzar al meollo de la actividad universitaria, que radica en la interacción profesores-estudiantes para la generación de aprendizaje (Comisión para la Renovación 2006, p. 7).

Así pues, la mayoría de las universidades españolas puso en marcha planes de comunicación y formación del profesorado, así como planes piloto de adaptación al EEES cuyo objetivo era ir introduciendo paulatinamente los elementos del nuevo panorama educativo: los créditos ECTS, los programas de tutoría y seguimiento académico, la adopción de métodos activos, etc.

En este marco cobra una gran importancia el diseño, implementación y evaluación de diferentes metodologías de carácter activo e innovador, que proporcionen una formación diversificada, vinculada a la realidad de la práctica profesional, que favorezcan el aprendizaje activo y autónomo del alumnado, y a su vez, el desarrollo de aquellas competencias de carácter general o transversal o específicas de su ámbito de especialización que faculten al alumnado para el ejercicio de su cualificación profesional, y para un aprendizaje a lo largo de la vida (Álvarez et al., 2009, p. 1084).

El informe que redacta la CRUE afirma que las metodologías de trabajo más comunes en la universidad son la clase magistral, el seminario, la tutoría y la clase práctica y que sería aconsejable incluir alguna metodología más, recomendando especialmente las Metodologías Activas:

> La teoría (…) tiene que convertirse en el soporte de un sistema de aprendizaje autónomo por parte del estudiante bajo la tutoría del profesor. Consecuentemente, con un mayor peso de las Metodologías Activas, este sistema debe permitir a los estudiantes adquirir determinadas competencias genéricas específicas. (Sáez, 2011, p. 4)

Fernández March (2006, p. 39) resume el nuevo modelo educativo destacando algunas de sus características: debe ser un modelo centrado en el aprendizaje, concretamente centrado en el aprendizaje autónomo del estudiante. Debe tratarse además de un modelo centrado también en los resultados expresados en forma de competencias. Asimismo, este nuevo modelo requiere una nueva definición de las actividades de aprendizaje y el trabajo cooperativo entre profesores y alumnos. La organización del aprendizaje a nivel institucional también sufre cambios, puesto que se presenta de manera modular y con espacios curriculares multi- y trans-disciplinares. El trabajo del estudiante se mide en créditos

ECTS y se evalúa de manera formativa. Por último, no debemos olvidar que las Nuevas Tecnologías (TICs) adquieren un rol importante puesto que facilitan versatilidad en el aprendizaje.

El EEES persigue el desarrollo de perfiles académicos basados en competencias. Villardón las define de la siguiente manera:

> (…) un saber hacer complejo resultado de la movilización, integración y adecuación de conocimientos, habilidades y actitudes, utilizados eficazmente en diferentes situaciones. El objetivo formativo, por tanto, supone la adquisición de conocimiento, el desarrollo de habilidades y la capacidad de aplicar estos recursos de forma adecuada a cada una de las situaciones que se presenten. (2006, p. 60)

Como puede observarse, los objetivos académicos planteados en forma de competencias son ambiciosos y suponen el desarrollo de distintas capacidades y destrezas. El objetivo final es conseguir que los estudiantes sean "activos, autónomos, estratégicos, reflexivos, cooperativos y responsables" (Fernandez March, 2006, p. 39).

4. CONCLUSIONES

Las metodologías docentes deben ir más allá de la clase magistral y permitir la generación del conocimiento frente a la habitual transmisión del mismo: las denominadas Metodologías Activas en las que el estudiante ocupa un papel protagonista, puesto que es él (guiado y motivado por el profesor) quien se enfrenta al reto de aprender y asume un papel activo en la adquisición del conocimiento (Benito y Cruz, 2007, p. 16).

Estas competencias dejan claro que es necesario un cambio en la metodología docente. El EEES implica un cambio en el paradigma educativo de la enseñanza superior. Frente a enseñar contenidos, la universidad debe ahora enseñar a aprender. Los contenidos dejan de ser el centro de la clase, ahora lo son los alumnos. Frente a una formación técnica, se quiere conseguir una formación integral. Estos nuevos objetivos parecen requerir el empleo de una metodología diferente a la tradicional:

Resultaría imposible garantizar que nuestros alumnos aprendan a comunicar si en nuestras enseñanzas no hay espacio para que ellos expongan trabajos o elaboren informes. No aprenderán a planificarse si solo planificamos nosotros. No aprenderán a seleccionar, manejar e integrar la información si nunca consultan otras fuentes que no sean nuestros apuntes o un libro de texto. (Benito y Cruz, 2007, p. 16)

Formar en competencias es cuestionarse la manera de organizar y llevar a cabo los procesos de aprendizaje. La tarea del profesor, consecuentemente, va más allá de exponer conocimientos a través de una clase magistral: "la tarea fundamental del profesor es enseñar al estudiante a aprender a aprender, ayudar al alumno en la creación de unas estructuras cognitivas o esquemas mentales que le permiten manejar la información disponible, filtrarla, codificarla, categorizarla, evaluarla, comprenderla y utilizarla pertinentemente" (Fernández March, 2006, p. 41).

Estas competencias recuerdan a aquellas que los pedagogos de la Nueva Escuela proponían. La formación integral del individuo, la promoción de autonomía, el alumno como centro del proceso, el desarrollo de estrategias y competencias en lugar de la memorización de contenidos, etc. Aunque tanto el contexto como la edad de los aprendices sean muy diferentes, es posible apreciar la influencia de aquellos principios de la Escuela Nueva en la enseñanza universitaria, que hoy en día se está intentando implementar.

Queda claro que el cambio es necesario y las Metodologías Activas en el aula universitaria parecen responder al modelo de enseñanza que el EEES persigue. "Consecuentemente, se hace obligada y necesaria una revisión de metodologías docentes, las cuales deberán estructurarse en torno a un trabajo más cooperativos, orientado al trabajo activo del alumno, que estimules su participación, independencia, creatividad y trabajo en equipo" (Sáez, 2011, p. 5).

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ESCAPE ROOMS FROM A COLLABORATIVE AND INTERDISCIPLINARY PERSPECTIVE

ESCAPE ROOMS CON PERSPECTIVA INTERDISCIPLINARIA Y DE COLABORACIÓN

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Abstract

Foreign language teaching should always be interwoven with new technologies and new advances that are proposed in the education world and they should include some of the current challenges that are not always obvious in classes. The three challenges that this paper aims to explore are the emotional aspect, the limited connexion among foreign language teaching and the rest of subjects and competitiveness among students. As a proposal to aim these objectives, we will propose for high school students "escape rooms" as they have been considered a powerful tool in education. However, the new element that we would like to incorporate in this educational experience is the creation of an "escape room" along with teachers from other subjects. The results showed students eager to participate and really focused on the fulfilment of each activity. They were able to revise different subjects while using English as the main language.

Key Words: escape rooms, second foreign language, emotional aspect, relationship among subjects, competitiveness.

Resumen

La enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras debería estar siempre unida a las nuevas tecnologías y nuevos avances que se proponen en el mundo de la educación y deberían incluir algunos retos actuales que no siempre están presentes en las clases. Los tres retos que este artículo explora son el aspecto emocional, la escasa conexión de la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras con otras asignaturas y la competitividad entre alumnos. Como propuesta para conseguir estos objetivos, proponemos para alumnos de instituto las "escape rooms" consideradas como herramienta poderosa en educación, incorporando como nuevo elemento su elaboración junto con los profesores que imparten otras materias. Los resultados mostraron estudiantes deseosos de participar y muy concentrados en cada actividad. Pudieron revisar distintas asignaturas al mismo tiempo que utilizaban como lengua principal el inglés.

Palabras clave: escape rooms, segunda lengua extranjera, aspecto emocional, relación entre distintas materias, competitividad.

1. INTRODUCTION

The new changes in the society are critical for understanding the emerging trends in education. With the proliferation of information and communication technologies, we are facing multiple challenges when it comes to educators so we must be able to try new and effective modern teaching experiences and to make the necessary changes to stay up-to-date.

As Castells (2018) affirmed, the education system grapples with an outdated teaching method that should offer students the possibility to deal with new education environments as nowadays they must face at different and challenging situations due to the society in which they are living. Teachers and professors, we want to "escape" from the outdated teaching methods and take this all a step further. To cope with this new emerging reality, new trends in education are to be experienced and evaluated.

In this article, we would like to present some difficulties that educators find in their daily routine and although there are many approaches and there is no fixed formula or single absolute method, we would like to propose "escape rooms" in order to face the following obstacles.

1.1. Difficulties and proposal

Despite the substantial progress observed in education (Flecha García 2011), several difficulties remain a challenge for teachers and professors.

When reflecting on the difficulties in teaching a foreign language, it appears important to draw a clear distinction between embodied and not embodied languages. Conforming to Pavlenko (2007), in the embodied languages, an emotional content appears whereas in the not embodied languages this emotional content is not so eminent (e.g. in the classroom). The new language taught in class has never been considered as the most emotional language as a priori, the emotional aspect was not as prevalent as in other circumstances. We strongly believe that the emotional aspect should always be present and motivations, as several authors claimed, are part of it. Bearing in mind all these authors that will be explained in the coming section and being our firm belief that the emotional aspect should never be sidelined, new strategies including motivation and emotional content are to be incorporated in the field of education. These new elements to be taken into account would allow a better acquisition of the second language.

Many schools and universities offer independent subjects or study courses (Rosell Puig, Más García & Domínguez Hernández 2002). Accordingly, another significant feature to be raised is the need of duties that involve working in teams and incorporating and mixing approaches from distinct subjects in a unique project work. This is yet another directive which lays bare the incomprehension formulated by students about the weak linkage among subjects.

The last characteristic included in our reflection covers competitiveness. Shindler (2009:3) quoted "The power of its effect makes its use very tempting. Little else gets a group of young people more energized than competition". However, although competition should always be motivating, it sometimes turns into something destructive. That is the reason why competitiveness cannot either be forgotten. Our idea is not to avoid it because it will surround students all their lives. As teachers, it is duty bound to consider competitiveness from another angle.

Nowadays, we are facing with more interactive and collaborative technological environments (Amberg, Reinhardt, Haushahn & Hofmann 2009). Bearing that in mind and believing that escape rooms are a promising topic of interest in foreign language learning, students will play an escape room with the objective of revising different subjects.

Among the broad array of proceedings that can be carried out in classes in order to solve the above-mentioned challenges, escape rooms seem to be a valuable tool. Escape rooms are games which are usually played in a locked room or a building and players must solve heterogeneous assignments (physical or mental) in order to escape. Participants must work together and try their best as tasks will demand various abilities. Escape rooms are believed to begin in Japan in 2007 although the origins of this game have not been well certified. What it is being continuously documented is the impact and scope that they have in the educational world (Stone 2016; Ontario Escape Room Unconference; Nicholson 2018). Therefore, it is our firm belief that escape rooms or escape games will enhance students understanding of the knowledge at the same time that they include a deep emotional content. Nevertheless, our new perspective will combine various subjects throughout the whole escape room what will help students work on their sense of empathy and lower their level of competitiveness.

The project presented here consists on an educational experience in Secondary Education that aims at continuous improvement in Teaching Methodology. It could also be carried out in a Higher Education or University context. All in all, this activity will entail a wide range of factors needed not only for learning a foreign language but also for fostering students' outstanding assets such as collaboration, problem solving and critical thinking. Accordingly, the following objectives were foreseen for the current experience as follows.

1.2. Objectives

The main objectives for this educational proposal are related to the difficulties already explained.

- To incorporate the emotional content in an English class.
- To enable the interest of different subjects to be married in the same class.
- To lower the competitiveness level among students.
- To use the second language as the language in order to communicate and to strengthen new vocabulary from other subjects in this foreign language.

The question at issue is the English learning together with other subjects' knowledge. Each teacher will decide the level that needs to be achieved depending on students. For this experience and taking into account the level of high school students who will be playing this escape room, the level will be B2. As reported by the Cambridge English scale, in this level, students must be able to hold the conversational partner's attention and to communicate straightforward ideas (Cambridge English Language Assessment 2015).

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As previously stated as difficulties, never let it be forgotten motivation in the second language teaching. This is evidenced by the large number of authors that investigated this topic.

In 1985, Krashen used the expression “affective filter” in his famous *Monitor Model*. For him, the more a student is self-confident, the more he will be eager to produce and create new things. Years later, Pavlenko (2002) in *Bilingualism and Emotions* saw the attitude, motivation and other emotive factors towards the second language as crucial. Paradis is another author to be mentioned as he stated: “Motivation also encourages practice” (2004:223). According to that, students will be eager to practice new content in a new language if they are more motivated. The same author declared in 2007 that a positive emotional attitude will enable a better acquisition of the second language. We could continue with other authors that also dealt with this issue. However, we will name Fen & Kiat who reported, “motivation is known as a stimulant for achieving a specific target” (2015:24). In the same line, the research made by Pourfeiz (2016) showed that a student positive attitude toward learning a second language is central for language achievement.

Taking into account all these authors and regarding this feature, that is motivation and the emotional aspect, we believe that games will always incorporate the emotional aspect that must be included in class. In this experience, escape rooms will be considered as games as they comprise all the requirements established by Klopfer, Osterweil & Salen when reflecting on gaming: “constitutes the sum total of activities, literacies, knowledge, and practices activated in and around any instance of a game” (2009:7). Moreover, following Nicholson (2015:30), “Escape rooms create a moment of passion around specific topics that then can be used as the spark to then ignite interest in something for a player to learn more about later”.

Moving on to the next item, that is, the limited connection among foreign language teaching and the rest of subjects, we should mention that we are not referring to CLIL here. We are referring to a traditional educative system that has been mainly composed by independent subjects without any interdisciplinary connection (Rosell Puig, Más García & Domínguez Hernández 2002). With this educational proposal, we are not trying to change subjects in order for them to interlock with one another. The objective is to make students know that what they can learn in one subject can be useful for another one. Conforming to Sicherl-Kafola & Denacb (2010), this approach will foster the emotional and motivational development of the student as the same time that the quality of the acquired knowledge will be emphasized.

Regarding competitiveness, we should mention that students will also see the game as a way to reflect and discuss about a particular subject or area and as the space devoted to a greater understanding of the knowledge. Students will see their partners as a help rather than as a competitor since they will be working peer to peer. That will lead them enhance empathy, what is crucial for today’s students. According to Jones, Weissbourd, Bouffard, Kahn, & Ross (2014), empathy provides benefits such as higher academic achievement, better communication skills and also more classroom engagement. In line with that, Santos, Chartier, Whalen, Chateau, & Boyd (2011) considered empathy as the best antidote to racism and bullying. When working together, students will be able to make the shift from "me" to "we".

This kind of learning involves students working with others and providing each other with assistance to cope with a specific situation. Students will acquire an active voice as they have to comment their points of view. In addition, they will shape their ideas by listening to others' opinion and receiving feedback and all this will ensure a consensus. These tasks are usually emotionally demanding. Nevertheless, they will hold the key to future growth. In the same line Shindler (2009:2) stated that "group members will change the way they regard one another. The competitive condition encourages them to view their fellows less as peers or members of a learning community and more as instruments to be used to reach the goal".

Furthermore, students will take dissimilar roles, from leader to follower, novice to expert (Gee 2003). In some assignments, they will be experts and they will have to solve the exercise. However, in others, they will be the novice and other students will lead the exercise. In that way, nobody could get excluded or ignored. This will force them to try on different identities that will guide them to forge and perfect their own identity. Shindler (2009:2) wrote "some combination of personality dominance and individual level of competence will define the values of the process, inevitably marginalizing weaker and less skilled team members." As reported by Schwartz (1999), it has been considered not only as an effective way of teaching but also learning. An effective teamwork will permit communication within groups and strengthen individual identities. Each individual identity will help to foster communal identities too. In an age fraught with feelings of disconnectedness, this experience will boost students' engagement and will connect them to their peers as they will be free to express their opinions, to seek practical solutions for their needs and to engage in debate. Students will have to work on their ability to accept and tolerate others' opinion and to solve differences in order to reach an agreement. Not only should students learn strategies and competences but they also should make effective use of them. This feature will entwine with the other aspect of our proposal, games and escape rooms so we will briefly expose some ideas about these concepts.

Conforming to Leigh Smith & MacGregor (1992), the collaborative learning garnered more interest in the 1990s so it should not be assessed as recent. Nonetheless, what it is spreading right now is the new ways to develop and adapt the collaborative learning to new contexts; it is a nascent idea. Bearing in mind the difficulties that hamper teachers, collaborative learning should be placed. In agreement with Leigh Smith & MacGregor (1992:2), "in most collaborative learning situations students are working in groups of two or more, mutually searching for understanding, solutions, or meanings, or creating a product". In the same line, Dean, Hubbell, Pitler & Stone (2012) estimated that cooperative learning would enhance empathy skills since listening to others is a must in this kind of learning.

For its part and although there were diverse opinions with conflicting findings (Plass, Homer & Kinzer 2014), games have had their heyday in the last years as they were assessed as an engine that produces and creates something new. Escape rooms will be considered in this article as a game. The common concerns related to games center around an assumption that games normally have a win state. That means that internalizing and revising concepts could become unimportant for students as their main priority would be winning. We could get a complete but sloppy work. Nonetheless, in the escape rooms, the victory consists on knowing how to obtain the next hint or to escape the room and for that reason; the work must be done correctly as it could be the answer to the following clue. The fact of including escape rooms as a game has a consolidated and firm basis on what Klopfer, Osterweil & Salen (2009) claimed. They believed that in games, students will exercise freedom along five distinct axes, that is, freedom to fail, freedom to experiment, freedom to fashion identities; freedom of effort and freedom of interpretation. Furthermore, games have been judged to be more effective that boring lectures and with a lot of potential in the educational world (Plass, Homer & Kinzer 2014).

Escape rooms have taken off recently and they were fueled by companies focused on leisure and free time activities. Nevertheless, its incorporation in the field of education has enabled educators and professors to keep students engaged and motivated (Cambridge University Press 2017). Escape rooms have been included in education and they are enjoying a considerable growth (Stone 2016; Ontario Escape Room Unconference; Nicholson 2018). However, our new perspective for this article is the fact of including different subjects as an asset to work toward a common good.

3. METHODS

Escape rooms have already been used in education. However, as previously mentioned, the new proposal of this article is to gather tasks that involve knowledge from several subjects. In order to do that, teachers should meet and reach a consensus about the exercises to be accomplished and the scope of the escape room itself. The objective is to assimilate content in a modern and different way so that knowledge is better comprehended. This escape room will lead students to the previous knowledge already acquired in lessons. That will follow one of the principles of the scaffolding strategies, that is, tapping into prior content area and connect it to the future (Alber 2014). Therefore, this escape room will be used as a way to revise for a possible exam. Escape rooms have been also considered as valuable tools to revise content (Dorado Escribano 2019).

This kind of escape room might be played by any students as the level and difficulty will be established by educators and they know their students and their level. In this experience, the escape room will be played by high school students who belong to heterogeneous branches (Science and Letters) so a large variety in every group will be shown.

Indicative outline:

1st step: Teachers meet in order to reach a consensus about the scope and the different activities that students will have to carry out in order to escape from the class.

On the one hand, educators will have to decide the number of assignments depending on the length of their escape room. On the other, they have to bear in mind materials and places for these tasks. Some of the ideas for the elaboration of this escape room include puzzle, locks (directional, alpha, digit, etc.), decrypt messages, hidden objects, searching for items in odd places, searching for objects in images, lights, pattern identification, black light pens, riddles, ciphers without a key, secret codes, sounds, mirrors, abstract logic, lockable containers or zippered pouches, research using information sources, mazes, physical agility, UV flashlights, shape manipulation, magnets, piece together parts, smell or taste, etc. Some of these ideas have been extracted from Nicholson (2015).

The employed methodology will consist on a collaborative learning project that will take into account the scaffolding strategies needed in a classroom. For this reason, the activities in the game will be similar to those carried out in class with teachers (Alber 2014). It is significant that educators know the level of their students in every subject. Accordingly, the tasks should be challenging but feasible. If assignments are too difficult, it could be counterproductive and students must be frustrated.

In this step and for the implementation of this methodology, a first teachers meeting will be held in order to establish the main topic of the educational experience through a brainstorming of ideas. A further meeting will set the content that is going to be revised and activities with a more detailed description.

As reported by Nicholson (2016), escape rooms can follow a theme around which all tasks are organized. The main topic of this escape room is an island. It is the final year for students in the high school and they go in a field trip to this island. The objective is to escape from it through the fulfillment of several exercises. They do not know in which island they are and they must guess it from the activities that they have to carry out.

Throughout the escape room, students will have to deal with the following assignments:

- Industrial Technology: Students will have to complete a crossword in less than 5 minutes. In the crossword, they will find various definitions of the materials studied in this subject. Ex. Polymer that absorbs energy when it is folded. The letters that are not used in the crossword will have a message in order to find the next clue. The message will specify that they have to find the words of the definitions around the classroom. When they find the cards with the words, they will find a QR code that will lead them to the other tasks.
- Math, Biology and Drawing: Students will have to resolve an operational puzzle. Students will have to join operations with their answers in order to make the puzzle. Once the puzzle is done, they will realize that behind the puzzle, there are two different pictures. One picture is a plant that they have studied; the other picture is a cell. The image of the plant is the hint in order to know in which island they are. They can use computers to look for information and the password to log in is the diameter of the cell.
- Computer Technology: Students will have to translate some binary codes to English language related to computer parts and then point these parts out on a printed paper.
- Economy and Philosophy: Teachers will create an audio with the voice of a man speaking against the slavery. It will be a philosophical framework in which terms such as risk premium, unemployment rate or inflation will be heard. Students should write down all the words related to economy and if they are correct, they will get a decrypt message with the name of the man speaking: Victor Schoelcher, an influential French politician known by the struggle against slavery in the Guadeloupe Island. That would be another hint in order to guess the island in which they are.

- French and History: Teachers will create a kahoot in French with questions related to the topics that the students are studying in class, in this case, empires, wars, republics, etc. Some questions will also refer to the island they must guess. The island is a French island (the Guadeloupe Island) with a lot of history; that is the reason why this task combines French and History as they have studied this island in both subjects.

2nd step: The first thing not to be forgotten in this step is the number of students that will be playing the escape room.

Educators will create the groups by dividing students according to subjects. Hence, in each group, there will be a student who studies a different optional subject bringing a distinct perspective that will be shared with the rest and it is through this conversation that they will learn (Golub 1988). This will help the project to have diversity of students, another specificity of collaborative learning. Within this aspect, the cooperative learning will appear as this kind of learning is based on the social interdependence. Every group will have to work together in order to maximize the learning of all members of the group (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec 1999). In the same line, Leigh Smith & MacGregor (1992) reported some essential elements that should never be shelved in the cooperative learning. One of them is the positive interdependence that will be strengthened as every student contributes to the collaborative project.

This educational experience has taken place in a high school class which consists of thirty-three 16-year-old students. There will be six groups with five or six students. Teachers made the division bearing in mind that each group should be formed by different students studying heterogeneous optional subjects.

3rd step: Explanation to students.

Educators will explain the scope of this educational proposal. They will clarify rules and guidelines that students must follow throughout the escape room. They will also justify the need of assessment through rubrics for this activity. We will describe them further down.

For this explanation, the English teacher was the person in charge and she clarified it in one of her lessons. The description was in English as it should be the language used throughout the whole project.

4th step: Development of the escape room.

All exercises and assignments must be prepared and placed in advanced. The teachers involved in the creation of the escape room should be present in order to verify that the development of the activity is the right way forward.

For the implementation of this educational experience, a period of two consecutive hours will be needed. In the students' schedule, on Tuesday, they have French followed by History so teachers decided to carry out this educational proposal on Tuesday. Some other educators were released at that time in order to assist the French and History teachers.

Students might get stuck on an activity. For this reason, every group will have a "help card" that they can use once during the game. If a group is not able to solve a task, they might ask for assistance to any other groups. If the students in other groups know the answer, they will explain the exercise in order to let them know how they should have carried it out and one and all should reflect on results. This will decrease the competitiveness as they will need other students in order to achieve the final goal. They will realize how important the help of others is.

Teachers prepared all tasks in the languages classroom and they decorated it trying to create the atmosphere (Nicholson 2016) of an island: posters, sound, sand, etc. They tried to recreate an island scene. There were different groups and each teacher was in charge of one of them. All groups had the same exercises but the order was not the same. That prevented them not to be in the same assignment at the same time.

The escape room started at 09h10 and lasted until 11h on Tuesday. Students arrived to the languages room and were observing the scenery at the same time that they were listening to some sounds (sound of the sea, exotic birds, native languages, etc.). When all the students were in the classroom, a video was played as an introduction of the escape room (Nicholson 2016). In the video, it was explained the theme and the "problem" that they had to solve, that is, to guess the island where they were and to escape.

5th step: Evaluation of the escape room through rubrics.

It seems appropriate to mention that the ability to make judgments has recently become a major issue. It refers to the ability to analyze and evaluate information and make a reasoned decision which will empower students' critical thinking. By groups, students will have to assess two dissimilar aspects. On the one hand, students will have to value the escape room itself. They have to learn to make constructive comments that could help educators to improve the work. On the other, they will have to evaluate themselves as a group. Students must be aware that what a person in a group does might affect the rest of partners.

This will follow another scaffolding strategy – give time to talk (Alber 2014) and in order to do that, some rubrics will be provided by teachers. Now, it seems worthwhile to clarify briefly the elements that should be assessed. We will start with those related to the escape room itself and subsequently, we will move to the aspects regarding the appraisal of students' job in the escape room.

Assessment of the escape room itself:

- Scope: Were students unable to understand the scope or was the scope adequately, competently or skillfully defined?
- Organization: Organization could be valued as ineffective, effective with errors or effective. Organization should be logical, clear, well prepared and rehearsed.
- Thought and creative thinking: Students will estimate if the escape room showed creativity or there was a lack of it. That could include sensory stimulation.
- Media: The effective use of new technologies will be assessed, that is, visual aids and multimedia (images, computers, mobile phones, videos). These new technologies should

support the presentation by adding interest and impact and should assist students in understanding the scope of the escape room.
- Amusement/Enjoyment: Was the escape room able to captivate students or did it make them bored?

Assessment of the group's job:

- Participation: Are students unengaged with tasks, mostly engaged or eager to work and find a solution? Participation will be evaluated by their listening skills, that is, whether or not the student listens to others and contributes to the dialogue or, on the contrary, if the student needs encouragement or reminder as he does not initiate contribution. Attitude (positive for learning) will also be assessed.
- Communication: The aim is to consider if the group made an effective use of the speaking skills, that is, clarity, volume, pace, etc. The fact of being slow, stumbling, hesitant or smooth and effortless will be appraised. Students are also valuated depending on the correct use of the language learnt in class (appropriate terminology); if they do it in a clear way, in the correct context and whether or not their vocabulary is rich and precise. Comments will be also borne in mind (insightful, constructive, etc.)
- Use of English (grammar, pronunciation etc.): They will be judged taking into account if they are difficult to understand, slightly unclear or clear at all times. They will be also appraised by the persistent errors, few errors or an outstanding use of English that they might have.
- Time Management: Do students adhere to the allocated time limit? Waste of time or excellent use of time will be assessed.
- Amusement/Enjoyment: Were they able to amuse throughout the escape room? Aspects such as entertainment, fondness and liking would be evaluated.

Regarding the assessment values, different types could be chosen. This will guide teachers to explain students' expectations. Words can be used, that is, normally adjectives such as excellent, good, etc. Another type is numbers, that is, numerical values that calculate the level of performance. All in all, students will be asked to show their knowledge in diverse subjects and also essential requirements such as collaboration, the capacity to solve complex challenges or the ability to make judgments. For other kinds of escape room, in which students will be asked to create their own escape room (Dorado Escribano 2019), not only the previous mentioned requirements will be necessary but others such as mature, productivity, analytical thinking, originality or systems-thinking.

For this educational experience, the following words were chosen: 1. *NA*. 2. *Developing*. 3. *Proficiency*. 4. *Distinguished*. Concerning the evaluation of the escape room itself, four aspects were estimated as *Distinguished* by more than 80% of students: scope (96%), media and amusement/enjoyment (84%) and thought/creative thinking (81%). The organization obtained 69% of the students who valuated as *Distinguished* and 30% who believed it to be *Proficiency*. In relation to the appraisal of the group's job, results revealed almost all the characteristics to be *Distinguished* by more than 80% of students, that is, participation and time management (100%), amusement/enjoyment (90%) and communication (87%). The only feature that obtained lower results was the use of English with

75% of the students who appraised it to be *Distinguished*. The rest of students in both assessments selected the option *Proficiency* and none of the students chose *NA* or *Developing*.

6th step: Educators meeting
Teachers will have a meeting in order to assess the strengths and limitations of this educational experience. They will use the rubrics completed by students in order to have their point of view. Following these rubrics, we will first refer to the assessment of the escape room itself and subsequently the evaluation of the groups' job will be provided.

Students highlighted a lot of strengths in the assessment of the escape room itself. The scope was skillfully defined, that is, they were given a profound explanation about the program and what was expected from them. They maintained that the creativity was shown throughout the whole project. They appreciated the sensory stimulation while the fulfillment of the activity (sound of the sea, exotic birds, native languages, etc.). Media was also highly assessed. Images and sounds were also appearing while the performance of the different tasks so it was positively valued. They also enjoyed the fact of using their mobiles phones in order to scan the QR code. Finally, students enjoyed the activity and did not get bored. Regarding limitations, the aspect to be improved was the organization. Students considered that it was well prepared and it was effective although sometimes some groups were in the same assignment. Teachers reflected a lot about this issue in order to improve it for next time. The problem that we encounter is that we never know how much time each group will be in a specific exercise. Some groups were really quick and others needed more time. Before implementing the experience, we thought about giving a maximum execution time but the proposal was rejected as we thought that the escape room should not be so rigid.

Moving on to the next item, the assessment of the group's job, it should be pointed out that there were more strengths than limitations. Concerning the main strengths, participation was highly valued. Students were eager to work, contribute and find a solution for each problem. With regard to time management, students adhered to the allocated time. To conclude, they amused working as a group. Constraints include communication and use of English. Students were able to communicate with the appropriate terminology and they were clear at almost all times. However, the excitement of new hints and the desire to escape made them use the Spanish language sometimes.

3.1. Barriers

Barriers to education can take a variety of forms. Some are obvious while others are more subtle. In this article, we must recognize the barriers that, although not insurmountable, pose continued challenges for an experience with escape rooms. To name a few, we could find:

- Current educational system: In the present educational system, educators are demanded to follow a curriculum that should be completed by the end of the year.
- Attitudes: Games in educational environments are often not well regarded by some teachers, parents or students. Negative attitudes and stereotypes are also due to lack of knowledge and it can make this kind of experiences difficult.

- Timing: Lack of time to plan and implement. On the one hand, educators do not have time to prepare this kind of projects that require extra time. On the other, the time structure of classes does not always allow completing the entire game.
- Support from other teachers: Various teachers should be involved in this game by rendering assistance. However, lack of time or interest might do it more cumbersome to manage. Some of them might consider that there is a lack of balance between entertainment and education.

3.2. Success indicators

a) Success indicators for the escape room itself, that is, the fact of escaping the room.

The success of the project will not be possible if any of the individual challenges has not been overcome. Hence, the vital importance of the autonomy of all students and the confidence placed in every member of the group. It will give them a boost of confidence. All groups were able to escape from the classroom so the success of the escape room itself was obvious in all respects.

b) Success indicators for the success of the escape room as a cooperative learning activity.

As reported by some schools (e.g. colegio Artica in Madrid), in a cooperative learning, three questions must be answered in order to assure that the proposal will be successful.

- Does everybody participate? It can be documented that every student in the class has participated as some assignments could only be carried out by some students. As we explained in the methodology, groups will be done taking into consideration optional subjects. Therefore, not all students will know the content area of some exercises.
- Do they need each other? Every person in the group needs the others because not everybody studies the same subjects. Accordingly, when facing at a specific activity, in some cases, students are experts and in some others, they are novice.
- Can I verify the task? The task can be verified because they must escape from the class.

4. RESULTS

At the beginning, the paper presented a theoretical framework related to the main aims that we intended to fulfill with this educational proposal. The framework attempted to provide a deeply and reasonable justification regarding the axes of this article, emotions, limited linkage among subjects and competitiveness, some of the difficulties that educators find in their daily routine and that represent the main objectives of this paper.

Taking into account these aims, the results obtained are the following.

- To incorporate the emotional content in a class.

Students believed not be working while the fulfillment of this project. They were motivated and they did not want the experience to finish. One of the students' opinions was: "It was a nice activity because it wasn't something hard to do, it could help us to relax from other exams we had been doing".

- To enable the interest of different subjects to be married in the same class.

Teachers had the arduous task to think about exercises that could mix various subjects. Another student' opinion: "This was amazing and unique and I would like to repeat this in future because this helped me to improve my skills in subjects such as Biology, French or even English. This helped me to learn more about other subjects that nowadays I don't know for example Technical Drawing or TICS".

Students were more attentive to the fact of being the first to escape the room than to the fact of accomplishing the assignments in the correct manner. This could have had as a negative aspect the production of sloppy tasks. Nevertheless, in order to reach admission to the next stage, activities should have been completed properly so they were learning skills indirectly, they were working, revising and assimilating the content studied in class.

- To lower the competitiveness level among students.

The fact of including in each group a student with a distinct optional subject made this objective easy and clear. There were assignments in which two dissimilar subjects were interwoven so some students had not studied what it was asked in a part of the exercise. Therefore, students needed the collaboration of everyone in order to carry out the activity. One student said: "Another thing that I liked is that there were different subjects and every member of the group had one task to do".

Every student needed to make an effort by working quickly and actively in order to escape the room. They learnt how to cope with stress when everybody is counting on them and when time is at premium.

- To use the second language as the language in order to communicate and to strengthen new vocabulary from other subjects in this foreign language.

The use of English throughout the whole experience was a must and students were penalized with time if they were using Spanish. That made them speak in English or in French depending on the task that they were completing. According to the appropriate level for these students in this experience, that is, B2, students were able to understand abstract and concrete conversations or texts. Therefore, they interacted with fluency and spontaneity.

Apart from the main objectives, we have provided the results concerning the rubrics in which more strengths than limitations can be observed. Furthermore, other secondary aims have been achieved too. On the one hand and just to mention a few examples, we could refer to those secondary objectives related to students. Students were able to sharpen their decision-making; to learn how to concentrate when surrounded by noisy environments or situations; to improve the speed at which they can solve problems, to develop social skills and to make effective use of the collaborative learning and ICT in a language class. On the other hand and in a more general way, this educational proposal fostered student learning as well as student performance and it made students revise the content area with an original and attractive project.

Our findings so far have indicated that the challenges and objectives presented at the beginning of this article have been met. Several conclusions may be drawn from the results highlighted above.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Presented in this paper has been the case of educational escape rooms as a new trend in education. Having been displayed and analyzed some of the current and ongoing challenges ahead in foreign language teaching, we have proposed the escape rooms as a powerful tool in education. Needless to say, this is not the wand to all existing problems but it could be of great assistance. We could also add that we are no outlier in carrying out this kind of experience as there has been worldwide growth regarding escape rooms.

With reference to emotions and the "affective filter", we believe to be able to say outright that the escape room spurs students to do well as the emotional aspect is included in the class.

The second difficult item to be covered was the limited linkage among subjects. The escape room was formed by different activities and each one was related to a subject. However, there was a linkage among activities (or subjects) since the fulfillment of every assignment made students be closer to the ultimate goal.

Competitiveness is an element to be present as students have to compete against other groups in order to escape the room. Nevertheless, in this competitiveness, they will have to rely on their group members as there will be some tasks that not everybody in the group will be able to solve. Yet another viewpoint emphasized the teamwork and cooperation rather than competitiveness. Furthermore, failure (a meaningful characteristic in competitiveness) is a possibility that might take place and should take place in order to learn.

Escape room align with educational standards and student engagement is supervised (through the rubrics previously presented). They represent another way to gauge student understanding in a different and informal way, moving away from exams and formal ways to evaluate or revise. Thus, students will learn skills both directly and indirectly. Following the old adage, practice makes perfect, we were sure that, those students who had not yet acquired the content, would have the opportunity to learn it.

In conclusion, the foregoing analyses lead us to hypothesize that the potential of escape rooms is undeniable. Not only the main objectives stressed at the beginning of the article were fulfilled, other secondary and underlying targets have been achieved too. This kind of learning might have an impact in education as all the objectives were covered and it helped to enhance students' confidence.

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LAS TIC EN LA ENSEÑANZA DEL INGLÉS PARA FINES ESPECÍFICOS: UNA PROPUESTA METODOLÓGICA

ICTS IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: A METHODOLOGICAL PROPOSAL

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Resumen

Este trabajo muestra cómo se aplican las tecnologías digitales y/o móviles en un curso de enseñanza integrada de la lengua inglesa en contextos formales universitarios a distancia en la Universidad Nacional de Enseñanza a Distancia (UNED, Spain). En este trabajo se presentan los resultados obtenidos de cuatro proyectos de innovación educativa en el aula de inglés para fines profesionales., utilizando sobre todo la tecnología móvil. Se llevaron a cabo con los estudiantes de la asignatura de inglés avanzado B2 "Lengua Inglesa II" en el Grado de Turismo. El objetivo inicial es mostrar cómo la tecnología mejora el aprendizaje del inglés en el aula de lengua extranjera con fines específicos. El objetivo final es examinar los resultados obtenidos a partir de la implantación de unos proyectos que incluyen diversas herramientas TIC en sesiones de enseñanza integrada de contenidos con especial énfasis en la educación a distancia, en donde se promueve el aprendizaje de lenguas móvil, la colaboración, la revisión por pares, y la ludificación de la enseñanza.

Palabras clave: Inglés para fines específicos (IFE), aprendizaje (colaborativo) de lenguas móvil, ludificación.

Abstract

This paper shows how digital and/or mobile technologies are applied in a university course at a distance university in Spain, namely UNED (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia). In this work, four educational innovation projects are examined within the realm of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). They are mostly based on (mobile) technology and carried out over several semesters with the students of the course "English for Tourism II", from the Degree in Tourism. The initial objective is to shed light on some innovative technology-based learning projects in the ESP classroom. The final objective is to consider their positive results for future good practices, so that other teaching professionals can also implement them in their classrooms, especially in their distance training courses, by paying special attention to: mobile language learning, collaborative learning, and gamification,

Key Words: English for Specific Purposes (ESP), collaborative learning, mobile language learning, gamification.

1. INTRODUCCIÓN

La implementación de las TIC en el aula de inglés para fines específicos es muy diversa y compleja. El objetivo principal de este artículo es examinar una experiencia educativa basada en tareas, en las que se utilizaron algunas aplicaciones en línea con el fin de motivar a los estudiantes de inglés como lengua extranjera en el ámbito de la industria turística. De esta forma mostramos cómo se les puede hacer partícipes de su proceso de aprendizaje desde el principio, favoreciendo además su aprendizaje de forma notoria, tal y como se requiere en la enseñanza integrada de contenidos (Coyle, 2007).

Este trabajo consta de varias secciones. En primer lugar, se exponen los objetivos por los cuales se ha decidido realizar esta investigación, cf. sección 2. A continuación, se explica el marco teórico que describe la evolución de las herramientas TIC en los proyectos de enseñanzas de lenguas con fines específicos, donde se abordan algunas teorías de aprendizaje, junto con las características principales de la aplicación de las tecnologías, como marco principal de estudio de este trabajo, cf. sección 3. En las siguientes secciones, se exponen las líneas generales del trabajo, así como las técnicas de investigación junto con la descripción detallada de cada uno de los distintos proyectos implantados, cf. secciones 4 y 5. A continuación, se presenta el análisis de los resultados de los datos, tanto cuantitativos como cualitativos, cf. sección 6. Por un lado, se muestran los resultados obtenidos en cada una de los proyectos programados para este estudio; por otro lado, se debate la hipótesis de partida, cuyas conclusiones se encuentran en el apartado final destinado a la discusión y a las conclusiones finales., cf. sección 7.

2. OBJETIVOS

En su conjunto los proyectos que se describen en este estudio, pretenden mejorar la actividad docente, y, sobre todo, alcanzar los objetivos que se describen a continuación:

(1) Responder a la necesidad del alumnado de practicar las competencias requeridas en lengua inglesa de una manera práctica y lúdica a la vez.

(2) Promover el trabajo colaborativo y la evaluación por pares.

(3) Promover el desarrollo de las habilidades de producción escrita en inglés.

(4) Promover el desarrollo de la reflexión sobre el propio proceso de aprendizaje.

(5) Desarrollar una visión crítica y constructiva de su aprendizaje.

Para poder obtener conclusiones significativas, se diseñan una serie de tareas que trataban de responder a las siguientes preguntas de investigación:

(1) ¿Realmente la tecnología mejora el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera en la educación a distancia?

(2) ¿Para qué competencias son útiles las tecnologías móviles a la hora de aprender una segunda lengua?

3. MARCO TEÓRICO

El aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera ha pasado a tener un papel central en la industria turística y ha impulsado los mayores cambios en la metodología en los diversos programas educativos.

El primer paso para desarrollar un currículo académico que tenga en cuenta esta necesidad es la de contar con materiales de calidad, así como del empleo de las tecnologías de la información y de la comunicación (en adelante TIC) de forma óptima, y de un modo coordinado entre los miembros de los diferentes equipos de trabajo. Al mismo tiempo se trata de aplicar metodologías punteras sobre la enseñanza de lenguas a distancia, tanto mediante el ordenador como mediante el uso de todo tipo de tecnología móvil, entre la que destacan las tabletas, los teléfonos móviles inteligentes o *smartphones*, y otros dispositivos móviles como los *ipods*, entre otros (Bárcena y Read, 2008; Kukulska-Hulme et al, 2015 ; Martín Monje et al, 2015; Vázquez Cano et al, 2016; Martín Monje et al, 2018).

En la actualidad, las herramientas TIC se han convertido en un elemento nuevo e importante del plan de estudios universitarios, agregando un valioso conjunto de nuevos recursos y herramientas didácticas adecuadas para apoyar el proceso de aprendizaje. A pesar de que es muy diversa la aplicación de las TIC en el aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera, se requieren ciertas pautas, tales como la autoevaluación, la práctica didáctica, y la comunicación,(Talaván et al, 2010; Jordano et al, 2013).

En cuanto al enfoque de enseñanza, la didáctica de lenguas en la actualidad sigue un enfoque basado en la acción (Kiili, 2004) con un sentido lo más lúdico posible (Miller, 2013; Perrotta et al., 2013). Este enfoque, de tipo comunicativo, destaca en el Marco Común Europeo de Referencia (2001, en adelante MCER) y es el punto de referencia de este estudio, ya que se asumen conceptos claves para las nuevas metodologías en el aula, tales como el concepto de *tareas* y *proyectos* que apoyan el *enfoque basado en la acción*. De acuerdo con este enfoque, el profesorado no solo desempeña el papel de conocedor y transmisor de conocimientos, sino más bien actúa de guía que ayuda a explotar las capacidades de los estudiantes trabajando por competencias para que sean más autónomos, aprendan a aprender, a comunicarse, a tener iniciativa, y tener un uso responsable de las TIC. En esta misma línea, el aprendizaje basado en proyectos o tareas (*Task-based or Project-based learning*, en inglés), es conocido por presentar numerosas ventajas como se ha demostrado en varios estudios pioneros (Brown, 1994; Willis y Willis, 1996; Nunan, 2004). Este enfoque, junto con otros que favorecen el aprendizaje cooperativo (Kagan, 1992, Johnson et al, 1993), ofrecen metodologías activas de aprendizaje dentro del aula de segundas lenguas. Por todo ello, se ha decidido hacer uso de estas metodologías ya que no solamente parecen ser las más acertadas para la labor docente, sino también porque permiten desarrollar nuevos proyectos educativos en los que las TIC desempeñan un papel relevante.

4. METODOLOGÍA

En el marco de la enseñanza a distancia en la que se centra esta investigación, la infraestructura de los cursos virtuales es una pieza fundamental para el aprendizaje. En el área de la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjeras en la industria turística, en concreto, se incluyen una serie de tareas. Por un lado, se trata de promover el desarrollo de las habilidades metacognitivas (proyecto 1) y el aprendizaje autónomo y móvil (proyecto 2). Por otro lado, se propone la autoevaluación o evaluación por pares mediante la inclusión de un componente lúdico (proyecto 3). Además se incide en el aprendizaje colaborativo que permite, a su vez, el desarrollo de algunas habilidades comunicativas (proyecto 4).

4.1. Aprendizaje a través de tareas

En primer lugar, se desarrollan diferentes tipos de tareas en línea a lo largo de un curso de inglés como lengua extranjera a través de materiales auténticos de la práctica profesional de nivel avanzado B2 siguiendo las directrices del MCER. En concreto, se ofrecen unos contenidos adecuados con apoyo tecnológico apropiado para la enseñanza a distancia.

Es importante destacar que, la asignatura en la que se implantan estas tareas es la última asignatura de inglés para fines específicos dentro del Grado de Turismo, "Inglés II para el Turismo", y, por tanto, los estudiantes ya han desarrollado con anterioridad una serie de destrezas comunicativas en inglés como lengua extranjera.

En segundo lugar, se hace hincapié en el aprendizaje colaborativo de acuerdo con las tareas programadas. Para ello, se incluyen las herramientas TIC, dotando a los estudiantes de aquellas herramientas que fueran necesarias para poder interactuar con sus compañeros, dentro y fuera de los cursos virtuales. En tercer lugar, se trata de promover el trabajo autónomo y, finalmente, se establece la evaluación continua para observar la progresión del alumno, mediante diferentes pruebas, tanto de producción escrita, como de producción oral. Así se pretende valorar eficazmente el nivel de lengua exigido.

4.2. Proyectos

Se llevaron a cabo cuatro proyectos educativos con diferentes tareas en las que se debían utilizar algunas aplicaciones móviles: (1) cuestionario sobre la utilidad de los libros impresos frente a los libros electrónicos; (2) aplicación móvil de aprendizaje de lenguas; (3) programa móvil de gamificación *QStream*; y (4) autocorrección de textos turísticos utilizando Youtube. Por un lado, se lanzó un proyecto de seguimiento del material didáctico para la asignatura *English Grammar and Learning Tasks for Tourism Studies* (Escobar-Álvarez, 2011), material editado por la UNED en formato impreso y en formato de *e-book*. Se trataba, en primer lugar, de responder a un cuestionario para saber el tipo de formato que mejor se ajusta a las necesidades de los estudiantes y, en segundo lugar, de escribir un ensayo sobre las ventajas e inconvenientes de usar uno u otro formato. A continuación, se llevó a cabo un proyecto sobre la introducción de una aplicación móvil de aprendizaje de lenguas, llamada *VISP* (*Vídeos for SPeaking*). Además, se propuso un modelo de ludificación móvil mediante el uso del programa *QStream*, que permitió la evaluación de las competencias gramaticales y léxicas en los marcos del aprendizaje a distancia móvil y, finalmente, se llevó a cabo una tarea de autocorrección de textos turísticos en lengua inglesa de forma colaborativa a partir del visionado de varios vídeos en Youtube.

4.3. Recursos didácticos

4.3.1. Recursos del curso virtual

En la asignatura bajo estudio se maximizan las posibilidades del curso virtual con el fin de motivar a los estudiantes en el aula de segundas lenguas teniendo en cuenta la importancia de la motivación en el aprendizaje de adultos, como destacan algunos autores (Brown, 1994; Ellis, 1994; McMillan y

Schumacher, 2005). Por otra parte, se consigue la interacción entre los estudiantes así como su participación activa en el propio aprendizaje, como aspectos esenciales en la mayoría de los enfoques educativos que aplican presupuestos psicológicos sobre el desarrollo cultural del ser humano por medio del uso de instrumentos, (Vygotsky 1979, 1991), también corroborado por otras teorías como la teoría del aprendizaje significativo (Ausubel, 1968), o la teoría del aprendizaje por descubrimiento (Bruner, 1983).

4.3.2. El blog de la asignatura

El blog de la asignatura tuvo por objetivo crear un ambiente más distendido que el propio de la educación formal, en la línea del aprendizaje ubicuo o informal, de tal forma que los alumnos pudieran comunicarse entre ellos, con el equipo docente y con otras personas del mundo real sobre temas turísticos y viajes. Las entradas del blog fueron publicadas periódicamente, y los alumnos fueron invitados a dejar comentarios sobre las mismas. Estas entradas en general contenían poco texto y llevaron al alumno a visionar vídeos, de tal forma se intentaba promover el uso de las habilidades de comprensión oral al máximo. Todas las entradas del blog contenían, por tanto, material audiovisual.

5. DESCRIPCIÓN DE LOS PROYECTOS

5.1. Proyecto 1: Ebook versus printed book

Este proyecto consistió en recoger información sobre las preferencias de los estudiantes a la hora de estudiar una asignatura de Grado a través de un manual impreso o de un libro electrónico. El objeto principal del proyecto era doble: por un lado, conocer las preferencias y, por otro, motivar a los estudiantes a que pusieran en práctica su competencia escrita a través de una tarea concreta que les permitiera reflexionar sobre su propio estilo de aprendizaje.

5.2. Proyecto 2: Using a MALL app in the classroom, Vídeos for SPeaking (VISP)

El segundo de los proyectos docentes que se llevaron a cabo fue invitar a los estudiantes a probar una aplicación para el móvil, llamada *VISP* (*Vídeos for SPeaking*) de fácil acceso y simple manejo. VISP es una aplicación de aprendizaje de inglés a través de dispositivos móviles, desarrollada y diseñada por docentes de la UNED y de la Universidad de Gante dentro del marco de trabajo del grupo de investigación ATLAS (http://atlas.uned.es), y que se basa en el uso de la audio-descripción (una modalidad de traducción audiovisual para personas con discapacidad visual) para crear tareas auténticas en las que el usuario se convierte por unos minutos en audio-descriptor y hace las tareas que le competerían en tal caso: introducir un comentario auditivo, aprovechando los huecos en silencio entre diálogos, para describir lo que ocurre en la pantalla. Por el momento, VISP está diseñado para alumnos de un nivel B1 o B2, y el clip seleccionado para la primera versión es de unos 30 segundos. En concreto, son los minutos 4:12 a 4:46 de la película *Moulin Rouge*. Esta aplicación pretende ayudar a los estudiantes de inglés a mejorar su producción oral (léxico, fraseología, y sintaxis), a través de la audio descripción de un clip, una tarea comunicativa en contextos profesionales auténticos. Tras una breve descripción de los principios básicos de esta metodología se cuantifican los datos obtenidos de los *pre*- y *post*- cuestionarios y de sus audio-descripciones por parte de los propios estudiantes (Ibáñez Moreno y Vermeulen, 2015).

5.3 Proyecto 3: El aprendizaje lúdico y la herramienta QStream

Para poder practicar el enfoque lúdico y ver los resultados que tiene en el aprendizaje, se puso en marcha una Red de Innovación docente denominado "La metodología *Q-Stream* en el aula de inglés como segunda lengua: Evaluación de las competencias gramaticales y léxicas en los marcos CALL y MALL". Durante un periodo de seis semanas, se llevó a cabo el lanzamiento del proyecto y la puesta en marcha del mismo. Para motivar la participación, se anunció el proyecto a través de los foros y del tablón de anuncios. En sendos canales se emitió una vídeo-conferencia explicativa, en la que se mostraban brevemente las bases para participar e interactuar a través del empleo de una herramienta lúdica de aprendizaje evaluativo denominada *QStream*. De este modo,. los estudiantes pudieron recibir instrucciones claras sobre la herramienta y sobre como llevar a cabo la tarea final. En definitiva, se trataba de que pusieran en práctica sus conocimientos léxico-gramaticales mediante el uso de una herramienta en línea adaptada tanto a los dispositivos móviles como al ordenador, teniendo en cuenta una planificación detallada de cada una de las tareas que se debían realizar semanalmente.

En definitiva, se trataba de responder las siguientes cuestiones que afectan directamente al desarrollo de este proyecto:

(1) ¿Qué tipo de competencias (léxica, gramatical, expresión escrita, comprensión escrita) incide más en el uso de la herramienta *QStream* dentro de la asignatura "Inglés II para Turismo" de acuerdo con sus cometidos?

(2) ¿Es adecuado el trabajo colaborativo en grupo para evaluar las destrezas en la lengua extranjera en el ámbito de la enseñanza a distancia?

(3) ¿Qué dispositivo electrónico utilizan más los participantes: s*martphones*, tabletas u ordenadores, *e-readers* o *ipods*?

La puesta en marcha de este proyecto piloto tuvo bastante buena acogida entre los estudiantes. Inicialmente mostraron si interés en participar 27 estudiantes, aunque solamente completaron finalmente el proyecto un número más reducido de 16 estudiantes. El proyecto puso en práctica una serie de tareas, entre las que destacan un cuestionario inicial individual, una tarea central por parejas, un cuestionario final y una prueba escrita de evaluación global.

5.4 Proyecto 4: "Autocorrección colaborativa"

Con el fin de indagar en el trabajo colaborativo y autoaprendizaje de los estudiantes, se lanzó finalmente una segunda red de "auto corrección de textos". Con esta red se pretendía introducir al alumno en la evaluación por pares de la redacción de textos turísticos en lengua inglesa, incidiendo en la revisión de la gramática y en la promoción de la competencia léxica. Así, se consiguió que los estudiantes debatiesen sobre la redacción de los textos publicitarios a partir de un anuncio con vídeo promocional sobre Islandia, *Inspired by Iceland*, de libre acceso en Youtube.[1]

A través de un entorno colaborativo virtual, los participantes, por parejas de forma aleatoria, debían escribir un texto en el que contaran de forma divertida, pero correcta y precisa, lo que veían en el vídeo, en unas 150 palabras. A continuación, unas parejas debían corregir a otras y, una vez recibida cierta retroalimentación sobre sus errores, el equipo docente debía publicar todas las redacciones con las correcciones pertinentes. Finalmente, todos los participantes pudieron votar por el mejor texto, aduciendo argumentos como corrección gramatical, uso correcto del vocabulario, fluidez comunicativa, etc. Además, tuvieron que completar un cuestionario de satisfacción en el que se les preguntaba si la tarea y el trabajo colaborativo les habían ayudado a mejorar su producción escrita en inglés como lengua extranjera para fines específicos.

5. RESULTADOS

6.1 Ensayo: Ebook versus printed book

Los resultados de este estudio en los que los estudiantes debían escribir un ensayo sobre los materiales de estudio fueron muy relevadores. En primer lugar, la mayoría de los participantes (81%) indicaron que preferían estudiar las asignaturas con manuales impresos, ya que el uso de libros electrónicos presentaba para ellos las siguientes tres desventajas:

(1) Dificultad a la hora de escribir notas al lado de los párrafos seleccionados (89%)

(2) Dificultad en pasar páginas (68%)

(3) Precio de los soportes de los libros electrónicos (90%)

Por otra parte, se observó que casi la mitad de los estudiantes (43%) mostraron sus preferencias por el empleo de los libros electrónicos en las asignaturas donde se deben desarrollar actividades eminentemente consultivas, como pueden ser los libros de gramática, para la consulta de algún fenómenos gramatical, los glosarios, para la búsqueda de nuevos términos o las guías de redacción académica, para la búsqueda de determinados formatos textuales.

En cuanto a la corrección en de sus escritos, los estudiantes que participaron cometieron errores gramaticales esperados debido a su nivel intermedio de inglés. Ninguna de las composiciones enviadas fue calificada como notable, lo que indica que quienes participaron querían poder ejercitarse en esta competencia escrita con el fin de aprender de sus propios errores, ya que se les ofreció a todos ellos la corrección de dichas composiciones antes de la evaluación final del curso.

Finalmente, la mayoría de los alumnos que participaron en este proyecto obtuvieron mejores calificaciones que aquellos que no lo hicieron. Estos resultados apoyan la hipótesis de partida de esta investigación: el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua a través de tareas en las que las TIC desempeñan

[1] URL: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=npawmHVaf-E

un papel relevante al ser mucho más prometedor que aquellas otras tareas en las que se basan en otros enfoques menos innovadores donde el estudiante tiene una actitud más pasiva.

6.2 VISP (Aplicación móvil Vídeos for SPeaking)

Fueron pocos los alumnos que se presentaron voluntarios, a pesar de haber anunciado esta actividad voluntario de varias formas: a través de una vídeo-conferencia, en el tablón de noticias y en los foros. De hecho, completaron todo el proyecto solo dos estudiantes, quienes, no obstante, se mostraron muy satisfechos al final del mismo. Para poder examinar el tipo de ensayo derivado de esta tarea se incluye la grabación de una estudiante, que se pasa a analizar a continuación:

> *Dark side of the Moulin Rouge at night, followed by a young black haired man, sitting in a dark room, in front of a typewriter, crying, with his hand in his forehead. The words on the paper come to life: "The woman I loved…" He makes a pause, and looks out of the window across the street, while the words start coming, and so he begins his story: "I first came to Paris, one year ago".*

Desde el punto de vista lingüístico, el texto es impecable. El discurso hablado de la estudiante también fue muy natural. Los únicos errores mostrados están relacionados con las propias técnicas de la audio-descripción: demasiadas palabras (76) para un clip de 31 segundos, debido a que también se incluyó la voz de la protagonista en el guión audio-descrito. Se dice a los usuarios, en las instrucciones, que no describan sonidos ni nada ajeno a la actividad, pero aún así, este error es muy común entre los estudiantes, como se muestra en otros estudios anteriores (Ibáñez Moreno y Vermeulen, 2013).

En cuanto a los resultados del post-cuestionario, donde ambas estudiantes llevaron a cabo su auto-valoración, destacan las siguientes valoraciones:

(1) Estudiante A: "Mis oraciones son más cortas que éstas."

(2) Estudiante B: "Creo que describí casi lo mismo, pero de una manera diferente, con mis propias palabras, aunque no sabía que era en París (aunque debí haberme dado cuenta fácilmente) y tampoco sabía que su nombre era Christian."

Con respecto a la estudiante en (1), no se puede comprobar lo que dice porque no grabó su tarea pero, con respecto a la estudiante en (2), que sí la grabó, se pudo comprobar lo que afirma. En resumen se puede concluir que esta vez la estudiante B muestra altas habilidades metacognitivas. Además, su comentario sobre el hecho de que no podía conocer los nombres propios es correcto.

Con respecto a las respuestas obtenidas sobre la satisfacción de la tarea llevada a cabo, las dos estudiantes dieron respuestas muy positivas, ya que marcaron 5, en una escala del 1 al 5 ,en la mayoría de los casos. Por tanto, se puede concluir que dicha tarea les ayudó a ambas estudiantes, sobre todo, a la hora de tomar conciencia sobre la importancia del empleo del vocabulario apropiado para cada tipo de acto de comunicación, así como para reflexionar sobre el propio proceso de aprendizaje del idioma.

6.3 QStream: una aplicación (móvil) de autoaprendizaje.

En general, cabe destacar el enfoque lúdico de este proyecto. Además se puede confirmar que el aprendizaje basado en el juego a través del uso de las aplicaciones móviles y digitales de forma controlada en el aula de segundas lenguas resulta muy motivador y, por tanto, facilita el aprendizaje.

En la tabla 1, se muestran las calificaciones obtenidas por los dieciséis estudiantes que completaron la evaluación continua. El examen contaba al 70% mientras que el 30% correspondía a la evaluación continua de los diferentes proyectos. Hay que destacar que solo se añadió un máximo de 0,5 puntos a tres estudiantes que no participaron en todos los proyectos pero mostraron interés en el tercer proyecto. Se trata de los estudiantes, cuyas iniciales llevan asterisco en la tabla 1.

Estudiante	Examen (70%)	Evaluación Continua (30%)	EX+ EC	Calificación Final
JMAV	6,4	3	9,4	9,6
MCUC	5,6	2	7,6	8
AM	3,1	2,6	5,7	6,5
MGG	4,5	1,6	6,1	7
EUT	4,5	2,4	6,9	7,4
NMB*	7,5			8
ESM*	8,4			9
MGM	4,3	1,1	5,4	5,5
MALA	1,7	2,1	3,8	5
MN	3,4	2,4	5,8	6
LCM	5,4	2,6	8	8,5
MPAP	4,5	1,5	6	6,5
SMD	5	2,7	7,7	8
MCBR	6,7	2,9	9,6	10
RLU*	6,6			7
CJMD	3,2	2,3	5,5	6
TOTAL NOTA MEDIA del grupo experimental			6,9	7,4

Tabla 1. Resultados en las pruebas finales del grupo experimental

En la tabla 2 se muestran los resultados de otros 16 estudiantes del mismo grupo elegidos de forma aleatoria y que, por tanto, constituyeron el grupo de control para poder establecer una comparación de resultados. Como se puede ver, la calificación final del grupo experimental fue más alta que la del grupo de control ya que en el primer caso la calificación final está incrementada con 0,5 puntos por la motivación mostrada y el trabajo realizado en este tercer proyecto. Además, si no se tiene en cuenta este incremento en la calificación final, la nota media (6,9) del grupo experimental en la Tabla 1 sigue contrastando con la nota media (4,9) del grupo de control de la Tabla 2.

Estudiante	Examen (70%)	Evaluación Continua (30%)	EX + EC	Calificación final
PMAB	5,6		5,6	5,6
MAAG	2,7		2,7	2,7
JPAG	3,1		3,1	3,1
APAE	2,7	0,8	3,5	3,5
EUT	4,5	2,4	6,9	7,4
VAR	4,3		4,3	4,3
CAG	4		4	4
NAV	3		3	3
EAV	3,7	2,3	6	6
CIAB	5,1	1,3	6,4	6,4
MAB	6,2	1,3	7,5	7,5
EAD	3,9	2,6	6,5	6,5
MMAH	3,6		3,6	3,6
JMAG	5,7			5,7
RLU	3,1			3,1
LAG	3,2			3,2
TOTAL NOTA MEDIA del grupo de control			4,9	4,9

Tabla 2. Resultados en las pruebas finales del grupo de control

Finalmente, en la Tabla 3 se muestra la calificación final global de los estudiantes que se presentaron al examen final en otros dos grupos donde no se desarrollaron ninguno de los anteriores proyectos. Si la media de estos grupos en la Tabla 3 se compara con la del grupo experimental en la Tabla 1, se obtiene una gran diferencia (5,2 frente a 6,9).

TOTAL NOTA MEDIA GENERAL	Grupo 3	Grupo 4
5,2	5	5,4

Tabla 3. Nota media global

Por tanto, podemos concluir que las calificaciones de los estudiantes que participaron voluntariamente en este proyecto vieron significativamente mejoradas sus calificaciones. Probablemente esto se deba a que estos estudiantes estaban más motivados a aprender con nuevas tecnologías, lo que además supuso obtener mejores resultados.

6.4. Autocorrección colaborativa de un vídeo turístico.

Los datos de este proyecto, en el que los participantes valoran su utilidad, son de naturaleza cualitativa. Al realizar un cuestionario de satisfacción, el 87% de los participantes respondieron que sus habilidades de producción escrita habían mejorado tras participar en la tarea, un 76% de los participantes argumentaron que su vocabulario había aumentado, y un 86% de los participantes respondieron que el trabajo colaborativo había sido una manera muy útil para avanzar y ser conscientes de su propio aprendizaje.

Además, se obtuvieron datos adicionales muy relevadores a partir de las correcciones de los textos escritos entre los propios estudiantes (*peer review*, en inglés). El equipo docente recopiló dichos textos en un documento de Word, junto con las correcciones realizadas tanto por los estudiantes como por los propios autores, para dejar constancia de dichas correcciones y para que los alumnos pudieran prestar atención a todas ellas. Tras las votaciones de los alumnos a la mejor descripción, este documento fue publicado en el último foro del curso donde también se anunciaron los estudiantes ganadores.

Por último, cabe destacar que todos los participantes demostraron una actitud positiva hacia el uso del inglés como medio de comunicación al llevar a cabo de forma natural un debate sobre la selección de diferentes temas para este proyecto en la lengua meta tanto en los foros, de forma escrita, como en los otros medios audiovisuales. En general, la mayoría de los participantes mejoraron sus habilidades escritas.

6.5. Calificaciones globales

Con el fin de establecer una comparativa entre los resultados globales de todos los grupos, nos centramos en las calificaciones de aquellos estudiantes que participaron en las tareas en línea y en las de aquellos que solo realizaron la prueba escrita final de carácter presencial. En este sentido, los estudiantes quedan divididos en tres grupos:

(1) Grupo 1: 9 estudiantes participaron en el ensayo “Ebook vs print book”, y, además, en el resto de las tareas en línea y en la prueba presencial final;

(2) Grupo 2: 112 estudiantes participaron en los tres últimos proyectos, además de realizar la prueba escrita presencial final;

(3) Grupo 3: 73 estudiantes no participaron en ninguna tarea en línea y solo hicieron la prueba escrita al final del curso.

Los resultados obtenidos, de acuerdo con el tipo de tarea desarrollada, aparecen en la tabla 4:

	Ensayo	Otros proyectos	Examen final	No Apto (< 5)	Apto (> 5)	No Apto %	Apto %
Grupo 1 (9)	+	+	+	1	8	10%	90%
Grupo 2 (112)	-	+	+	39	73	34%	65%
Grupo 3 (73)	-	-	+	46	27	63%	37%

Tabla 4. Número total de estudiantes por tarea y porcentaje de aprobados

Atendiendo a los resultados obtenidos en la Tabla 4, la mayoría de los estudiantes de los grupos 1 y 2 que participaron en los proyectos descritos y en la prueba escrita de contenidos gramaticales aprobaron la asignatura al obtener una puntuación global final superior a 5 (90% y 65%, respectivamente). Por otra parte, los estudiantes del grupo 3, que solo participaron en la prueba escrita final, obtuvieron significativamente peores resultados, ya que solo aprobó el 37% de aquellos estudiantes que se presentaron exclusivamente a la prueba escrita final. Por tanto, se puede concluir que los proyectos basados en el empleo de las TIC reforzaron notablemente su aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera en el ámbito del turismo y contribuyeron a la consolidación del nivel B2 de los estudiantes (Escobar-Álvarez, 2016).

7. DISCUSIÓN Y CONCLUSIONES

El objetivo primordial de este trabajo era examinar el impacto que tienen las herramientas TIC en un curso de inglés para fines específicos. Más concretamente, tratamos de ver de qué forma los estudiantes adquieren los conocimientos requeridos para superar la asignatura "Inglés II de Turismo" en el Grado de Turismo con un nivel intermedio B2 gracias a las TIC. Para ello diseñamos una serie de proyectos en los que se pusieron en práctica una serie de tareas para las que se necesitaron ciertas herramientas tecnológicas. En estos proyectos los estudiantes desarrollaron una sus destrezas en inglés como segunda lengua, a la vez que adquirieron una serie de competencias clave relacionadas con el empleo de las TIC como herramientas didácticas.

Se llega a la conclusión de que los estudiantes que participaron en dichos proyectos lograron mejores resultados académicos, al desempeñar las tareas programadas de forma continuada y más motivada. Además, en los cuestionarios mostraron que a través de estos proyectos fueron conscientes de su propio aprendizaje, al asumir un papel más participativo en el curso. No hay que olvidar que se trata de una asignatura que emplea la metodología de la enseñanza a distancia. Asimismo, los estudiantes que participaron en los proyectos demostraron el aspecto positivo del aprendizaje colaborativo mediante la corrección de textos entre los compañeros. En este sentido, se pudo garantizar el desarrollo de una serie de habilidades cognitivas, como son la autonomía y la autopercepción como hablantes y usuarios de una lengua extranjera, puesto que les permitió comprometerse con su propio proceso de aprendizaje y con el de sus compañeros.

En cuanto a la evaluación de la asignatura, la implantación de estos proyectos nos ha permitido llevar a cabo una valoración continuada del desarrollo de los participantes. En la enseñanza a distancia es esencial poder garantizar estas tareas de evaluación continua en línea para poder llevar a cabo un seguimiento más personalizado de los estudiantes. Después de contar también con tutores externos que fueron responsables de la corrección de ciertas pruebas en línea, como es la prueba oral mediante la vídeo conferencia, pudimos concluir que son también imprescindibles para valorar el progreso objetivo del alumnado en la distancia. En futuros cursos se deberían promover proyectos participativos a lo largo del curso para poder incidir en aquellos aspectos que presenten más dificultades.

Por otra parte, el aprendizaje colaborativo a través de medios tecnológicos fue muy gratificante para los participantes, teniendo en cuenta los resultados obtenidos. No obstante, el aprendizaje de lenguas a través del móvil, tal y como se llevó a cabo en el proyecto 2 (VISP), no era del todo conocido y probablemente fuera la causa de que tuviera una menor acogida, aunque no por ello fue menos motivador que el resto de los proyectos implantados para las alumnas participantes. Sin embargo, se necesita llevar a cabo otros proyectos parecidos para ver las ventajas que pueden tener las aplicaciones móviles en el aprendizaje de segundas lenguas, ya que no se han hecho muchos estudios al respecto, a pesar de que estudios externsivos como Kukulska-Hulme y Viberg (2018) ya han mostrado que la implantación de estas aplicaciones en el aula tiene implicaciones pedagógicas relevantes, puesto que ofrecen la posibilidad de apoyar el aprendizaje progresivo sin límites de espacio. Por tanto, en futuros proyectos se puede precisamente comprobar de qué forma el proceso de movilización del aprendizaje logra los mismos o mejores resultados que los que se pueden obtener en el aula presencial con el empleo de otras herramientas.

Finalmente, también hemos mostrado que el empleo de otras herramientas lúdicas, como fueron las que se utilizaron en los proyectos de *Qstream* o *Youtube*, sirvieron para que los estudiantes llevaran a la práctica la autoevaluación y, con ello, mejoraron sus habilidades lingüísticas. Por tanto, se puede concluir que la implementación de aplicaciones de evaluación y autoevaluación con un enfoque *lúdico* son altamente motivadoras y promueven el desarrollo y la práctica de destrezas lingüísticas. Sin duda, se necesitan nuevos estudios para corroborar estos resultados con una mayor muestra de población y un mayor intervalo de tiempo entre las distintas experiencias educativas.

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WIKIS AS SUPPORT FOR ENGLISH STUDIES' DISTANCE STUDENTS TO ANALYSE AND PRODUCE EST TEXTS

LAS WIKIS COMO APOYO PARA ANALIZAR Y PRODUCIR TEXTOS CIENTÍFICO-TÉCNICOS DE LOS ESTUDIANTES A DISTANCIA DEL GRADO EN ESTUDIOS INGLESES

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Abstract
This paper describes the evolution that a subject such as Inglés para Fines Académicos y Profesionales II: Textos Científico-Técnicos (IPAII) / English for Science and Technology has experienced to improve the quality of its teaching, characterised by the promotion of collaborative work among the students and the critical reading of bibliographic references recommended during the course. Due to its nature, with no face-to-face tutorials and based on the analysis and writing of short pieces of EST texts, the teaching team devised the idea of creating a shared space in the form of a wiki so that all students had access to the same working texts. The announcement of the closure of Wikispaces in July 2018 has obliged the teaching team to think about other alternatives for collaborative work without affecting the instructions provided in the course guide. Although some of the most useful features -such as delving into the history of changes for later analysis- have been lost with the modifications carried on during the year 2017-18, others such as the debate on specific topics arisen from the analysis of the texts have been reinforced.
Key Words: English for Specific Purposes; English for Science and Technology; English for Academic Purposes; Collaborative writing; Digital Competences.

Resumen
Este artículo describe la evolución que ha experimentado una asignatura como Inglés para Fines Académicos y Profesionales II: Textos científico-técnicos (IPAII) con el fin de mejorar la calidad de su enseñanza, caracterizada por fomentar el trabajo colaborativo y la lectua crítica de las lecturas propuestas entre su estudiantes a lo largo de todo el curso. Dada la naturaleza de esta asignatura, sin tutoría presenciales y basada en el análisis y producción de textos cortos, el profesorado acordó la creación de un espacio común en forma de wiki donde de modo que todos los estudiantes pudieran acceder a los mismos textos. El anuncio de la clausura de Wikispaces en julio de 2018 obligó al equipo docente a pensar en otras posibles alternativas para continuar con el trabajo colaborativo sin interferir con las instrucciones que aparecían en la guía didáctica del curso. A pesar de que algunas de las características más interesantes de la wiki – como la de indagar en el histórico para detectar la autoría de todas las modificaciones del texto- se han perdido en el año 2017-18-, otras, como las de debatir sobre temas específicos, se han visto favorecidas, quizá por utilizar sólo un espacio en lugar de dos.
Palabras clave: Inglés para Fines Específicos; Inglés científico-técnico; Inglés para fines académicos; Escritura colaborativa; Competencias digitales.

1. INTRODUCTION

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

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2. 1 English for Science and Technology (EST)

EST arises in the early years of the English for Specific Purposes (1962-1981) to write about the experience gathered by language teachers when having to teach technical English to non-native students (Johns, 2012). One of the pioneers in this field, who served as a reference for many authors in the future, is Louis Trimble. He studied the rhetoric of a broad scope of EST texts, covering from the most formal academic articles to the not so formal style, "written for the layman" (Trimble, 1985), as it can be the instructions to install a car battery. These apparently opposed extremes motivated the sometimes-blurred division between English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Acedo Dominguez & Edwards Rokowski, 2002; Haghighi, 2012). Hence, the first term refers to scientific professionals from an academic perspective (e.g. Engineering, Computer Sciences or Electronics) in opposition to technical occupations such as engineering technicians, mechanics or plumbers). Although EAP disciplines share some linguistic features, there are studies aimed to analyse their possible differences (Hamp-Lyons & Hyland, 2004). Additionally, other texts can be found in between, addressed to a specialised audience but not experts (Parkinson & Adendorff, 2004; Roger & Sergi, 2018), which corresponds to scientific and technological magazines or the sections of Science and Technologies found in some international daily publications. This type of discourse is also known as 'science writing', described by Day & Sakaduski (2011, p. 8) as "writing sometimes written by scientists but sometimes written by not scientists, for an audience of non-scientists". Parallel to Trimble; the academic and scientific genre analysis experiences a drastic advancement thanks to John Swales (Swales, 1990). Different factors determine the level of technicality of EST words, for example its frequency of appearance in specialised texts, queasy specific texts or in general texts (Liu, 2012). Some authors distinguish three levels of the specialisation -specialised, semi-specialised and general terms used in languages of speciality (Hatam et al., 2009; Mudraya, 2006; Rusko, 2014). Others recognise five thanks to the Technicality Analysis Model (TAM): least technical, slightly technical, moderately technical, very technical and most technical (Ha & Hyland, 2017).

The present educational panorama is walking towards a future immersed in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English Mediated Instruction (EMI). This approach is catching the attention of many contemporary researchers due to the spreading of this sort of teaching in non-speaking countries in the higher education level (Barrios, López-Gutiérrez, & Lechuga, 2016; Drljača Margić & Vodopija-Krstanović, 2018). This scenario and the need to disseminate research in English could be some of the reasons which have provoked that more than a half of the publications written in English had been produced by non-native speakers of the language (Pérez Llantada, 2018). If we add the fact that most of them have been written to be read online (Kuteeva & Mauranen, 2018), it can be stated that the EST gender has experienced a drastic change from its origins, which took place more than 50 years ago. This is the sort of EST which is being produced at present and the genre which must be dealt in the study plans of our undergraduates.

2.2 The use of wikis in an online collaborative language learning context

Since the first wiki emerged in 1995 (Raman, 2006), this tool has received a pleasant welcome from language teachers. They are easy to use and present a very friendly interface that allows a quick edition anytime from any device. There are tools like PHP Works (Ortiz Navarrete & Ferreira Cabrera, 2014) or MediaWiki (Zheng, Niiya, & Warschauer, 2015) which presents an added difficulty, due to the fact that it need to be installed in a server. Others like Wikispaces have been used by many teachers of different disciplines probably because of its WYSIWYG edition system (Li & Kim, 2016). In the field of language teaching and learning, wikis can provide a platform for collaborative writing (Kuteeva, 2011; Roy, 2017), treat online anxiety (Kassem, 2017) create contents (Jordano de la Torre, 2009), translate (Talaván, Jordano de la Torre, & Bárcena, 2017) elaborating glossaries (Lázaro, Raquel; Pena, 2009) or promoting other collaborative tasks (Lin & Reigeluth, 2016; Zou, Wang, & Xing, 2016). Other authors use them as the perfect context to develop online tasks as a way to substitute the physical presence and connect students from different places (Windsor & Park, 2014). Many authors have incorporated wikis in their English for Academic Purposes classes (Kuteeva, 2011; Murray & Moore, 2006; Windsor & Park, 2014). Most of the mentioned authors coincide on the importance of a good project design to obtain a successful collaborative task.

3. METHODS

The methodology followed in this study is based on action research (Ivankova, 2014). This method consists of being able to make improvements in the teaching thanks to a constant feedback analysis of the students' needs. Some of the studies are mainly based on direct observation (Cutler, 2014), but the study here presented will be more focussed on the results of satisfaction questionnaires and the messages sent to the forum, where they are continuously asked to report their experiences about their own learning processes. This practice permits to develop improvements based on the students' feedback and the observation process. Therefore, the main aim of this research is to analyse the evolution of a subject, seven years after its design, and more specifically, the influence of a wiki in the learning process of students enrolled. To do this, some questions have been proposed:

- Is a wiki a suitable tool to study IPAII in a context like this?

- If it has not been as successful as expected, which could be the main reasons?

- In which way the closure of Wikispaces has influenced the normal development of this subject?

- Could it be possible continuing working collaboratively without a wiki as a learning complement?

To answer these questions, a revision of the statistics generated by the different sections of the Wikispaces course site has been undertaken. This process begins with a general view of the activities proposed throughout the course and the number of visits received, continuing with a selection of some of the most relevant ones. The number of accesses to the forum of each wiki page has also been analysed together with the activity concentrated in the thematic forums, which can be found in the official online course. Apart from the information retrieved from the wiki and the thematic forums, it is crucial to relate these data to other elements of the course: continuous evaluation participation and results, questionnaires of satisfaction and success rates of the subject.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The 125 credits of the optional subject are spread within five-credit units: Unit 1 English for Specific Purposes; Unit 2 English for Science; Unit 3 English for Technology; Unit 4 English for Science: Writing and Analysis; Unit 5 English for Technology: Writing and Analysis. Each unit comprises six main sections: Brainstorming / Contents (pdf) / Short activities (texts reading, collaborative work, debate) / Final questions / Twitter list (optional) / Google Community (optional) /Bibliography. All the contents of the subject are provided in the online course so that the students do not have to find any other material outside this environment. All the activities are included in the text file of each unit, the planner (as a link with the explanations) and as individual threads in the forum of its unit so that no messages can be sent in a different place. Although the twitter list and the Google Community are entirely optional, they are provided just in case any of the students want to enrich some of the topics studied during the course. It is a way of keeping the topics always alive with the announcements of events, grants, recommendations, etc. The additional bibliography can be found at the end of the contents file but also in a Mendeley group (divided into five folders), so that they can comment each item with other students, apart from adding their own suggestions. This system makes taht the complimentary bibliography could be updated almost at real time.

This subject began to be delivered in 2012-13 as an optional course of the fourth year of the Bachelor's Degree in English Studies. Most of the students who choose it did so because they were interested in specialised translation, to improve their science classes in English or because they work for an international company related to engineering component, as arose in the survey launched at the beginning of the course. It started with 80 students enrolled in its first year, and it has reached a total of 150 in the academic year of 2017-18. It gathers students from different points of Spain and other countries mainly coming from Europe and America. The figure 1 shows how the number of enrolled students has been increasing gradually except for the academic years 2014-15 and 2015-16, which experienced a slight decrease, which might have been due to the initial discontent with the subject. It also includes the number of students which created an account at Wikispaces (first value), at the percentage in relation to the total of students enrolled (fourth value), which represents a measure of 48%. Paradoxically, the year 2015-16 was the year with the highest number of Wikispaces members.

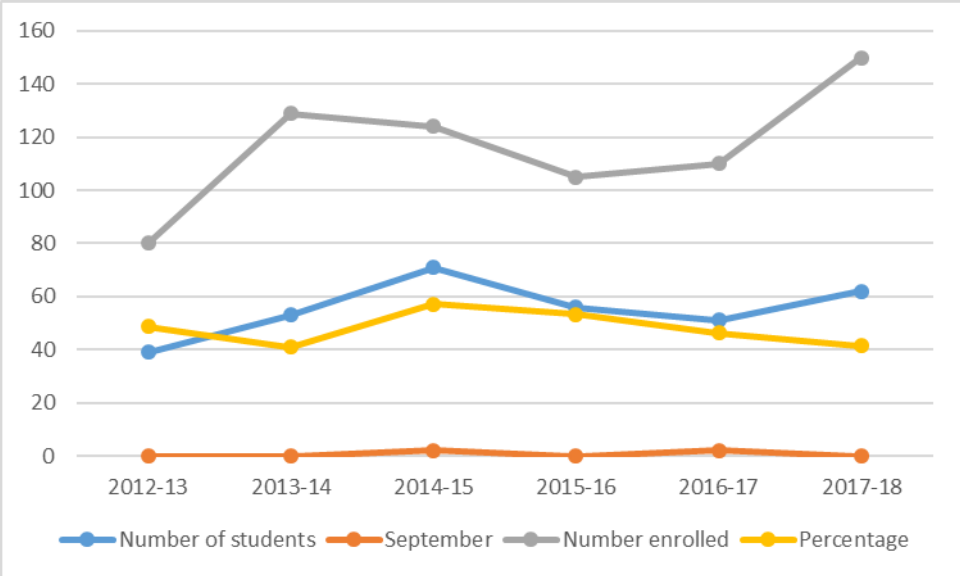


Fig. 1. Overall figures (total of enrolled students & Wikispaces' membership)

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

4.1. The wiki

The wiki was created on January 23rd, 2012, some days before the launching of the subject, with Wikispaces, a free tool founded in 2005 when used for educative purposes. Most of the students already knew how to work with it, given that they had followed a subject delivered by the same teaching team with similar methodology. However, 45.9% had not worked with this tool ever, and this fact represents for them a real handicap in the first weeks of the course, being an obstacle more than an element of help to comment the texts.

4.2. Wiki activities

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

Units	Wiki activities	Brainstorming	Others	Total
Unit 1	2	2	2	6
Unit 2	2	2	2	6
Unit 3	3	2	2	7
Unit 4	3	2	1	6
Unit 5	3	2	2	7
Measure	2,6	2	1,8	6,4

Table 1. The number of wiki activities per unit.

Most of these activities consist of a group of texts which must be annotated with colours to identify the different linguistic features studied in each unit. These editions are tracked by the platform with the name of the user and the date of modification for later analysis. Even though most of the pages were updated with new texts at the beginning of the semester, the students had access to the previous commented versions, so that they can read other annotated samples of texts to revise before the exam. One of the activities included in unit 4 consisted on identifying different parts of the IMRD structure of an article in different abstracts according to Galsman-Deal (2010), who divided them into model 1 or 2 depending on whether they referred to all the sections of the complete article or not (Introduction-Methodology-Results-Discussion). Some of the students preferred to wiki forum to post their answers and some others wrote their analysis after the text, probably because they did not know how to add colours to the text. In the case of 2015-16-year students, the platform registered a total of 14 responses to the wiki forum colour editions from two different students. The same activity in the academic year 2017-18 generated 31 messages in the forum, in opposition to the eight received in 2015-16. One of the most relevant findings in the mentioned year is that they have been able to do basically the same than with Wikispaces, probably due to the homogeneity of working places. The students could also use colours to highlight different parts of the structure of the abstract at the same time they sent their messages to the right thread. Some of them even discussed other responses and asked about different alternatives, so that the same goal aimed with the wiki has been fulfilled with the aLF forum as well. Similarly to what has happened with this activity -brought from the wiki to the forum, it could be seen in the rest of the activities based on the wiki. New shorter texts were found to be included in the pdf, and the interaction was passed to the thematic fora. From now on the activities will be more accessible because they will be seen easily by students with no Internet connection and others with no previous knowledge in wikis.

4.3. The written exam and its relation to the Continuous Evaluation Test (PEC)

One of the peculiarities of UNED methodology is that all the subjects included in the study plans require to take a face-to-face exam, which represents the most significant proportion of the total marks of the subject. Hence, this written test consists of three parts: the analysis of an EST text, the classification of an abstract by location references to the different parts of a scientific article and the description of a graph.

Apart from the final written exam, Bologna study plans require the realisation of a personal project which can represent up to 20% of the total marks (in the case of UNED). The IPAII's PEC consists of the submission of a portfolio containing all the activities done by each student during the course so that he/she can be evaluated according to the effort involved. This format helps them prepare the exam gradually and in a guided way, instead of being an independent practice added to the face to face test. During the first two years, there were a previous shorter PEC at the end of the unit 1 the help the students remind of the contents of the IPAI and general ESP, but it had to be removed due to the amount to time that had to be employed to do it. These PECs are marked by online tutors, who provide some feedback of help for the students before their exam. The number of students who submitted the PEC corresponds approximately to the number of students who registered at Wikispaces to do the activities. Most of these students go to the first exam call, and most of them pass it.

4.4 Evaluation results

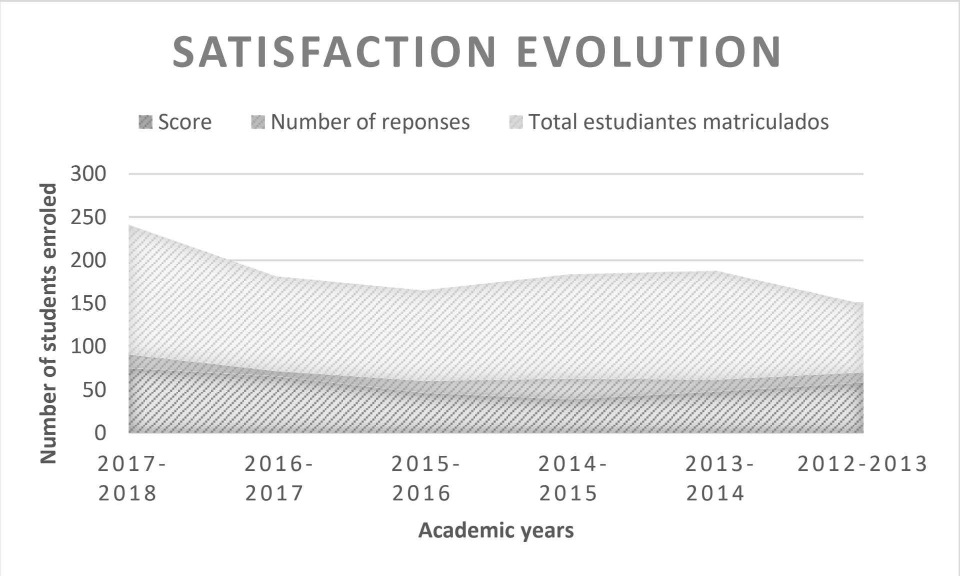
One of the evidence used to prove the efficiency of the wiki has been contrasting its level of interaction compared to the different academic rates. Then, the most successful academic year regarding wiki's membership (table 1) coincides with the year with the best rate of success (2014-15), with 100% of students with the subject passed. However, almost 30% did not take the final exam of the same year. Although it was not the worst year in terms of rate of evaluation, there has been a high number of dropping, most of them had not submitted the PEC.

Items	**2017-18**	**2016-17**	**2015-16**	**2014-15**	**2013-14**	**2012-13**
Rate of evaluation (en %)	**77,33**	**70**	**66,67**	**71,9**	**81,75**	**81,01**
Global results (same grade and type)	71,92	72,45	77,3	80,3	80,81	78,85
Rate of success (%)	**97,41**	**96,1**	**95,71**	**100**	**99,03**	**96,88**
Global results (same grade and type)	95,81	96,61	97,21	97,56	97,82	96,63
Rate of return (%)	**75,33**	**67,27**	**63,81**	**71,9**	**80,95**	**78,48**
Rate of return (% first enrolment)	79,43	68,63	66,67	71,68	80,65	78,48

4.5. Satisfaction results

The following data come from two sources: the official ones, extracted from the UNED quality department, and the several satisfaction questionnaires delivered throughout the course.

` Similarly to what happened with other facts, the least successful years in terms of satisfaction corresponds with the central ones. Although these results are not fully feasible due to the low number of responses, a clear improvement can be seen since the worst results obtained, thanks to the improvement actions performed by the teaching team. The best results coincide with the closure of Wikispaces and the simplification of the tools used.



One of the peculiarities of distance studies is the elevated rate on abandonment and return. From the 18 subjects offered for the 4th year, 13 were optional, similarly to the subject analysed in this study. It is important to highlight the fact that this was among the six subjects with the highest rate of evaluation (81,01%), a percentage which has been decreasing until the year 2016-17. This could be caused by the time it takes its global study, including a quite complete PEC which represents 20% of the total score.

Apart from the official questionnaires, other surveys have been delivered at the end of each unit to obtain feedback about the time and their level of satisfaction. A quarter of the respondent affirms to have devoted more than 20 hours of study, which could probably coincide with the students who did the PEC, in opposition to a majority, who stated to have employed less than 20 hours[1]. In the case of the third unit [2], more than 75% declared to have spent more than 20 hours and 100% of the students satisfied with the knowledge acquired in the unit, which represent a considerable improvement.

[1] Form unit 1 http://tinyurl.com/y9hcgxlm / Unit 2 Form http://tinyurl.com/yawssguh
[2] Form unit 3 http://tinyurl.com/y8cayrjk

The feedback for units 4 & 5 has been extracted from the answers dropped to the forum to the "final questions point of the class notes. One of the students affirmed that "it took him five full days to read and summarise everything and do the activities". He and other students also commented that this unit, centred on learning how to produce an abstract, helped them to understand the structure of a scientific article, something that they also could apply directly to the elaboration of their final degree assignment (TFG). The unit 5 final questions included one about the whole course. Most of the participants in the forum coincided to catalogue IPAII as a "practical and enjoyable subject" but time-consuming at the same time, which could be a problem for students enrolled in a University like this.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

IPAII is indeed a complex subject with a high degree of multidisciplinarity and interaction. Although the interest and motivation have experienced considerable growth in the last years, as the enrolment numbers and satisfaction questionnaires demonstrate, there are many weak points to improve.

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

The fact that the activities can be done individually, without having to edit directly on the Wikispaces activity page, hides part of the work done by the students. This explains the poor activity registered by the changes track. This does not mean that a minority of technology advanced students had seized the advantages of the wiki in the expected manner.

One of the most relevant conclusions of this study reinforces others concluded by other authors mentioned in this study. The key of a wiki-based project like this consists of a well-planned and monitored design, with the presence of the tutor visible at all time. Using a single platform can be a good way to help those not so familiarised with wiki edition so that it can motivate to more students.

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Encuentro Revista del Departamento de Filología Moderna

THE IMPACT OF CLIL IMPLEMENTATION ON LEBANESE STUDENTS' ATTITUDES AND PERFORMANCE

EL IMPACTO DE IMPLEMENTACIÓN DE AICLE EN LA ACTITUD Y EL RENDIMIENTO DE LOS ESTUDIANTES LIBANESES

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Abstract
Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has been verified as an effective pedagogical approach by a lot of research studies carried out in many European countries. However, modest attempts have been made to prove its efficacy in Lebanon, where English Language is taught in many schools and universities as a first foreign language. The purpose of the present study was to examine the effectiveness of CLIL application on the academic achievement of Lebanese students and on their self-efficacy and attitude toward it. The participants (n=21) were first year university students enrolled in the faculty of pedagogy at the Lebanese University and majoring in teaching Math at elementary schools. Quantitative as well as qualitative data were collected by means of two questionnaires, pre-post tests and reflection logs. Descriptive statistics were calculated and a series of t-tests were conducted in order to address the questions raised in the study. The results of the study showed positive attitudes of students toward the implementation of CLIL and they revealed the efficacy of CLIL as a pedagogical approach in enhancing students' self-efficacy and academic performance. Further research is recommended in order to determine the extent of CLIL effectiveness in other university contexts and across different majors and courses.
Key Words: CLIL implementation, self-efficacy, attitude, academic achievement.

Resumen
El aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) ha sido verificado como un enfoque didáctico efectivo por muchos estudios llevados a cabo en numerosos países de Europa. No obstante, se han hecho modestos intentos para demostrar su eficacia en Líbano, donde la lengua inglesa se enseña en muchas escuelas y universidades como primera lengua extranjera. El objetivo de este estudio era examinar la eficacia de aplicar AICLE sobre el rendimiento académico de los estudiantes libaneses y sobre su autoeficacia y actitud en relación con AICLE. Los participantes (n=21) eran estudiantes universitarios matriculados en la facultad de pedagogía en la Universidad Libanesa del primer curso del grado de enseñanza de matemáticas en primaria. Se han recogido datos tanto cuantitativos como cualitativos, a través de dos cuestionarios, pruebas previas y posteriores y cuadernos de reflexión. Se han calculado estadísticas descriptivas y se han realizado series de pruebas t (t-test) para abordar las preguntas planteadas durante el estudio. Los resultados del estudio han mostrado actitudes positivas de estudiantes sobre la implementación de AICLE y han revelado la eficacia de AICLE como enfoque didáctico para aumentar la autoeficacia y el rendimiento académico de los estudiantes. Se recomiendan estudios futuros para determinar la extensión de la efectividad de AICLE en el contexto de otras universidades, y otros grados y cursos.
Palabras claves: implementación de AICLE, autoeficacia, actitud, rendimiento académico.

1. Introduction

Interest in bilingual education has impressively grown over the mid of the 20th century due to globalization and internationalization. This has imposed a great need for foreign language proficiency in addition to mother tongue proficiency especially in Europe. Learners there have been oriented and encouraged to be proficient in two community languages besides their native language. This has propelled the European Commission to devise an Action Plan that adopts “MT+2 formula” (Marsh, 2003) that aims at boosting European learners’ native as well as foreign language proficiency by providing them with real life opportunities to develop communicative competence in two different European languages besides their mother language. To attain this aim, Content and Language Integrated Language (CLIL) approach has been adopted.

CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach which promotes academic content learning and foreign language learning at the same time (Richard, 2005). It refers to “all types of provision in which a language different to the language of schooling is used to teach certain curriculum subjects other than languages themselves” (Baidak, 2017). Indeed, there has been a move from learning the content separately from learning the foreign language to the integration of content learning and language learning. Language is no more learnt in isolation (Mohan, 1986). In other words, meaning as well as form has been emphasized in instructional and learning practices. In light of CLIL approach, Language is used as a tool to facilitate academic content learning. This means that the direct target of learning and instruction is content rather than language structure and grammatical rules (Coyle, 2008). As for Language learning, it occurs in a natural way and through motivation and an exposure to authentic and meaningful input in a functional environment (Darn, 2006).

The use of a foreign language to teach content subject is a common function between CLIL and other approaches in education such as Content Based Instruction, Bilingual teaching, Immersion Education, Dual Language Programs, English Across the Curriculum, and others. But what distinguishes CLIL from these approaches is the fact that it gives priority to both language and content learning simultaneously (Coyle, 2007). In fact, the CLIL approach is “an umbrella term referring to instructional approaches that make a dual, though not necessarily equal, commitment to language and content-learning objectives” (Marsh, 2000). Throughout CLIL implementation, learners develop content knowledge and communicative ability in the foreign language to fluently articulate thoughts and concepts pertaining to the content of the subject.

2. Theoretical Background of CLIL

The theoretical bedrock of CLIL is mainly the theory of constructivism which has been influenced by the cognitive theory of learning. According to cognitivists, learners understand concepts and gain knowledge, organize them, and behave with regards to their own attitudes, views, beliefs, interests, and environment. Skeet pointed out three fundamental principles of constructivism (Skeet, Jason). One of them is active learning which means that the learner plays a central role; he/she constructs meaning, applies it, and reflects on to reach a decision. Another principle is the progression in task difficulty. Learners are first given non-sophisticated tasks that require them to use lower-order thinking skills and then they are encouraged to fulfil complicated ones that require higher-order thinking skills. The third principle is making learning an enjoyable experience for learners by arousing their interest and motivating them to perform tasks. Indeed, CLIL is primarily founded on Vygotsky's theory of social constructivism. (Vygotsky, 1986). Vygotsky believes that learning occurs initially from an interaction with the learner's social milieu and then moves to the learner to become individualized. In other words, construction of knowledge is first channeled through social interaction and collaboration, and then these constructs are organized in the learner's schemata to become personalized. Vygotsky matched learning with the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which is the difference between what a learner is capable of doing without any assistance from others and what he/she is capable of doing with assistance; he clarified that scaffolding and social interaction and engagement with more experienced peers and /or adults enables the learner to construct knowledge that she/he is not capable of doing individually (Vygotsky, 1986).

In light of Vygotsky's theory, Bruner (Bruner, 1986) view learning as an active process in which learners acquire new constructs of knowledge and use them to encounter new situations. Thus, learners become active; first, they resort to scaffolding to accomplish tasks and solve problems till they are able to perform alone and reach autonomy in learning. In a CLIL framework, scaffolding comprises backing strategies such as streamlining content tasks, chunking them, and completing them progressively through proper use of the foreign language in an authentic environment. Another example of support techniques that can be employed in a CLIL classroom is the integration of technology in content and language instruction. Various technological tools can be invested in instruction and learning to clarify difficult content as well as language terminology and structure. Indeed, they can facilitate the implementation of CLIL approach with in the realm of Coyle's 4Cs framework (Coyle, 2011). CLIL lessons and materials are devised so as to induce better understanding of content, enhance cognition by boosting learner's high thinking skills, facilitate communication by encouraging learners to employ their own resources and sharpen their linguistic skills to be able to communicate in a comprehensible, appropriate and accurate way (Swain, 1993), and arouse cultural awareness "offering the key to deeper learning and promoting social cohesion" (Coyle, 2009, p.12). In brief, CLIL is a pedagogical approach that involves psychology, sociology and innovation in its application (Awan, 2018).

3. CLIL and Learners' Attitudes and Self-efficacy

Perceived self-efficacy is defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required attaining designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986). Learner's self-efficacy has a valuable effect on academic achievement and plays a key role in language learning (Csizer, 2014), especially the English language since "English serves as the link language in many parts of the world and globalization had necessitated being proficient in this language" (Vency, 2013). Another influential factor on academic performance is the learner's attitude. A learner's attitude means "the individual's reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language is taught" (Papaja, 2017, p. 125). Learner's self-efficacy, beliefs and attitudes tell about the required conditions for optimal learning and teaching since learners are strategic stakeholders in the educational system. Also, learners' attitudes and beliefs towards a certain pedagogical approach are paramount in motivating learners to acquire a foreign language. Learners who are highly motivated and get positive attitudes show more tendencies to acquire a foreign language and exert much effort to overcome any potential impediments in the learning process (Eshghinejad, 2016). Plenty of research studies endorse the efficacy of CLIL on leading learners to adopt favorable attitudes toward content and language learning. Indeed, Papaja (2012) studied the attitude of university students towards CLIL; the students are enrolled in the department of psychology and study many subjects in English. The researcher found out that students tended to have positive attitude towards CLIL approach which enabled them to achieve educational and upcoming goals. Along the same line, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) analyzed the attitudes of EFL secondary school learners in the Basque Autonomous Community who are enrolled in a CLIL program and concluded that they demonstrated better attitudes towards English and find learning English easier than non-CLIL learners. Likewise, Yassin, et al. (2009) conducted a study in Malaysia on fourth year secondary students who learned science in English through CLIL approach; they notified that they got more positive attitudes toward studying science in English and were more proficient in English than non-CLIL learners. In the same vein, CLIL studies carried out in Asian context (Lee, 2008) revealed the promising effect of CLIL on learners' attitudes, perceptions, and motivation. Huang (2015) probed students' attitudes toward the English medium instruction (EMI) courses at Southern Taiwan University of Science & Technology (STUST). He concluded that there is a correlation between learners' attitudes and self-perceived English proficiency. In actual fact, researchers correlate learners' positive attitudes towards CLIL to numerous factors as learners' proficiency level in English (Denman, 2013), learners' awareness of the importance of a foreign language in seeking better job opportunities (Denman, 2013), and the quality of teaching methods, strategies, and materials used in CLIL implementation (Czura, 2013).

4. The Study Context and Significance

Lebanese University students in the faculty of pedagogy study minor courses in their native language or first foreign language, English or French. Some students choose to study them in Arabic because they lack mastery in the foreign language. For instance, they find it difficult to understand English terminology and expressions pertaining to the course content, and they are unable to express their thoughts and comment on the course content in English. As to instructional methods, these courses are usually taught in a traditional ways like lecturing and reading (Ballou, 2018) rather than involving students in authentic and interactive activities that enable them to communicate in English and improve their foreign language abilities. Language courses, in their turn, do not focus on nomenclature and terminology of various subject matter topics that students need to better comprehend content courses and to use in their upcoming professions. Such hindrances discourage students from studying any minor courses in English and overwhelm them with a feeling of low self-efficacy. Here lies the significance of the present study and the important role of CLIL implementation in teaching minor courses as "Psychology Development". Indeed, CLIL approach makes foreign language learning serve content needs; hence, students feel the foreign language in its applicable form. They do not learn the foreign language for the sake of language learning but rather for attaining content purposes. This enables students to overcome any language barriers and gain more content knowledge. Thus, students start to perform at the higher level of thinking, so they become able to analyze, criticize, and evaluate the content under study. In other terms, CLIL develops students' cognitive abilities, for it involves them in tasks that require problem solving, critical and creative thinking and decision making. As to students' language abilities, CLIL encourages students to fluently communicate in the foreign language by engaging them in cooperative work. It also employs differentiated instruction, incorporates technology and creates stress-free learning environment, the thing which increases students' self-confident and motivates them to participate actively in the learning process. In a nutshell, CLIL promotes the acquisition of twenty first century skills and leads students to be autonomous learners.

Based on the above-mentioned discussion, it becomes crucial to implement CLIL in school and university classes. The present study is one of the very few studies that were carried out in Lebanon, especially at the university level. Thus, it is highly beneficial to inspect the potentiality of CLIL approach in Lebanese university classes.

5. The Purpose of the Study

The present study aims to examine the use of CLIL approach in teaching the content of "Developmental Psychology" course using English as a language of instruction and its effect on university students' academic achievement and self-efficacy. It also investigates students' attitudes towards CLIL implementation in learning the course.

In order to achieve the research purpose, three research questions were formulated:

Q1: Does CLIL instructional approach enhance university students' academic achievement?
Q2: Does CLIL instructional approach boost university students' self-efficacy?
Q3: Do university students develop positive attitudes towards CLIL instructional approach?

6. Method

6.1. Participants

The participants are 21 Lebanese students enrolled in the department of Math and Sciences- Faculty of Pedagogy, Branch One- at the Lebanese University. They are first year university students and major in teaching Math for elementary classes. They study English as a first foreign language and their level of English ranges between pre-intermediate, intermediate, and advanced.

6.2. Instrumentation

The instruments of the present study comprised a set of achievement tests, two 5 Likert scale questionnaires (1 indicating "strongly disagree", 2 indicating "disagree", 3 indicating "I don't know", 3 indicating "agree", and 5 indicating "strongly agree") and a reflection log. The achievement tests were devised and assessed by two professors in the Lebanese University; their scores were calculated on content (60%) and language (40%). One questionnaire, the General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer, 2010), was administered to the participants before and after the CLIL intervention; it consisted of ten items that measure self-efficacy of the participants. The second questionnaire was administered to the participants after the CLIL intervention and at the end of the semester; it consisted of thirty items that inspect the beliefs and attitudes of the participants toward the CLIL intervention. As to the reflection logs, each participant wrote a reflection log to express his/her beliefs, feelings, and attitudes toward CLIL intervention and to describe his/her learning experience with CLIL implementation.

6.3. Materials

The foremost materials in the current study were the CLIL lessons that consist of the content of the "Development Psychology" course. The "Development Psychology" course is a 4-credit course taught in English throughout forty instructional periods. The objectives of the course were to:

- introduce the student teachers to the concept and principles of development and how it is influenced by hereditary and environmental factors,
- identify the individual developmental stages according to different theories of development (with an emphasis on childhood and adolescence stages), and
- relate the different aspects of development to the different stages of development (cognitive, physical, emotional, social…).

With respect to the learning outcomes of the course, student teachers were expected to:

- indicate the aspects and needs per each developmental stage,
- identify the factors influencing development and respect the individual differences among the students,
- understand the interconnection among the aspects of development and their impact on each other,
- reason the child's behavioral problems and help in resolving them, and
- guide the parents in understanding their children needs according to the developmental stages.

To attain the course objectives and learning outcomes, student teachers studied the following references:

- Bee, H. (2000). The Developing Child. Pearson.
- Feldman, R.S. (2015). Understanding Psychology. Mc Graw Hill.
- Moris, C. G. & Maisto A.A. (2008). Understanding Psychology. Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Ormrod, J.E. (2011). Educational Psychology: Developing Learners. Pearson.
- Salvin, R. (2009). Educational Psychology, Theory and Practice (9th ed). Pearson Education: Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Santrock, J.W. (2011). Educational Psychology. Mc Graw Hill.
- Shunck, D.H. (2012). Learning Theories: An Educational Perspective. Pearson.

Additional materials were online resources (YouTube videos, websites, online dictionaries,…) that contribute to clarifying some terminology, expressions, and concepts pertaining to the course content.

6.4. Study Hypotheses

The present research study explored the following hypotheses:

H1: CLIL instructional approach enhances university students' academic achievement.

H2: CLIL instructional approach boosts university students' self-efficacy.

H3: University students develop positive attitudes towards CLIL instructional approach.

6.5. Procedure

The data collection procedure of the present study comprises three phases: pre-CLIL intervention phase, the CLIL intervention phase, and the post-CLIL intervention phase.

During the pre-CLIL intervention phase, the instructor explained to the learners what CLIL means, how it is implemented, and why it is beneficial. Afterwards, she administered the self-efficacy questionnaire and the pre-achievement test to all the participants. Throughout the CLIL intervention phase, the instructor clarified basic terminology of the course content by referring the participants to online resources. She sometimes made certain linguistic modifications to simplify the course content, help the learners understand content related concepts, and keep them interested in learning. She, also, used differentiated instruction that suit the language level of each learner and meet his/her linguistic and intellectual needs. Moreover, the instructor was so keen to create authentic, communicative, and meaningful learning environment that actively engage learners in the learning process. She divided the course content into chunks, set the participants into mixed ability groups, engaged them in interactive and collaborative activities and tasks to better understand the course content, and then asked them to share what they understood with other groups through oral discussions, power point/oral presentations, or gallery walk of poster display. During this phase, the participants received linguistic or content support from each other or from the instructor, and their performance was assessed by a series of achievement tests that comprise analysis and problem solving that demanded from the participants to think critically and be somehow creative. As to the post-CLIL intervention phase, the instructor administered to all the participants the self-efficacy questionnaire again, another questionnaire that examined the participants' beliefs and attitudes toward the CLIL intervention, and the post-achievement test. She also asked each participant to write a reflection log to comment on the CLIL learning experience and to express his/her beliefs and attitude toward it.

7. Results

The first hypothesis was analysed by means of quantitative and qualitative data collected from a set of achievement tests and reflection logs. With regards to quantitative data in Table 1, descriptive statistics revealed that there is a difference in means between pre-test scores (M=62.71; SD=12.23) and post-test ones (M=76.10; SD=7.28). Along the same line, Table 2 indicated that the difference in means is significant with P (t(20) = -5.74, df = 20) < 0.05. Therefore, it can be concluded that CLIL implementation has considerably improved the academic achievement of the participants.

		N	*M*	*SD*
Pair	Pretest-	21	62.71	12.23
	Post test.exp	21	76.10	7.28

Note: *M*: Mean *SD*: Standard Deviation

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Pretest-posttest Scores of Achievement Tests

		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Lower	Upper			
Pair	Pretest- post test.exp	-18.24	-8.52	-5.74	20	.00

Table 2. Paired Samples Test of Pretest-posttest Scores of Achievement Tests Experimental

As to qualitative data, the participants' reflection logs verified the quantitative findings. A lot of participants confirmed that CLIL enabled them to acquire content terminology and expressions. They clarified that reading references in English pertaining to their course motivate them to learn new vocabulary words and structures. Some participants stated that CLIL helped them understand and learn the course content despite the fact that their linguistic competence is below average; they explained that the use of digital resources as YouTube videos, websites, dictionaries, and blogs related to the content of the course allowed each one of them to learn according to his/her pace. Such resources, also, make them more exposed to the foreign language and consequently this enhances their lexical and syntactic competence. The majority of students underscored the usefulness of the interactive and collaborative activities in providing an opportunity to communicate with others in English, explain intricate concepts and terms, and provide linguistic and content support to each other; hence, they become able to express their thoughts more fluently and accurately in class discussions and tests. Few participants highly valued the CLIL approach as it addressed them as high achievers; they explicated that they felt cognitively satisfied when they were asked to think critically and express opinions.

		N	M	SD	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Q1B	21	2.52	1.05	-2.540	20	.02
	Q1A	21	4.08	.62			
Pair 2	Q2B	21	3.35	1.15	-3.078	20	.00
	Q2A	21	1.83	.52			
Pair 3	Q3B	21	2.63	1.04	-3.202	20	.00
	Q3A	21	1.91	.50			
Pair 4	Q4B	21	4.58	.71	-3.907	20	.00
	Q4A	21	4.05	.50			

Pair 5	Q5B	21	4.10	.90	-5.433	20	.00
	Q5A	21	1.91	.50			
Pair 6	Q6B	21	4.20	.96	-4.481	20	.00
	Q6A	21	1.90	.50			
Pair 7	Q7B	21	3.05	1.44	-4.074	20	.00
	Q7A	21	2.05	.50			
Pair 8	Q8B	21	4.03	.90	-3.839	20	.00
	Q8A	21	1.91	.61			
Pair 9	Q9B	21	3.30	1.23	-1.441	20	.16
	Q9A	21	4.05	.65			
Pair 10	Q10B	21	2.90	1.17	-4.076	20	.00
	Q10 A	21	4.14	.53			

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics and Paired Samples Test of Students' Self Efficacy

Table 3 shows the results of the descriptive statistics and paired samples t-test of the questionnaires administered to students before CLIL implementation (time 1) and after it (time 2). As displayed in the table, there is a difference in the mean values of all pairs between time 1 (*M* = 2.52 , *SD* = 1.05; *M* = 3.35, *SD* = 1.15 ; *M* = 2.63, *SD* = 1.04; *M* = 4.58, *SD* = .71; *M* = 4.10, *SD* = .90; *M* = 4.20, *SD* = .96; *M* = 3.05, *SD* = 1.44; *M* = 4.03, *SD* = .90; *M* = 3.30, *SD* = 1.23; *M* = 2.90; *SD* = 1.17) and time 2 (*M* = 4.08, *SD* = .62; *M* = 1.83, *SD* = .52; *M* = 1.91, *SD* = .50 ; *M* = 4.05, *SD* = .50; *M* = 1.91, *SD* = .50; *M* = 1.90, *SD* = .50; *M* = 2.05, *SD* = .50; *M* = 1.91, *SD* = .61; *M* = 4.05, *SD* = .65; *M* = 4.14, *SD* = .53). The table also shows that the difference in the mean values is significant in pairs 1 (*P* = .02), 2 (*P* = .00), 3 (*P* = .00), 4 (*P* = .00), 5 (*P* = .00), 6 (*P* = .00), 7 (*P* = .00), 8 (*P* = .00), and 10 (*P* = .00).

According to results, participants believed that after the CLIL intervention, they become more able to find several solutions when they are confronted with a problematic learning situation; also, CLIL enabled them to manage and solve problems if they exert enough work and deal efficiently with bewildering circumstances; in addition, it made them encounter complications if they invest the necessary effort and feel calm when meeting difficulties; Plus, it is easy for participants to stick to their aims and accomplish their goals after experiencing CLIL; furthermore, students believed that CLIL enabled them to handle unforeseen situations and whatever comes in their way due to their resourcefulness, and when someone opposes them, they can find the means and ways to get what they want. Thus, findings revealed in Figure 1 ascertain that CLIL implementation boosted the self-efficacy of the participants and these were cross validated by qualitative data collected from participants' reflection logs. For instance, some learners conveyed their satisfaction in CLIL implementation, for it made them trust their learning abilities and become more confident to interact and communicate in English with their peers. A lot of students stated that CLIL collaborative activities, authentic tasks, and digital resources allowed them to perform in a stress-free learning environment and overcome content and language difficulties.

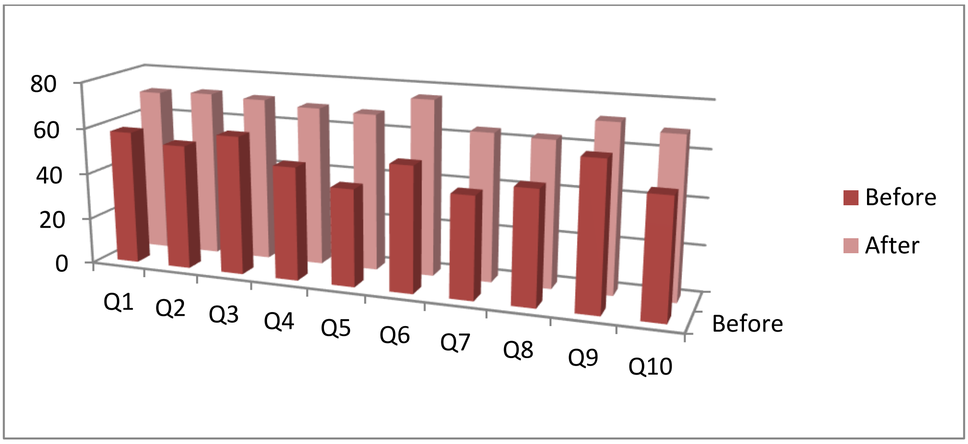

Figure 1. Learners' self-report measure of self-efficacy

A thirty-item questionnaire was administered to the participants to determine their beliefs and attitudes toward the CLIL experience in studying "Development Psychology" course. The questionnaire items were examined and analyzed; 14 items (Q2, Q3, Q5, Q7, Q8, Q14, Q15, Q17, Q19, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q25, & Q29) were written in a negative form and the others were stated in an affirmative form. As Figure 2 shows, the majority of participants liked the instructor's approach in this course; they improved mainly in the language because they got used to studying the course in English and learning the course in English allowed them to access further information on it through various search engines; they became able to take notes about the course in English; they tried to understand what they have read or read without translating it word-for-word into Arabic and their vocabulary was enriched while studying the course in English; they also became able to think about the course content and understand it in English. Few participants (19% agree; 0% disagree) felt embarrassed when they expressed their ideas in English, and 29% of the participants think that their grade in the course is affected by their level of English. More than half of the participants disagreed that they found it difficult to articulate their thoughts in English, felt nervous when they have to speak in English, and thought that their weakness in English hindered their understanding of the course content. They also disagreed that they would get through more materials if the course content were in Arabic, would prefer the course to be taught in Arabic, and would be less afraid of the exams if they had exams in Arabic. Around two thirds of the participants enjoyed learning a lot of content terminology in English, felt comfortable when they made the exams in English, and had enough opportunities to communicate in English and became better in grammar and sentence structure during the CLIL lesson. Finally, 53% of the participants exerted more effort to study this course because it was taught in English and 47% of them took more time in studying this course than other courses because the content was in English. Hence, the findings of the data analysis of the thirty question items indicated that the participants expressed positive attitude towards the use of CLIL method. These findings were verified by the participants' reflection logs. Indeed, almost all participants pointed out that CLIL method facilitated content and language learning and motivated them to express their ideas in English and to deliver oral presentations without being afraid. A lot of them pinpointed the role of CLIL interactive and collaborative activities in creating an unperturbed and enjoyable learning environment. Some of them stated that they no more feel apprehensive when they make an exam in English. Few participants wrote that the strategies used in CLIL lessons allowed them to self-regulate their learning at the end of the course. However, one participant stated that CLIL lessons made her feel tense because her low level in English prevented her from understanding the content well and from sharing ideas with others during the lesson. Another one was annoyed because she preferred to work alone and to receive direct instruction from her professor.

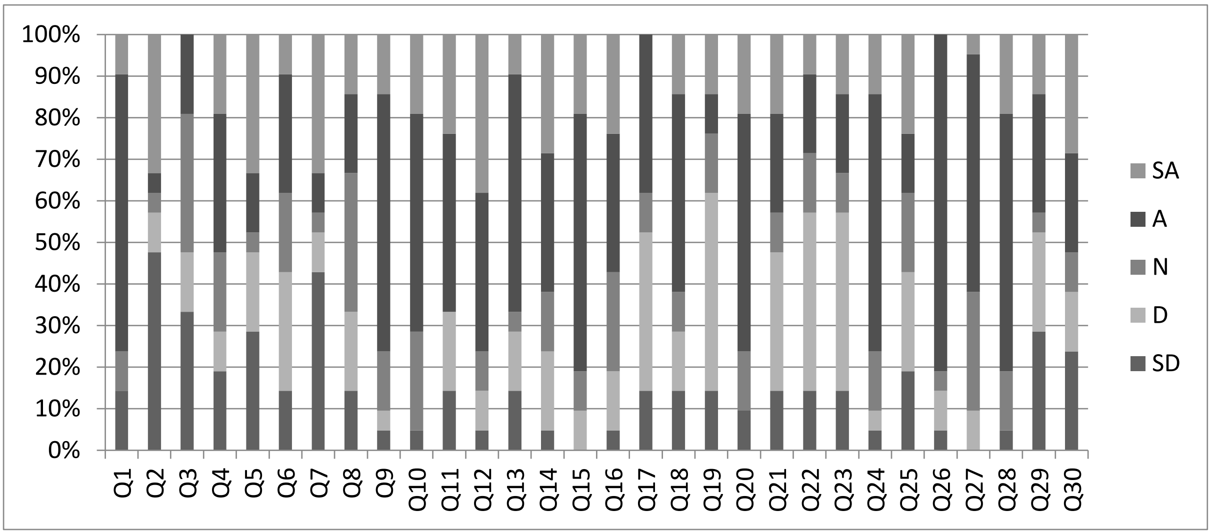

Figure 2. Learners' beliefs and attitudes toward CLIL learning experience

8. Discussion

Quantitative and qualitative data analyses of the achievement tests, two questionnaires, and reflection logs proved the following three alternative hypotheses:

H1: CLIL instructional approach enhances university students' academic achievement.

H2: CLIL instructional approach boosts university students' self-efficacy.

H3: University students develop positive attitudes towards CLIL instructional approach.

In regard to the first hypothesis, findings revealed that CLIL enhanced the academic performance of the students. This conforms to previous line of research. For instance, Koch et al. (2006) stated that CLIL could lead to a more profound content comprehension because of deeper information processing. Bonnet and Andreas (2004) pointed out that CLIL could help students acquire intricate scientific concepts since using the second language as the language of instruction in a content course prevents students from mixing up daily concepts with scientific concepts related to the same term. Sylven (2004) carried out a longitudinal study on 363 students in upper secondary classes in Sweden where English is taught as a foreign language. The results of the study revealed that CLIL students significantly outperformed regular students with respect to incidental vocabulary acquisition. Another study was conducted by Dafouz and Minano (2016) to examine the effect of English-Medium Instruction on student academic performance in a Spanish university. The research involved experimental and control groups with a total of 383 students. The experimental group studied Financial Accounting I course in English and the control group studied it in Spanish. Results indicated no statistical differences in academic performance across groups and that the use of English as the language of instruction did not lower students' final scores in achievement tests. This means that English as a language of instruction did not impede Spanish students' comprehension of business content.

With respect to the second hypothesis, findings showed that CLIL instructional approach boosts university students' self-efficacy. These findings can be interpreted in light of Bandura's social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). According to the social cognitive theory, a learner's self-efficacy is influenced by the joint interaction among the following three factors: environment, behavior, and personal aspects including physiological, cognitive and affective ones. This is validated by a series of studies (Cakr, 2009) which reveal that both internal and external factors such as, learners' interest, successful experiences, peers' successful performance, knowledge in the content area, positive feedback from others, and social and cultural context all boost learners' self-efficacy beliefs.

As to the third hypothesis, findings signified that university students develop positive attitudes towards CLIL instructional approach. The findings of the present study along with some previous studies indicate that students' positive attitude towards the implementation of CLIL verified the theoretical merits attributed to CLIL. Indeed, CLIL implementation offers authentic materials and interactive tasks accomplished by collaborative efforts among peers and language assistance from instructors and digital resources in a relatively anxiety-free environment. Such learning situation induced students to adopt constructive views towards CLIL. However, in some research studies, students' attitudes were in accordance with many factors such as students' language proficiency level, teacher's mastery of CLIL application, and the level of difficulty of the content course.

9. Implications

The research study should be conducted at a larger scale; it should comprise participants from other departments and faculties in the Lebanese university as well as participants from private universities. It is, also, advisable that CLIL approach be implemented in many content courses so that students can augment their knowledge in various content areas and develop their language proficiency levels. Since research literature highlighted the correlation between motivation and the foreign language proficiency level of students and instructors on one hand and optimal benefits of CLIL approach on the other hand, language and content instructors should be enrolled in workshops that train them on devising interesting materials and practicing interactive methods for CLIL implementation and boost their foreign language skills. Last but not least, investigating the views of language and content university instructors can be illuminating for improving CLIL implementation.

10. Conclusion

In a nutshell, implementing CLIL approach in language and content university courses produces significant learning outcomes. CLIL students were able to better understand the content in the foreign language and improve their academic achievement in content subjects. Moreover, the majority of CLIL students viewed the CLIL experience positively and believed that they are able to perform well during the CLIL implementation phase. However, the CLIL experience entails several challenging factors that are decisive to its success. In order to implement CLIL properly, teachers and instructors have to receive adequate training on how to apply it. Another factor is the role of motivation in CLIL classes. In fact, content and language materials have to be motivating and match the students' proficiency levels in a foreign language. In addition, CLIL students have to be active learners through engaging them in authentic, meaningful, and interactive tasks and activities. Any disregard for one of these factors would impede the success of the CLIL implementation.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS` SELF-REGULATION AS A MEANS TO FOSTER FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

EL DESARROLLO DE LA AUTORREGULACION POR LOS ESTUDIANTES COMO MEDIO PARA PROMOVER EL PROCESO DE ADQUISICION DE LENGUA EXTRANJERA

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Abstract

Teaching a foreign language to young adults outside its natural reach can only be effective if it relies on consciousness raising methods. The key element in conscious language acquisition is learners` self-regulation. However, both the theory and practice of foreign language teaching do not put enough emphasis on developing the corresponding self-regulatory skills of learners in the process of teaching foreign languages at university. The problem of applying the general theoretical knowledge of self regulatory mechanisms to foreign language acquisition by university students needs further investigation. Thus, the article focuses on the mechanisms of self-regulation that are more applicable to foreign language acquisition, as well as ways to implement methods of teaching in reliance on the corresponding self-regulation mechanisms, selecting and adjusting relevant diagnostic tools in order to measure the components of self-regulation and the effect of fostering self-regulation on the development of students` foreign language competencies. The methods of the study embrace psychological diagnostics adjusted to the process of language acquisition as well as statistical interpretation of the data. The article concludes that the experiment with University students helped ascertain and confirm the effectiveness of particular ways of teaching a foreign language (English) targeting students` self-regulation and, thus, optimizing and accelerating the process of foreign language acquisition.

Key Words: learners` self- regulation, teaching a foreign language, EFL, consciousness raising.

Resumen

Enseñarles un idioma extranjero a adultos jóvenes fuera del ambiente lingüístico natural solo puede ser efectivo si se basa en métodos de concienciación. El elemento clave en la adquisición consciente del lenguaje es la autorregulación por los estudiantes mismos. Sin embargo, tanto la teoría como la práctica de la enseñanza de idiomas extranjeros no ponen suficiente énfasis en el desarrollo de las correspondientes habilidades de autorregulación de los alumnos en el proceso de enseñanza de idiomas extranjeros en el ambiente académico. El proceso de aplicar los conocimientos teóricos generales de los mecanismos de autorregulación a la adquisición de idiomas extranjeros por parte de estudiantes universitarios requiere una mayor investigación. De este modo, el artículo se trata de los mecanismos de autorregulación que sean las más aplicables a la adquisición de idiomas extranjeros, así como en las formas de implementar métodos de enseñanza basados en los mecanismos de autorregulación correspondientes, seleccionando y ajustando herramientas diagnósticos relevantes para medir los componentes de la autorregulación, tanto como el efecto de fomentar la autorregulación en el desarrollo de las

competencias en idiomas extranjeros de los estudiantes. Los métodos del estudio abarcan diagnósticos psicológicos ajustados al proceso de adquisición del lenguaje, así como a la interpretación estadística de los datos. El artículo concluye que el experimento con estudiantes universitarios ayudó a determinar y confirmar la efectividad de formas particulares de enseñar una lengua extranjera (el inglés) enfocándose en la autorregulación de los estudiantes y, por lo tanto, optimizando y acelerando el proceso de adquisición de idiomas extranjeros.
Palabras clave: autorregulación por los alumnos, enseñanza de una lengua extranjera, EFL (inglés como lengua extranjera), métodos de concienciación.

1. INTRODUCTION

Conscious language acquisition is still considered to be possible, with few exceptions, only by means of teacher instruction rather than independently. Historically, attitudes to language teaching have changed from the teacher-centered approach to student-focused instruction taking into account students needs, motivation, age, psychological and cognitive abilities etc . However, with the latter prevailing in the present-day language teaching at universities and the increasing trends towards autonomous learning the integration of psychological and psycholinguistic techniques in classroom practices is still not paid enough attention to both in research and practice. Generally, most research splits into investigating various aspects of teaching in the classroom with the teacher`s role gradually shifting to an instructor and assistant and those of autonomous learning without teacher`s interference.

On the other hand observations and practical experience show that despite a variety of pedagogical tools provoking or intended to provoke students` consciousness students lack both the metacognitive knowledge and practical skills of boosting self-assessment, self-control, self-awareness, self-motivation, and other components of self-regulation. It also reveals that language teachers being aware of different active methods of teaching lack psychological and psycholinguistic knowledge, which prevents them from building up a system of teaching that will transform their students from dependent learners to active, confident and autonomous ones. This can also be achieved through integration of psychological measuring instruments into the teaching process, which can help monitor students skills and adjust the teaching forms and methods employed.

If we treat conscious learning as primarily combination of self-regulation and metacognition, we shall consider possibilities of boosting foreign language skills by targeting self-regulatory mechanisms in the traditional language teaching classroom, which consequently can lead to such a high degree of language acquisition skills development that it will enable learners to master a foreign language independently.

In this respect, our ideas are supported by research on applying and measuring self-regulation while learning particular sections of a foreign language, primarily, vocabulary and grammar, as well as those revealing direct influence of self-regulation on academic achievements. The purpose of our study is to comprehensively analyze self-regulation as a psychological concept, specifically, its mechanisms activated during language acquisition; consider psychological and cognitive abilities manifested in the process of language learning which are characteristic of young adults; provide for pedagogical means of fostering self-regulation, and confirming the hypothesis of substantial improvement of foreign language teaching process and its results by targeting students` self-regulation.

As it has already been mentioned self-regulation in the context of language acquisition has been primarily studied within psychological disciplines, focusing on its structure, manifestation, diagnostics and overall assessment. Researchers focusing on language acquisition reveal narrow applications either related to one of its components, mainly, self-assessment and self-control or its mechanisms as related to particular types of speech activity or sections of the language. The review of theoretical background on self-regulation in the framework of language acquisition has not revealed a study that looks into mechanisms of self-regulation the actualization of which is critical in second language acquisition by university students and, as such, has the potential to optimize and activate the process of foreign language learning.

Thus, there are enough grounds to claim that elaborating pedagogical methods of teaching foreign languages based on the recent psychological findings on self-regulation can boost the so-called "traditional" foreign language teaching at university. Therefore, the research questions about the appropriateness and effectiveness of relying and purposefully stimulating learners` self-regulation in the course of foreign language teaching at university include:

1. What is the theoretical background of self-regulation as a psychological concept and what mechanisms and skills thereof are primarily activated in the process of foreign language acquisition?

2. How are these self-regulation skills and mechanisms affected by the conditions of teaching foreign languages to students at universities in their home countries?

3. What are characteristics of students` self-regulation determined by the psychological and cognitive features of their age?

4. What pedagogical means can be employed to boost learners` self-regulation taking into account the advantages and restraints of teaching foreign languages at university?

5. What means of diagnostics can be selected to measure self-regulation of learners in the process of teaching foreign languages at university?

6. Is their direct positive correlation between fostering students` self-regulation and boosting their foreign language competencies?

2. THERETICAL FRAMEWORK

Self-regulation has been thoroughly studied in psychological research related to personality, psyche, behavior etc. In language teaching and acquisition research these psychological findings have been extensively applied as well.

The study presented focuses on the personality and activity approach having its origin in psychology and psycholinguistics as well as on learner-centered approach to foreign language teaching, which postulate that to influence, direct and monitor learners` self-regulation the researcher shall primarily focus on the learners` personality and its various aspects as well as nature and characteristics of their activity in the process of language learning treating the learner as an active subject of this process.

Taking into account this fundamental methodology we draw upon key aspects of contemporary theories of general issues of self regulation in the process of learning and learning foreign languages in particular; the research on cognitive and psychological characteristics of students age group and its influence on self-regulation; peculiarities of teaching foreign languages outside the countries they are spoken in, as well as studies revealing ways of transferring psychological diagnostics to the language classroom.

The primary supporting methodology of our research is general theoretical findings on self-regulation in the context of foreign language teaching (Martin 2004; McDonough 2001), which primarily imply that purposefully fostering self-regulation in the language classroom requires remodeling the traditional approaches and imposes additional requirements to teachers. Other theories mentioned are offered to complement these principal theories and the approaches we rely on in our research.

In our study we tried to reveal the structure of self-regulation, one of components of which is self-motivation. In this respect we rely on the theoretical background of motivation theory as well as influence of motivation on self-regulated learning and performance (Zimmerman 2008, 2011), alongside with general aspects of self-regulated learning in the classroom (Perry, Rahim 2011), and research on raising self-regulation by means of gradual shift from socially shared and co-regulated regulation to self-regulation (Hadwin, Jarela, Miller 2011; Murray 2014).

Our ultimate purpose being to prove the high degree of interrelation between the development of students` awareness of self-regulation and the development of the relevant skills and foreign language competencies in the process of foreign language teaching at university we rely on the theories confirming the positive correlation between self-regulation and general academic achievement (Zimmerman 2001). .

In most studies self-regulation is closely related to metacognition and autonomous learning. Metacognition is seen as booster of self-regulation which ultimately results in learners` readiness to autonomous learning (Alexander 2008; Benson 2011; Chiknaverova 2017; Dinsmore, Alexander, Loughlin 2008; Schunk 2008; Sperling, Howard, Staley 2004.). We rely on these findings in terms of what self-regulation is, its interrelation with motivation and metacognition and the difference between them. This research also serves as a solid ground for appropriateness of teaching self-regulatory skills and, in general, acts as a conceptual framework for studying self-regulation for educational purposes.

While developing the diagnostics of self-regulation in the context of foreign language acquisition, we use the data on ways of assessing and measuring self-regulation by employing various methods as seen through the perspective of the activity approach, generally, adopted in psychological and psycholinguistic research (Green, Robertson, Costs 2011; Turner 2006; Winne 2000).

Adjusting self-regulation capacity to different language sections, mainly, vocabulary and grammar (Mizumoto, Takeuchi 2012) is seen as alternative to traditional ways of quantifying language acquisition strategies. Such studies also provide solid reasoning for the validity of transferring the theoretical basis from psychology to the theory of foreign language teaching.

The methodological background of strategic language acquisition as well as investigation of psychological background of particular foreign language learning strategies, identification of self-regulatory mechanisms manifested while implementing particular strategies, their advantages and limitations (Oxford 1999, 2011; Rose 2012; Seker 2016) helped reveal mechanisms of self-regulation in the language classroom.

Investigation into self-regulation as perceived through the lens of teaching students (Lizzio, Wilson 2005) and different teaching formats (Grinsven, Tillema 2006) reveals ways to specify self-regulation in terms of students age and learning formats.

Following findings revealed by Winny, Perry (2000) and Zeidner (2000) we interpret self-regulation as psychical function consisting of interdependent and interrelated processes. The primary components of self-regulation include goal setting, strategic planning, monitoring and metacognition, action and volitional control, strategic tactics, time management, self-motivational beliefs (self-efficacy, outcome expectations, intrinsic interest, and goal orientation, etc.), evaluation and self-reflection, receiving and processing feedback. This theoretical understanding of self-regulation is further specified in the methods section of the article. Following A. Zverkov and E. Eidman` research we grouped the components of self-regulation into three basic groups (self-control, perseverance and self-possession) for the purposes of diagnostics.

3. METHODS, SAMPLE OR PARTICIPANTS AND DATA COLLECTION

To conduct the experiment, a sample of 177 students of the Russian State University for Humanities (Moscow, Russia) was selected. The general characteristics of the sample include:

- Students of the same year (1-2nd year bachelor degree students), age and gender;
- Groups with similar academic achievements, levels of the foreign language (English) and self-regulation;
- Russian is a native language for all learners;
- All students had been learning English for the same period of time by the moment the data was collected.

Methodology of statistical data processing applied after the data was collected was unified and the same for control and experimental groups.

To determine the pre-test and post-test level of learners` self-regulation from both experimental (EG) and control groups (CG) we used a volitional self-control test by A. Zverkov and E. Eidman.

In the course of the diagnostics, to confirm the hypothesis, the results were checked for a statistical significance level – all the results obtained were mathematically processed in the statistical program SPSS version 11.5 for Windows (Byuyul', 2002). To interpret the data we applied a method of nonparametric statistics: the test for Wilcoxon connected samples. The T-Wilcoxon criterion was used to evaluate the differences in experimental data obtained under two different conditions on the same sample of subjects. It allows us to identify not only the direction of changes, but also their intensity. It allows us to establish whether the shift in indicators in one direction is more intense than in the other. The T-criterion is based on the ranking of the absolute values of the difference between two sets of sample values before and after the experimental training (Yermolayev 2002).

Self-regulation is manifested through self-regulatory mechanisms. In our applied research we resorted to a fundamental psychological study by A. Zverkov and E. Eidman exploring the structure of self-regulation and the ways to measure and describe it. Further, we adjusted the findings to the process of acquiring a foreign language.

The Volitional Control Test makes it possible to obtain information on the self-regulatory awareness. It is aimed at a generalized assessment of the individual level of development of volitional regulation, which generally implies the measure of mastering one's own behavior in different situations - the ability to consciously control one's own actions, states and motivations. According to numerous experimental data, these features of self-regulation largely determine the individual style and specific manifestations of human activity. The first subscale characterizes the energy mobilization potential available for the completion of the action, the second describes the level of voluntary control of emotional reactions and states. In terms of traditional personality traits, subscales are called "perseverance" and "self-possession", respectively. There is a positive correlation with the "activity" scale which indicates the prevalence of active background in individuals with a high volitional self-control index, and with a scale of subjective control localization, which is quite natural, since self-monitoring is directly related to the subjective notions of controllability, in general and one`s own behavior, in particular. Moreover, a high level of volitional self-control is associated with low anxiety and lack of frustrated needs.

In our study a version with a dichotomous choice was applied: the subject has only two options for an answer: either "yes" or "no." The instructions specifically stipulate that in case of uncertainty in the answer, a subject can choose any alternative. Using the special key, the number of points received by the subject on each of the scales is calculated: on the scale of volitional self-control, on the sub-scale "perseverance", on the subscale "self-possession". When calculating total points, only matches with the key are taken into account (each such coincidence increases the total score by one). Those positions that do not coincide with the key are ignored and do not affect the value of the total score, which means that they do not bring negative points (the description of the scales and subscales, as well as the procedure and guidelines for interpretation of the data are provided by the authors of the Volitional Self-Control Test) (Zverkov, Eidman).

In the framework of our research, it is critically important to consider the self-regulatory characteristics in an integrated manner, in particular in relation to the specifics of their manifestation when mastering a foreign language by university students.

4. PEDAGOGICAL ARSENAL AIMED AT BOOSTING SELF-REGULATION IN THE PROCESS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Teaching foreign languages at university has specific features which shall be taken into account prior and during development of pedagogical means of fostering self–regulation. These features include formal conditions of teaching and learning related to the structure of the university, the content of education, the requirements to studies, students obligations, the number of credit hours, duration of teaching etc. It also involves social conditions such as integration of students within a group, and their relationship with the outsiders (student-student, teacher-student, student-group, group-teacher, group – university.). And, finally, didactic conditions which involve forms of teaching and control, as well as methods of teaching at university.

Another important factor that can not be ignored when adjusting psychological theories to the classroom teaching is students` general psychological and cognitive characteristics typical for the learners age. Introspection is considered to be the principal feature of this age group as well as self-consciousness associated with it. Another important characteristic is the integrity of affect and intellect. Students volitional sphere is the one that is actively being formed and developed as a separate psychical function. For the purposes of our research, it should also be mentioned that learners of this age are also characterized by broad interests and a desire to be more independent in life. The psychological characteristics are also related to the learners` motives and interest and their structure, the characteristics of behavioural regulation, as well as peculiarities of the cognitive processes. As for the cognitive abilities of this group, the most common characteristics are the generality of the thinking activity, independent thinking, flexibility of thinking processes, semantic memory.

The pedagogical potential employed to foster self-regulation in the process of foreign language acquisition includes experimental strategies, techniques, exercises and tasks. Instruction is carried out taking into account the prevention of perception errors, language and speech difficulties (including those associated with each of the types of speech activity, the general difficulties of mastering the language system under study, the individual features of learning a foreign language); the development of regulatory mechanisms of perception, memory, attention with the help of a previously developed classification of difficulties and typology of errors, taking into account the learners` potential needs and behavior.

Based on the analysis of the practice of teaching a foreign language at university, as well as a number of textbooks and teaching materials on the English language used in universities, it was revealed that teaching a foreign language in most cases is limited: to translating lexis or finding equivalents in students` native language; defining terms; translating by applying relevant transformations; discussing concepts and categories of learners` own language and the language under study. The learning process is formalized, the semantic aspect of the analysis of linguistic phenomena is limited. As for communicative orientation, only formal communication tasks are presented. Terms, definitions and linguistic rules are learnt mainly mechanically due to the lack of semantization. This approach excludes application of strategies, or any individual trajectories. The relationship and the transition of one type of speech activity to another is not traced; there are no possibilities for self-correction, self-replenishment of knowledge; verification of the completed task.

Within the training provided for the purposes of our study the teacher selects and develops strategies, techniques, exercises and tasks integrating all types of speech activity (reading, writing, listening and speaking). The conditions the pedagogical arsenal is used in are as follows: the intensity of performing tasks varies; facilitation techniques are extensively applied; problem solving is stimulated by verbalization; criticality is widely encouraged; mechanisms for the regulation of operational, short-term, long-term memory are applied; comparative analysis of native and foreign languages is used at all stages; classroom work and extracurricular work are integrated.

Students are taught to actualize the positive experience of their foreign speech activity; to analyze and verbalize the system of expectations, associations with semantic and verbal forecasting, to establish the connection between the old and the new; to achieve the implementation of the ideas on the basis of the mechanism for completing the initiated; they are encouraged to develop individual learning strategies, as well as building up individual trajectories to prevent and overcome errors and difficulties; to increase their learning and acquisition capacity by changing activities and sequences of tasks.

Moreover, learners are encouraged to analyze the ongoing language acquisition process and its results, to investigate their own and others` achievements with the help of retrospective analysis methods. Teachers employ an individualized way of evaluating students` current work, provide for students ` developing common methods of action, developing skills of self-control, verbal assessment of their foreign language (for operational feedback); including the use of systematic emotional assessments to boost learners` self-esteem.

In the experimental learning we initiated, foreign speech activity is considered in the unity of its four types. Reading is developed as an independent type of speech activity, and as a basis for producing written and oral speech. In this regard, the mechanisms for the development of a particular type of speech activity are interrelated.

The strategies used by the teacher to develop foreign-language competencies based on the activation of students' self-regulation are represented by strategies of pedagogical influence and learning strategies. The strategies of pedagogical influence are, as a rule, not recognized by students. Introducing learning strategies the teacher boosts students` awareness.

In the process of teaching assignments (tasks) were formulated subject to the student's level of foreign language: in Russian; in English with translation and repetition; in English without translation with repetition; in English without translation and without repetition; in English with a variation of formulations.

Thus, when learning to speak, the following is employed: goal setting in the exchange of messages, opinions, ideas in initiative, reactive, reproductive speech; regulation of the student's own behavior and behavior of the interlocutor; the ability to self-regulate the formulation and retention of the sequence of statements in the memory; management of the motives of the utterance, the ability to develop and substantiate the need for an utterance. When teaching reading and listening, the intensity of attention of the listener / reader is under control of the learner due to his/her volitional efforts. When teaching writing, drawing up an internal plan involves editing, tactical regrouping, consolidation, expansion and reduction of units of the text.

Teacher`s support is possible due to preliminary work on the development of classification of difficulties and typology of errors of students arising while learning a foreign language. The support is designed to guide students on how to choose and apply a particular strategy of learning, both during familiarization and reflection, and training and application. A strategy is understood in our research as "any set of actions, steps, plans, routines used by a student to obtain, store, access and use information" (Wenden 1987).

In the framework of teaching a foreign language by boosting mechanisms of self-regulation, the strategy is selected according to the approach to the problem, the mode of action for achieving specific goals, and self-control. In our research we relied on the educational model, based on autonomy proposed by R. Oxford (Oxford, 2011). According to this model, it is necessary to consistently expose students to the strategies, to raise students` awareness of these strategies, to jointly discuss the advantages of this or that strategy, to self-assess and monitor their language competencies, to apply the acquired strategies to new assignments.

In our experiment, learning strategies are applied (as strategies for replenishing knowledge, developing skills, and abilities).Students use strategies of self-analysis, self-presentation, self-evaluation, self-control, stimulation of their own cognitive activity, completion of the initiated, and affective strategies. Examples of such strategies include: brainstorming, reverse brainstorming, overcoming the inertial effect of thinking (by Mendel), seeking an equal, self-questioning, keeping a diary of self-observation, drawing attention, fixing individual achievements, comparative evaluation, evaluation based on the proposed algorithm, those related to the management of their activity, involvement in the task implementation (during the response of others), imaginative representation, emotional stimulation etc.

Within the framework of the self-analysis strategy, for example, based on the results of a test, the student is able to independently track his/her progress, systematize errors, analyze the reasons for their occurrence and the possibility to eliminate them later. While implementing the strategy of self-evaluation, the methods of comparison with the benchmark are applied, as well as tools and criteria for external evaluation. So, while performing productive foreign-language types of speech activity, knowing the benchmark and evaluation criteria provides for a rise in self-esteem, approximating it to an objective external evaluation. Self-evaluation tends to be adequate, when the effort expended corresponds to the external assessment grade, in the event of a failure (the efforts expended significantly exceed the performance), it is necessary for the learner to work on the corresponding problem areas, and take into account his/her abilities.

Self-control strategies are developed through methods of consolidating success during an oral public response, public speaking in the framework of the implementation of creative projects, when performing significant written tasks in a short time. Adopting the overcoming of the inertial effect of thinking strategy by Mendel students use the effect of the destruction of the stereotypes of the thinking process, the formation of the ability to see the new in the already known. Unlike the "Synectics", this method is intended for individual application and contains recommendations for the organization of the creative process for a long period, and not only for a limited period of time. Among such recommendations, we note the following: 1) to strive to present a particular phenomenon under study in an unexpected perspective; 2) to establish a semantic connection between a phenomenon given and the proposed one; 3) to ask as many questions as possible about the language phenomenon being studied, the rules (regarding their application, exceptions, possibilities for changes, etc.); 4) to postpone the task until the time when it can be the most optimal to complete it; 5) to apply methods of brainstorming, associations, using semantic analogies and secondary semantic nuances (Glebova, 2011).

In the event of a decline in performance, emotional stimulation is possible through the "seeking positive emotions, incentives" approach, which is not related to or indirectly related to the performance of an assignment. Self-stimulation is also achieved through the analysis of the appropriateness of foreign language learning activities, the recognition of one's own interest in both the professionally significant and the actual language part of the material under study, the forms, methods, personal involvement in the process of learning, the awareness of the potential for creativity, understanding of the interdisciplinary nature of the acquired knowledge and skills, the development of the ability to discern a model of real professional activity in the course of training.

In case of a decline in motivation, a student who applies self-stimulation techniques better realizes the reasons of the demotivation and eliminates them either by switching to other forms of work (e.g. from independent work to pairs, triads, group discussions); methods (from independent search for solutions to brainstorming); reception (e.g. from studying vocabulary on the basis of associations to the study of vocabulary on the basis of comparative analysis). The learner understands that the evaluation of his/her foreign-language speech activity at a certain stage is determined by his own efforts: by the amount of time spent to prepare, taking into account the individual characteristics and objective difficulties of the material at issue, or type of speech activity; the preferred strategy of learning etc.

The above strategies form sufficiently boost the level of self-regulation in the process of mastering a foreign language. The strategies can be traced at all levels: (1) the declarative level - the level of goals; (2) the level of methods employed to master a foreign language; (3) the level of evaluation of the learning outcomes of foreign-language speech activity.

When implementing these strategies self-regulation (1) can be traced at all levels of foreign language competencies; (2) strategies act as facilitation and the appropriation of knowledge; (3) the use of strategies ensures the implementation of two interrelated processes: a. activation of students' self-regulation; b. development of their language skills; (4) strategies accompany the entire learning process and are implemented in different forms and at all levels of teaching/learning a foreign language in the form of specific techniques; (5) ultimately, the strategies provide a high level of development of the foreign language competencies of university students on the basis of intensifying their self-regulation.

A special focus shall be on activities targeted at eliminating language and speech errors of students while doing the corresponding exercises. The ability to effectively eliminate them by students is one of the indicators of the level of development of students` self-regulation.

In addition to the traditional methods of assessment and evaluation, parallel evaluation is practiced, which includes the learners ` self-evaluation and evaluation by the teacher. Forms of control are as follows: 1) educational commenting, which provides for students performing certain actions to comment on what they are instantly involved in and evaluate it; 2) self-testing; 4) delegating roles (assistant, consultant, rapporteur, opponent, etc.); 5) mutual verification of oral and written answers using sheets of mutual control.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

It is necessary to constantly receive information about the changes in levels of foreign language skills in the experimental and control groups. Thus, each group was constantly monitored by using methods of psychological diagnostics, which allowed to obtain the most reliable results. This approach makes it possible to track the effectiveness of learning at any stage due to the integration of sociometric methods and the teaching itself, which allows for changes in the teaching/learning process. Below we provide the average group self-regulation indicators and the level of foreign language skills in the experimental (EG) and control groups (CG). First of all, we will provide the average group self-regulation indicators in the experimental and control groups at the beginning of the training (fig. 1).The average group indices in the experimental and control groups are homogeneous before the training.

Parameter	CG (0,05)	EG	T-criterion
Self-control	15,76	15,91	0,579
Perseverance	8,55	8,68	0,912
Self-possession	7,26	7,3	0,226

Figure 1. Parameters of students` self-regulation in EG and CG prior to training.

The data obtained in experimental groups before and after the experimental training for dependent samples revealed significant shifts in students` self-regulation (perseverance, self-control, self-possession) (Fig. 2).

Parameter	Before	After	T-criterion
Self control	15,88	20,21	-61,7
Perseverance	8,68	12,24	-43,4
Self-possession	7,28	10,67	-15,7

Figure 2. Parameters of students` self-regulation in EG before and after training.

The comparative analysis of the indicators in the experimental and control samples after training using t-test for independent samples revealed significant differences in all parametres at the level of statistical significance $p \leq 0.01$, which indicates the effectiveness of experimental teaching aimed at achieving high level of self-control, development of the potential for completion of the initiated, goal-setting, anticipation of intentions, facilitation skills, choice of means of activity, self-evaluation.

Parameter	CG	EG	T-criterion
Self control	16,17	20,21	18,89
Perseverance	9,65	12,24	14,43-
Self-possession	8,25	10,67	22,14

Figure 3. The validity of differences in self-regulation of EG and CG students after training.

It can be seen that, as well as for the entire learning period, the results of the first test show an increase in all parameters of self-regulation. The intermediate test of the indices in the EG for the t-test for dependent samples revealed significant changes (self-possession indicators rose from 7,3 to 8,64 ; self control - from 15,91 to 16,9; perseverance - from 8,68 to 9,75).

At the initial stage, students face the greatest difficulties in mastering the foreign language; their style of learning activity is being stabilized; students master optimal strategies and methods of learning the foreign language. Self-control is developed at the highest pace. All other previously indicated trends persist. At this stage, the training methodology is adjusted in connection with the revealed dynamics.

At the final stage all trends are stabilized, the overall direction of the changes and their dynamics persist. It was revealed that self-regulation positively correlates with the level of foreign language competencies. Comparative analysis at the beginning of the training did not show statistically significant differences between the experimental and control samples (59,85 – in EG and 64,42 – in CG).

The comparative analysis of the indicators in the experimental sample for the t-test (for dependent samples) revealed significant changes in the proposed indicators at the beginning and end of the training. In the experimental sample, the proportional development of the foreign language competencies with positive dynamics is noted.

The comparative analysis of the indicators of foreign language competencies in the control samples revealed significant shifts in the first test. We measured the result of teaching foreign languages in competencies which form foreign language communicative competency. For the purpose of our research we identified the following competencies: linguistic, sociocultural, sociolinguistic, strategical and discursive. There was no statistically significant dynamics following the results of the second test. Although in the control sample there is also an increase in the indicators of foreign language competencies, the development of indicators for each component is neither stable nor consistent. There is a sharp increase (the first test results – 64,42-70,37), and then the absence of statistically significant changes in the level of foreign competence at the last stage of training (70,37 – 69,29). Despite the general increase of the level of foreign competencies in the control sample, the experimental sample showed higher levels and consistent growth, which is confirmed by a comparative analysis of the indicators presented above (the first test: 59,85 – 69,26; the second test: 69,26-76,76).

It can be seen from the data above that the activation of self-regulation is positively and at a statistically significant level correlated with the growth trend of foreign language competencies. Students continue to develop skills in forecasting, reconstructing language material, developing expectations based on their experience, at the same time due to the high level of development of foreign language competencies, in particular, the linguistic component, students do not need to further develop compensatory skills.

The number of students with a high level of foreign language competencies at the initial stage is 4% higher in the control groups, which indicates an even greater significance of the shifts after training. In EG after training there are 39% more students with high level of foreign language competencies than in the CG. And as for the number of students with low level of foreign language competencies the difference constitutes 34 %.

There is an increase in the level of self-control, perseverance, self possession accompanied by an increase in the level of recognition of lexical units, grammatical, morphological forms, syntactic constructions; their correct use; understanding of meaningful, conceptual, subtextual information; the formation of automatisms in the performance of logical and analytical operations; recognition of socio-cultural elements, sociolinguistic context, their correct use and creative transformation; the formation of the ability of morphological, syntactic reconstruction, structural, semantic, associative forecasting; developing an expectation system.

Thus, the performed diagnostics of students self regulation indicators in the process of studying a foreign language and the results of assessing the formation of foreign competencies through written and oral tests, conversations, and the recording of lessons allowed us to confirm the hypothesis of a positive correlation between the processes of activating mechanisms of students' self regulation and the development of their foreign language competences.

Self-regulation of students in the process of foreign language acquisition positively correlates with the indicators of learning ability, anxiety, the overall effectiveness of training, the level of creativity in foreign speech. Students with average abilities can successfully master the strategies and tactics of training, develop certain personality traits that allow them to successfully learn, thus, overcoming the lack of knowledge and abilities. Such students can show results equal to the results demonstrated by more capable students, but with a low level of self-regulation.

The level of learning success (quality of learning) grows due to the development of successful self regulation strategies for students with low, average abilities, which explains the difference that can be traced between CG and EG.

Correlation analysis shows that when mechanisms of self-control are activated, the level of learning increases when the student realizes the difficulties inherent in him/her in mastering a foreign language, consciously working on strategies for overcoming them (using techniques that are optimal for his/her individual learning features (repetitive performance of the work already tested, translation in cases where only paraphrase or referencing is required; preparation for a specific task, while others do it without preparation, allocating more time for homework etc.).

Anxiety can act as a positive and negative factor when self regulation is paid specific attention to. Thus, a low level of anxiety does not create prerequisites for identifying problem areas in training and activating one of the components of self-regulation. While increased anxiety during a certain period can contribute to the success of training, although it happens at the expense of energy, time of the student and, ultimately, drains his physical and mental resources. The medium and medium-high levels of anxiety development most optimally affect the development of components of self-regulation.

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

As a result of our study, we managed to confirm the hypothesis of direct positive correlation between fostering students` self-regulation and developing their foreign language competencies. The study revealed low, medium and high levels of self-regulation, which are manifested in different ways depending on personality of a particular student. Most often there are students with a medium level of development of self-regulation.

Having identical syllabus, training duration, conditions of adaptation to the study of foreign (English) language, undergraduate university students from experimental and control groups show statistically significant difference in their level of foreign language competencies in the post-teaching tests. Control groups also saw an increase in the indicators of foreign language competencies as from the first to the second semester; however, after the second semester during the remaining period of training there are no statistically significant changes. Moreover, the foreign language competencies are not developed proportionally. There was a statistically significant discrepancy between the formation of all the components of different foreign language competencies in the control groups.

The results of statistical data processing allowed to prove that with the activation of students' self regulation mechanisms, the proportional development of all foreign language competencies is obvious; thereby, creating conditions for a predictable controlled process of development of students` foreign language skills at university. Thus, the diagnostic data confirmed the effectiveness of the implementation of the proposed approach and the practice of developing foreign language competencies based on the activation of students' self-regulation. The findings also propose that targeting learners` self-regulation can provide a more psychometrically solid measure of language learning progress than traditional instruments used in the classroom.

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THE REPRESENTATION OF GENDER IN TURKISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (TFL) COURSEBOOKS

LA REPRESENTACIÓN DEL GÉNERO EN LOS LIBROS DE TEXTO DE TURCO COMO LENGUA EXTRANJERA (TLE)

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Abstract

Some languages are grammatically gender-bound. Spanish and French, for example, assign a gender to each and every noun while Turkish has a gender-free grammatical system. However, no language is completely genderless. The overall purpose of this study is to examine the linguistic and non-linguistic manifestation of gender in Turkish as a foreign language (TFL) coursebooks. To that end, the portrayal of women and men in three volumes of the coursebook series *Yeni Hitit Yabancılar için Türkçe Ders Kitabı* (The Yeni Hitit Turkish Coursebook for Foreigners) has been studied using content analysis. In this study, the coursebook series has been quantitatively analysed with respect to the visibility of female and male characters in the visuals and written context and first-place occurrences and the number of words uttered by both sexes in mixed-gender conversations. Female and male characters in the coursebook series have also been compared according to their professional roles, hobbies and interests, representation in the public and private sphere and the number and quality of descriptive adjectives. The findings have shown that although men are slightly over represented in the visuals and written content, the authors of the series seem to have achieved a balanced manifestation of female and male characters in the dialogues. However, men are represented in a wider range of professional roles than women. There is no major difference between women and men with regard to the frequency of descriptive adjectives.

Key Words: Turkish, Coursebook, Gender Bias, Language Teaching, Foreign Languages.

Resumen

Algunas lenguas están ligadas gramaticalmente al género. El español y el francés, por ejemplo, asignan un género a todos y cada uno de los sustantivos, mientras que el turco tiene un sistema gramatical sin género. Sin embargo, ningún lenguaje es completamente sin género. El propósito general de este estudio es examinar la manifestación lingüística y no lingüística del género en los libros de texto de turco como lengua extranjera (TLE). Con ese fin, se ha estudiado la descripción de mujeres y hombres en tres volúmenes de la serie de libros de texto *Yeni Hitit Yabancılar için Türkçe Ders Kitabı* (El libro de cursos de turco de Yeni Hitit para extranjeros) utilizando análisis de contenido. En este estudio, la serie de libros de curso ha sido analizada cuantitativamente con respecto a la visibilidad de los personajes femeninos y masculinos en las imágenes y el contexto escrito y las ocurrencias en primer lugar y el número de palabras pronunciadas por ambos sexos en conversaciones de género mixto. Los

personajes femeninos y masculinos en la serie de libros también se han comparado de acuerdo con sus roles profesionales, pasatiempos e intereses, la representación en la esfera pública y privada y la cantidad y calidad de los adjetivos descriptivos. Los hallazgos han demostrado que, aunque los hombres están ligeramente sobrerrepresentados en las imágenes y el contenido escrito, los autores de la serie parecen haber logrado una manifestación equilibrada de personajes femeninos y masculinos en los diálogos. Sin embargo, los hombres están representados en un rango más amplio de roles profesionales que las mujeres. No hay una diferencia importante entre mujeres y hombres con respecto a la frecuencia de los adjetivos descriptivos.
Palabras clave: turco, libro de texto, prejuicios de género, enseñanza de idiomas, lenguas extranjeras.

1. Introduction

We all have characteristics that come from the birth. One of them is sex, which indicates the state of being male or female. Often confused with sex is gender, a term that involves social and culture-based sex (Butler, 1999; Bhasin, 2003). Gender was used only as a grammatical term until the1970s. Having been borrowed by the British writer Ann Oakley (1972) to be used in the field of sociology as a sociological term, it is now treated as a cultural phenomenon.

The terminological difference between sex and gender was first clarified by John Money (1955), a scholar working in the areas of sexual identity and biology of gender. After he expanded the scope of the term to introduce *gender roles* as a new terminology, taking into account all the non-genital and non-erotic but also sociological applications of the society (masculinity or femininity), the social area beyond the physical structures was brought into view. Contemporary definitions of gender are in line with his approach. For example, the United Nations Population Fund defines gender as "… the economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female" (UNFPA, 2005). In a similar way, the World Health Organization (WHO) differentiates gender and sex suggesting that "'gender' describes those characteristics of women and men that are largely socially created, while 'sex' encompasses those that are biologically determined" (WHO, 2016). Still, it is impossible to make a clear- cut distinction between sex and gender, since the expectations of a culture or society (gender) and the physical body of a man or woman (sex) are not completely independent from each other. In other words, the cultural constitution of gender involves the biological sex (Dökmen, 2004).

Social roles assigned by society to men and women often lead to gender stereotypes, which can be negative or positive generalizations that tend to be inaccurate (de Beauvoir, 1970). Although most people are aware that such assumptions are often untrue, they cannot avoid their influence. For example, society falsely assumes that marriage and having kids is an ultimate life goal for women, and all men love sports and cars. Brought up believing this, parents buy cars, trucks, fire engines, police cars or guns for boys, but dolls, kitchen utensils or cosmetics for girls. Without questioning, they decorate their children's rooms in blue if it is a boy and pink if it is a girl. Just like in the case of toys, parents opt for names that suggest some kind of naivety, such as flower names if they are picking a name for a girl but opt for names that symbolize strength and power if the name is intended for a boy. All these choices are made without giving them much thought and implicitly teach children the kind of person society expects them to be. Being largely prescribed, these examples present a rather simplistic, historic view of gender roles. However, they sadly continue to exist in all kinds of educational materials.

There have been many gender studies which focus on educational and non-educational print materials. A review of educational studies by Turkish researchers indicates that there has been a major interest in gender bias and the (in)visibility of women in educational materials and inequality in the roles assigned have been frequently studied English as a Foreign Language (EFL) coursebooks, while it is a relatively untouched field for Turkish as a Foreign Language (TFL) coursebooks. Several Turkish researchers focused in their studies on gender in ELT coursebooks produced by Turkish authors.

Çubukçu and Sivaslıgil (2007), for example, examined the 7th grade ELT textbook 'Let's Speak English', published by the Turkish Ministry of Education, in terms of gender ideology by taking female and male figures as their sample and analyzing verbal and nonverbal features of the textbook. They found that the visibility of men was higher than that of women (M:W=63:37) on the whole, but lower in the domestic sphere. Their findings indicated gender inequality in traditional roles and gender roles in the content of this textbook.

Another study that reviews three ELT coursebooks used in Turkish state schools during the first four years of education was carried out by Aydınoğlu (2014). In her findings, the author highlights that in one of the coursebooks, the writers seem to be aware of gender bias and try to avoid stereotyping. For example, in the unit teaching the parts of a house, the household is seen at the roof rather than inside the house for the fear of creating a stereotype. She also asserts that another coursebook reviewed "…is dangerously full of gender bias" (Aydınoğlu, 2014, p. 238).

Another study investigating gender bias in ELT coursebooks produced by the Turkish Ministry of Education to be used Turkish state schools revealed similar results. Evaluating representation of genders in the 6th, 7th and 8th grade coursebooks, Bilgin (2013) observed an overall balance in gender representation; however, the author called for a need for the re-evaluation as imbalances exist when each grade level is examined separately according to the categories applied in this research. In a more recent study, Demir & Yavuz (2017) reviewed another ELT coursebook series- *Yes You Can*- published by Turkish Ministry of Education and reported a fair gender representation. Yet, in that coursebook series, men significantly outnumbered women in terms of the variety of occupations they were assigned.

A very comprehensive project was carried out by Aratemur Çimen & Bayhan (2018) to study gender and secularism in newly published textbooks by The Ministry of National Education. For the purposes of their project, the authors chose a total 16 books for grades 1, 5 and 9, which they analyzed using critical discourse analysis. With regards to gender equality, they spotted a significant change in Turkish textbooks for grades 1 and 5, the history and Religious Culture and Morality textbooks for grade 9 and history textbook for grade 9. Two very striking findings of the project were "removal of women" from Grade 9 history textbook and "gender discriminative content" in Grade 1 Turkish textbook. (Aratemur Çimen & Bayhan, 2018).

"A Thematic Analysis of Women in the Turkish Novel of the Tanzimat Period" by Karabulut (2013) is another study that reviews gender roles in non-educational print materials. Novels written in that period focused particularly on women rights, freedom and education, reflecting the social transition of Turkish and Ottoman social life. In these novels, Turkish men and women were assigned opposite roles. Men in these novels were free and outside the home, whereas women had domestic roles at home. Nevertheless, novelists did give women some occupations, though usually only as teachers, tailors and servants. This is definitely a strong indicator of the traditionally subordinate role assigned to Turkish women in that period. Looking at more current non-educational material reveals that not much has changed with regards to the representation of women.

In his article "Similar Women Characters in Turkish Folk Tales and Novels," Doğramacıoğlu (2015) examined female characters in three different literary types: folk tales, modern novels and stories. He found out Turkish women were described in folk tales as heroines with supernatural powers, fighting and travelling alone in the mountains and flying on the air of their own accord. However, in the novels and stories, they are given more earthly roles as step-mothers or mothers. In conclusion, the study underlines that women are the core of Turkish society and it is crucial to note that women have a wider variety of roles.

In addition to the studies on educational and non-educational print materials used in Turkey, there are also studies that focus on coursebooks for English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Firstly, Mineshima (2008) investigated how gender is represented in EFL textbooks used in upper secondary English classes. This controversial research revealed that the number of male and female characters (F:M=29:33) and the number of words spoken by males or females (F:M=245:247) are nearly the same. The number of occupations (F:M=9:10), interests (F:M=22:21), family roles (F:M=10:9) and school subjects (F:M=5:5) were also close to each other and the pictures too provided gender equality. These findings constituted ample evidence that the book was a fairly egalitarian representation of the two genders, emphasizing men's contribution to household chores.

Believing in the necessity of evaluating coursebooks from a gender perspective, Arıkan (2005) studied two ELT coursebooks: *The Headway* and *Think Ahead to First Certificate*. Arıkan justifies his choice of these coursebooks with the longtime popularity of the former around the world and the widespread use of the latter in schools in Turkey. The review of the coursebooks revealed gender as one of the problematic areas along with age and social class due to unbalanced representation.

"Gender Representations in the Finnish EFL Textbook Series *'The News Headlines'* and '*Smart Moves'* " by Saarikivi (2012) is another study whose focus is on gender in EFL coursebooks. The purpose of this comprehensive study was to compare the EFL coursebook '*Smart Moves'*, used in Finland in the 7th and 9th grades, to the coursebook series '*The News Headlines'*, published ten years ago, in terms of gender representations. The aim is to investigate how gender is represented in these books, discourse elements of different genders and if these discourse elements are hegemonic or deviant. The evaluation of the coursebooks reveals a slight male dominance, imbalance in the number of male and female characters in favour of male characters- although not so drastic in *Smart Moves*-

and that gendered characters were clearly distinguished from each other in terms of looks, interests and actions. Besides, profession-wise, male characters were depicted in a more powerful position. The author concludes that the depiction of genders in these coursebook series contradicts with the the official curriculum, which promotes gender equality.

The studies described here provide us with a background on gender bias in educational and non-educational materials. The findings in the literature signal an underrepresentation of women in the EFL coursebooks produced both by local and foreign publishers and calls for a serious need to review TFL coursebooks from a gender perspective.

1.2. Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to examine the '*Yeni Hitit'* coursebook series from a socio-linguistic and cultural perspective rather than a purely language-teaching point of view, and to discover how gender is represented by reference to visuals and written content, first-place occurrences in conversations, and the number of words uttered by male and female characters. The inspection of the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series from such an unexplored perspective will give us a general picture of how evenly each gender is represented, how female and male characters are described, and which social, domestic and professional roles are attributed to these characters. In a generic sense, this study will help us find out whether or not gender bias is present in this coursebook series, or to what extent it is present. Such a review will also raise awareness about the significance of the equal and unbiased manifestation of gender in foreign language teaching coursebooks.

1.3. Research Questions

In line with the aims stated above, this study poses the following research questions which embody the visual and written aspects of gender representation in the coursebook series:

1. Are female and male characters evenly represented in the visuals in the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series?

2. Are female and male characters evenly represented in the written text of the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series?

3. Do female and male characters share an equal number of words, in approximate terms, in dialogues in the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series?

4. Do female and male characters share equal first-place occurrences in conversations in the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series?

5. What occupational roles are attributed to female and male characters in the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series?

6. What hobbies and interests are attributed to female and male characters in the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series?

7. To what extent are female and male characters present in the public and private sphere in *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series?

2. Method

2.1. Materials

This study is a content analysis of the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series 'Türkçe Ders Kitabı (*New Hitit: A Turkish Coursebook for Foreigners*)', developed and published by Ankara University Turkish and Foreign Language Practice and Research Center (TÖMER) in line with the Common European Framework of Reference for Language (CEFR) guidelines. This series was chosen as the corpus of the study among other TFL coursebook series available, for it is one of the earliest and frequently-used coursebooks published to teach Turkish to foreigners. Having been published over 10 years ago, it is still widely used for the purposes of teaching Turkish to foreigners living in Turkey and abroad. It is available in three levels of language proficiency ranging from elementary to advanced. Each level in the series comes with a coursebook, workbook and a teacher's book. This study is limited to the analysis of the coursebook only.

2.2. Procedures

The data analysis procedures used in the examination of gender representation in *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series include the content analysis of each level with reference to the overall categories of visibility in visuals and written content, 'firstness' in dialogues, occupational roles, hobbies and interests and adjectives used. The category of visibility was measured based on the number of female and male characters in the visuals and the written content. In order to find out whether there was a balanced representation of women and men, the researchers manually counted the number of female and male characters in the visuals, male and female names occurring in the written content, number of women and men in written and recorded dialogues, and the number of words uttered by female and male characters in mixed-gender dialogues. The category of 'firstness' was explored using the criterion of the relative frequency with which the woman or the man initiated the exchange in mixed-gender conversations. Besides, the manifestation of female and male characters was considered with regard to the quality of descriptive adjectives used, the attribution of domestic, social and professional roles and the representation of both genders in the public and private sphere.

3. Findings and Discussion

This section of the study details the findings with regard to the visibility of female and male characters in the visuals and written content of three levels of *the Yeni Hitit* coursebook series. The results are presented in tables and then discussed.

3.1. Gender Visibility

"Visibility refers to the actual presence of female characters both in text and in illustrations" (Nagatomo, 2010, p. 55). Sexism is often invisibly present in textbooks through the omission or under-representation of female characters in the images, texts, and dialogues. Therefore, this study investigates gender visibility in the visuals and written content.

3.1.1. Gender Visibility in the Visual Content

Modern language coursebooks are full of colourful visuals depicting the lives of fictional characters or real people from different strands of society. Besides helping us teach or elicit the target vocabulary and language forms, these visuals convey the lifestyles, routines, beliefs, and other cultural elements of a given society.

The under-representation of one gender through the visuals in a language coursebook is the most observable and self-evident form of sexism in educational materials. Ansary and Babaii (2003) argue "sexism, though embarrassing and undesirable, is subliminal and mirrors the institutionalized, unfair and inexcusable sex discrimination to the disadvantage of women in society" (p. 184). The selection of the visuals in a language coursebook is, therefore, very important as they may transmit implicit or explicit messages to the learners. These visuals communicate an impression of the distribution of male and female roles and the visibility of each gender in society. The following table (Table 1) details the relative frequency of occurrence of female and male characters in the three volumes of the Yeni Hitit coursebook series.

Gender	**Language Levels**			**Total**
	Volume 1 (A1&A2)	**Volume 2 (B1)**	**Volume 3 (B2)**	
Female	228	121	103	452
Male	215	122	106	443

Table 1. Visibility of Female and Male Characters in the Visuals

Female and male characters in the illustrations and photos were manually counted in order to explore gender representation in the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series. Small-sized photos with busy images were excluded due to the difficulty of gender identification in these visuals. The physical count of the presence of female and male characters revealed the number of female characters to be 228 in volume 1, 121 in volume 2, and 103 in volume 3. The number of male characters in volume 1, volume 2 and volume 3 was found to be 215, 122, and 106 respectively. The total number of female and male characters in Table 1 indicates there is no major difference in the numerical representation of the female and male characters although the total number of male characters is slightly higher. In that sense, the authors seem to have achieved a balanced appearance of female and male characters through their choice of visuals. These findings bear similarity with the findings of former studies on the analysis of language coursebooks produced in Turkey. Aydınoğlu (2014) and Bilgin (2013) also report coursebook writers' awareness about and effort to avoid gender-bias. However, the equality or proximity in the frequency of female and male characters does not necessarily imply that there are no gender-biased messages in the roles assigned to the two genders or in their actions, interests, and occupations as depicted in the visuals.

3.1.2. Gender Visibility in the Written Content

Language teaching coursebooks tend to follow a similar pattern regardless of the language they teach. Starting with a set of attractive topic-related visuals, each unit proceeds with a text, which serves the purpose of presenting target vocabulary and grammar in context. A balanced and egalitarian representation of the two genders in these texts is as important as in the visuals. Therefore, the occurrence of Turkish and foreign female and male names in the reading texts, dialogues, exercises and grammar boxes in the three volumes of the *Yeni Hitit* Coursebook series were manually counted to establish the extent to which each gender was represented in the written content. Unisex Turkish names, such as Deniz and Özgür were excluded from the total. Table 2 displays the frequency of female and male names in each volume of the series.

Gender	**Language Levels According to CEFR**			**Total**
	Volume 1 (A1&A2)	**B1 (B1)**	**B2 (B2)**	
Female	273	142	56	471
Male	254	184	90	538

Table 2. Visibility of Female and Male Characters in Written Content By Name

Scanning three volumes of the series revealed that the total number of male names outnumbered the female names, indicating a male dominance in the written content. According to Table 2, the number of female and male names is respectively 273 and 254 in Volume 1, 142 and 184 in Volume 2, and 56 and 90 in Volume 3. Only volume I has a higher representation of female characters. This points out a lower visibility for women in the texts, exercises, and dialogues.

The examination of the female and male Turkish names used in the coursebooks shows that the authors preferred naming both female and male characters using traditional and popular Turkish names. Some of the names used for fictional female characters in the reading texts, exercises and dialogues included: Ayşe, Elif, Ece, Burcu, Ceren, Demet, Aslı, Berrin, Tuba, Esin, Melek, Sema, and Sevgi, . Examples of names for the fictional male characters include: Emre, Ali, Murat, Yaman, Can, Cem, Mert, Kemal, Arda, Mehmet, and Bora. The names of these fictional characters in the coursebook series reflect the nature of female and male names used in Turkish language. Female names reflect a more gentle and peaceful quality in contrast to the more assertive nature of male names. For example, the female names Burcu, Melek, Sema, and Sevgi respectively mean a beautiful smell, angel, the sky, and love. However, male names Yaman, Mert, Kemal and Bora refer to strong personality characteristics, Yaman meaning strong or efficient, Mert meaning trustworthy, Kemal meaning mature or knowledgeable, and Bora meaning a gale. The meanings of these names are a reflection of the respective traits expected from women and men in Turkish society. While female names make reference to beauty or naivety, male names tend to pertain to physical strength or strong personality characteristics.

3.1.3 Gender Visibility in Dialogues

Dialogues in language coursebooks present learners with sample conversations between two or more speakers to model the functions or usage of the target language. Although they may not always be completely authentic, they are expected to be meaningful and resemble a real-life context, reflecting moments from the lives of people who use the target language for genuine purposes as a part of their everyday lives. In that sense, dialogues are also a good way to teach the target culture. Through the dialogues, learners recognize how the speakers of the target language greet each other, start and end a conversation, how directly or indirectly they express their ideas, etc. They also mirror the place of each gender in the target culture. Table 3 displays the number of female and male characters in written and recorded dialogues in the three volumes of *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series.

Gender	**Language Levels According to CEFR**			**Total**
	Volume 1 (A1&A2)	**Volume 2 (B1)**	**Volume 3 (B2)**	
Female	44	15	5	64
Male	55	**7**	12	74

Table 3. Number of Female and Male Characters in Dialogues

There are 56 written and recorded dialogues of varying lengths in Volume 1. Of these dialogues, only 18 are between a female and a male character**.** In all the dialogues in Volume 1, 44 of the interlocutors are women, and 55 are men. Volume 2, on the other hand, includes longer texts and fewer dialogues. The total number of dialogues in Volume 2 is 11. Of these dialogues, 7 are between a female and male character. In total, there are 15 female and 7 male interlocutors. Finally, Volume 3 consists of a total of 9 dialogues. Four are between a female and male a character. The number of female and male participants in all the dialogues in Volume 3 is respectively 5 and 8. Table 3 illustrates that male characters have a higher presence in the dialogues in terms of the number of characters.

The following table (Table 4) displays the number of words spoken by female and male characters in these mixed-gender dialogues, with a view to revealing which gender is more visible in the dialogues.

Gender	**Language Levels According to CEFR**			**Total**
	A1&A2	**B1**	**B2**	
Female	494	826	454	1774
Male	514	944	303	1761

Table 4. Number of Words Spoken by Female and Male Characters in Dialogues

3.2. Firstness

'Firstness' in conversations refers to the number of times a male or female character appears first in a reading, a dialogues or an exercise" (Nagatomo, 2010, p. 56). Table 5 displays the respective first place occurrences of female and male characters in the three volumes of the series.

Gender	Language Levels According to CEFR			Total
	Volume 1 (A1&A2)	Volume 2 (B1)	Volume 3 (B2)	
Female	10	3	2	15
Male	8	4	2	14

Table 5. Firstness of Female and Male Characters in Texts in Dialogues

Table 5 suggests that female characters initiated a mixed-gender conversation 10 times in Volume 1, 3 times in Volume 2, and 3 times in Volume 3, while male characters started a conversation 8 times in Volume 1, 4 times in Volume 2, and twice in Volume 3. In total, female characters initiated a slightly higher number of mixed-gender conversations than male characters, but the difference is not major. Jones, Kitetu and Sunderland (2010) claim that "If one sex *initiates* conversation more often than the other, the 'initiating sex' will end up having more active practice in the skill of initiating conversation" (p. 473). The findings of this study also indicate a correlation between 'firstness' and the number of words spoken by each sex.

3.3. Occupations

Gender stereotypes refer to inaccurate generalizations about the characteristics of a particular gender. Porreca (1984) writes that the representation of women and men in occupational roles is another manifestation of sexism. Thus, in order to further investigate gender roles in the three volumes of the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series, the occupational roles of female and male characters have been listed. Table 6 shows occupational roles according to gender.

Gender	Occupations		
	Volume 1	**Volume 2**	**Volume 3**
Female	Pharmacist, shoe seller, teacher, banker, taxi driver, actress, general manager, fashion designer, librarian, TV presenter, secretary, housewife	civil engineer, sales assistant, call-centre employee, carpet maker, executive assistant, doctor, athlete, teacher, model, dancer, actress, correspondent, white-collar worker	dancer, lottery ticket seller, student, musician, astronaut
Male	public servant, waiter, pilot, mail carrier, banker, student, radio programmer, bagel seller, florist, musician, medical technician, athlete, teacher, taxi driver, soldier, doctor, architect, white-goods seller, delivery person, dentist, footballer, lawyer, artist, dancer, police officer, swimmer, cameraman, bus driver	Carpenter, civil engineer, call-centre employee, sales representative, journalist, director, newsreader, rally driver , DJ, photo journalist, athlete, actor, sculptor, musician, artist, ceramicist, graffiti artist, soldier, teacher, cartoonist, street vendor, director, painter, drummer	dancer, singer, musician, nobel prize winner, comedian, architect, astronaut, astrologer

Table 6. Occupational Roles According to Gender

Scrutiny of the visuals in three volumes reveals some gender-bias in terms of the distribution of occupational roles. The findings show that, although both genders are represented in various professional roles throughout the book, men are depicted in a wider range of occupational roles- both high and low paying jobs- than women. For example, in volume 1, men are portrayed as waiters, pilots, mail carriers, radio programmers, bus drivers, photographers, students, soldiers, doctors, etc., while female characters are shown performing a more limited range of jobs, such as teachers, housewives, fashion designers, TV presenters, and pharmacists. A similar imbalance exists in Volumes 2 and 3, although in these cases it is less marked. The variety of jobs assigned to each gender is a true indicator of gender (in)equality in language coursebooks. Other studies, such as Hall (2014), Gharbavi (2012) and Söğüt (2018) have also reported a similar fashion in language teaching coursebooks.

3.4. Hobbies and Interests

Another area in which gender stereotypes and sexism can manifest themselves is hobbies and interests. Table 7 illustrates the hobbies and interests attributed to female and male characters in three volumes of the *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series.

Gender	**Hobbies and Interests**		
	Volume 1	**Volume 2**	**Volume 3**
Female	painting, photography, canoeing, trekking, jewellery design, dancing, cooking, shopping, exercising, horse-riding	swimming, horse-riding, exercising, shopping, reading, playing a musical instrument, knitting, dancing	reading, rock-climbing, cleaning, shopping, dancing, listening to music, meditating, watching TV
Male	playing chess, reading, playing a musical instrument, canoeing, trekking, playing tennis, painting, skiing, cycling, motorcycling	skiing, wrestling, archery, pole vaulting, rowing, body building, playing the flute, pottery, painting, acting	dancing, playing a musical instrument, listening to music, watching TV

Table 7. Hobbies and Interests According to Gender

Throughout the series, both male and female characters are shown engaged in a variety of hobbies and interests. Although there is no major difference between the two genders on a numerical basis, there is evidence of a gender-biased attitude in the way hobbies and interests are presented. For example, there is a striking disparity in the number of female and male characters in Unit 2 "Şimdi Spor Zamanı/ It is Time to Do Sports" and Unit 4 "Bu Yıl Moda Ne?/ What is Fashionable This Year?" in Volume 2. Unit 2 illustrates a vast number of male athletes engaged in various sports, such as wrestling, skiing, pole vaulting, rowing, body building, etc. as opposed to three female athletes in horse riding, swimming and tennis. However, addressing "a conventionally female hobby", Unit 4 depicts a surprisingly high number of female characters. The frequency of female characters in this unit is three times higher than that for the male characters. These examples indicate that, although the two genders are evenly represented numerically, they are not portrayed equally in terms of their professional and social standing.

3.5. Public and Private Sphere

Sexism may also manifest itself in a coursebook through the unequal representation of women and men when shown in public and private spheres. Table 8 displays the frequency of female and male characters as represented in these contexts.

Gender	Sphere	Language Levels According to CEFR			Total
		A1&A2	B1	B2	
Female	**Public**	74	35	53	162
	Private	12	6	3	21
Male	**Public**	94	52	76	222
	Private	2	0	1	3

Table 8. Female and Male Characters in the Public and Private Sphere

Table 8 demonstrates that men are depicted in the public sphere more often than women. They are shown outside their homes performing traditional non-domestic roles, working in their office jobs, doing physical exercise, etc. The book also includes some pictures where men are portrayed as fathers or babysitters, spending time with (their) children, but these are very few in number. The private sphere, on the other hand, is feminized in almost all the visuals and dialogues. Female characters are depicted doing domestic chores, such as cleaning and cooking, or as mothers looking after their children. Examples of rare exceptions among the professional roles are the presence of a female taxi driver and also the appearance of a male nanny.

3.6. Adjectives

The type and frequency of adjectives describing both genders was also examined. The results are shown in Table 9.

Gender	Type of Adjective	Language Levels According to CEFR			Total
		A1&A2	B1	B2	
Female	**Possessive**	32	23	37	92
	Descriptive	7	5	7	19
Male	**Possessive**	10	17	14	41
	Descriptive	4	4	6	14

Table 9. Adjectives used in describing female and male characters

According to 9, a higher number of descriptive and possessive adjectives were used throughout the three volumes of the series to refer to female characters. The analysis of the adjectives revealed that descriptive adjectives used for women present them as emotional personalities and focus on their physical features (slim, beautiful, attractive, young, etc.) and marital status. However, men are depicted as athletic characters and with dominant roles in the public sphere. For example, in Volume 1 Unit 9.2 “Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus,” women define themselves as ‘beautiful,’ while men claim that they are ‘charismatic.’ In the same unit, women boast of their ability to cook and freedom to wear high heels, while men brag about being able to open jars, having freedom to go out late at night and to take off their shirts on a warm summer day.

4. Conclusion and Suggestions

4.1. Concluding Remarks

Gender inequality in educational materials has long been a popular research topic. However, it has remained rather unexplored in TFL. For that reason, this study has examined gender representation in TFL coursebooks to find out whether the genders are equally represented in visuals and in written content on a numerical basis, and also to discover whether gender bias exist in the portrayal of women and men in terms of professional roles, hobbies and interests, their representation in the public and private sphere and the use of descriptive adjectives. The results have showed that there seems not to be a major difference in the numerical representation of women or men in the visuals and in written content. With regard to the representation of each gender in the dialogues, it was found that, although the use of the frequency of the male characters featured in the dialogues is higher, mixed-gender dialogues are female-dominated in terms of the number of words used and ‘firstness.’ The analysis of occupational roles and interests have indicated that men are portrayed performing a wider variety of jobs- both low and high paying jobs. Similarly, a gender-biased tendency has been found in hobbies and interests. For example, female characters seem to be more often portrayed engaged in shopping, fashion-related activities, knitting, and so forth while sports are preferred by male characters. Not surprisingly, the public sphere is generally male dominated, and women are depicted more often doing the chores and housework and taking care of children. Descriptive adjectives about emotions and positive physical properties have been used for women, whereas the adjectives describing the dominant roles and duties of men have been used.

The *Yeni Hitit* coursebook series seems on the surface to have strived for an egalitarian approach in its representation of women and men in a numerical sense, yet there still seems to have traditional portrayal of genders. A closer look at the visuals and written content indicates that improvement is needed to achieve an equal representation of both genders with regards to their occupational roles, domestic roles, hobbies and interests. Although the coursebook series offers a balanced proportion of male and female characters, it is not completely free of gender bias in describing and depicting the genders. To achieve that, throughout the coursebooks, through visuals as well, women need to be assigned a wider range of occupational roles, be visible in the public sphere as much as the private sphere, engage in non-traditional hobbies and interests, while men need to be more widely represented in the private sphere.

Despite the obvious efforts by the authors to achieve a quantitatively equal representation of both genders throughout the series, they could not avoid stereotypes or go beyond the fixed roles assigned to each gender by the society.

4.2. Suggestions

Considering the crucial role, educational materials might play in strengthening existing believes and ideas as much as transforming a society; it is uncontroversially important to highlight the need to ensure gender balance and equality in a deeper sense in educational materials. There is no doubt that gender equality will be achieved in real life once it is achieved in educational materials. Therefore, during material development, authors themselves should be aware and beware of the gender bias that the male-dominated society imposes on its citizens. In the development and choice of the characters, for example, utmost attention should be paid to avoid reinforcing all kinds of existing gender stereotypes. It must be borne in mind that these materials go one step ahead of the society and may play a leading role in boosting gender equality by depicting women and men in unorthodox roles. Last but not the least, the equal and balanced representation of genders both in visuals and written texts in foreign language teaching materials should receive as much attention as the literal and educational content, since they do not only present a new language but also introduce cultural and intercultural elements.

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META-LITERARY NARRATIVE IN READING EDUCATION: THE CASE OF CONTEMPORARY GERMAN YOUTH NOVELS

LA NARRATIVA METALITERARIA EN LA FORMACIÓN LECTORA: EL CASO DE LA NOVELA JUVENIL ALEMANA CONTEMPORÁNEA

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Abstract

In this investigation, we study the presence of a transgressive poetic practice in German young readers' narrative from the 21st century that brings forth a myriad of advantages where the reader-literacy competence of the young readers are concerned. The term in question is deemed as metaliterature which is a textual modality that breaks the mould and creates the topic of the current conventions of traditional rhetoric which requires a more active participation on behalf of the reader throughout the process of how the work is to be perceived.

With this intention in mind, three meta-literary resources frequently used in twelve contemporary young reader German novels have undergone investigation which reinforce their own nature of literary artefacts: intertextuality, metalepsis and meta-literary observations. These resources trigger the activation of reader-literary strategies during the receptive process of the work, given that it breaks and reveals basic codes in the art of the written word.

Key Words: Literature Education; intertextuality; metalepsis; metaliterature.

Resumen

En la presente investigación se ha llevado a cabo un estudio sobre la presencia de una práctica poética transgresora en la narrativa juvenil alemana del S.XXI que conlleva numerosas ventajas para la formación lecto-literaria de los lectores juveniles. Se trata de la metaliteratura, una modalidad textual que fractura y tematiza las convenciones vigentes en la retórica tradicional y que obliga a su público a involucrarse más activamente en el proceso de interpretación de la obra.

Con esta intención, se ha indagado en tres recursos metaliterarios empleados con gran frecuencia en doce novelas juveniles alemanas contemporáneas que hacen hincapié en su propia naturaleza de artefacto literario: la intertextualidad, la metalepsis y el comentario metaliterario. Estos recursos provocan la activación de estrategias lecto-literarias en el proceso de recepción de la obra, puesto que quebrantan y desvelan códigos fundamentales del arte de la palabra.

Palabras clave: formación literaria; intertextualidad; metalepsis; metaliteratura.

1. Introduction

Thanks to the research concerning the development of reader-literacy competence carried out in the last two decades, meta-literacy strategies have reached a noteworthy relevance, thus unveiling the principles of conventional literature, encouraging the intellectual and imaginative implication of the reader in the receptive process of the text through fun activities, enhancing the reader's intellectual and imaginary implication and informing about creative mechanisms as well as the workings of fiction. As Professor de Amo indicates, "The formal absorption which shows off the meta-literary practice invites the reader to focus attention on the technical conventions and/or resources that are being used in the very act of literary creativity" (2016, p. 108).

Metaliterature refers to the tendency and narrative practice characterised by the use of resources, narrative as well as stylistic, which place importance on its own textual materiality (literary conventions, diegesis, language, characters, communicative factors, narrative frames, etc.) and its own creative acts with the aim of externalising and violating the codes of nineteenth-century literature. The specialised critic in the subject asserts that metaliterature, rather than being a category or sub-category, is concerned more about the discursive modality which unveils and explores the mechanisms that are involved in the creative process of fiction. It is about literature which transforms into a topic in its own right, since the framed texts in this practice reflect on its own processes of textual production and narrative nature. This term, therefore, is used in order to design those works that bring their own literary artefact condition to light, "offering a construction observation concerning their own methods of construction" (Pérez Valverde, 2010, p. 77) and that "examines the basic structures of narrative fiction" (Pérez Valverde, 2010, p. 77).

Contrary to traditional poetry, which on the whole depicts representative portraits of reality and remains totally silent regarding its construction processes and creative resources, metaliterature systematically prides itself on its condition of linguistic artifice, which thematises its fictional production mechanisms, investigating the transformation of empirical facts in fiction or constantly striving to convey the idea which represents an artificial cosmos or become the creation of a writer who bases himself on narrative conventions. It is observed to be an experience which is a far cry from mimetic fiction which functions as its own closed universe.

Instead of endeavouring to reflect the empirical cosmos, metaliterature thematises the very literary phenomenon given that it is the only one possible to be carried out in accordance with the theoretical postulates. Metaliterature writers reject mimetic narrative rendering it to be an inadequate mechanism of reality. They write about the art of writing and thereafter outline alternative worlds, which, according to them, are as real as the empirical world since they wish "to create worlds as real as, but other than the world that is" (Fowles, 1969 in Hutcheon, 1980, p. 76).

Thanks to its "transgressive" nature, meta-literary creations postulate "a rather more sophisticated and active reader than that demanded by more traditional-style narratives" (Amo, 2016, p. 98). Such textual manifestations deliberately play "with the outlook and expectations of the receiver"

(Amo, 2016, p. 98) with the aim "of destabilising its hitherto role as an inactive reader within its comfort zone" (Amo, 2016, p. 98), "as well as imploding its certainties built within the intertext reader" (Amo, 2016, p. 98).

Furthermore, it requires "a readers´ complicity, the acceptance of an agreement through which" (Amo, 2016, p. 98): lends an in-depth focus "to the story as well as the literary background of the narrated word" (Amo, 2016, p. 98); interested in a fiction with an inventive and anti-mimetic will; accepts a type of masterpiece in which "traditional differences are broken between the act of narrating, the act of reading and the narrated product" (Amo, 2016, p. 98); approaching, separately, "the text and the literary code" in a different manner (Amo, 2016, p. 98).

In the same way, the meta-literary texts encourage a way "of activating the components of literary competence and the more efficient intertext reader" (Amo, 2016, p. 107) to how "traditional practice" is made (Amo, 2016, p. 107). At the same time "they provide teachings on literary conventions and help stimulate the point of awareness of the reader with regards to his/her role in the recreation process of the work" (Amo, 2016, p. 107), training the reader in the "complex process of intertextual reception, in the recognition and appreciation of the dense wariness of dependencies and relationships that the work establishes amongst others and what is required in order to be interpreted" (Amo, 2016, p. 107).

In the works outlined in this current narrative, we come across creative phenomena, for the development of literary competence, which energetically violate nineteenth-century literary norms related to the narrative frames, space, time, traditional literary discourse, in the course of the plot, the characters, etc..: works with fragmented structures, lacking in sequences with a logical temporary order or a well-defined space; stories and characters who are no longer subjected to the Aristotelian rules (of action: beginning, middle and ending); exacerbated hypertextuality, writers who act as demiurges, games or linguistic experiments; breaking of literary frames; mixture of literary levels; diffusion of the boundaries between the empirical and factional worlds; characterisation of reality itself with a greater or lesser degree of fiction; etc. This investigation fits the Meta-literary Focus research line[1] (Amo, 2005, 2010, 2016; Arizpe, 2010; García-Roca, 2016; Juri, 2010; Mendoza, 2010; Silva-Díaz, 2005 y 2010; Sipe, 2008; Ruiz Domínguez, 2012; Gómez-López-Quiñones, 2015), focus that, as its name suggests, is based on the rhetoric meta-literary use in the teaching of the literary phenomenon from a pragmatic stance.

To this end the remainder of this study is divided into four sections. In the first three an analysis of three meta-literary procedures assiduously implemented in the body of twelve German young readers' novels, published in the last two decades, stand out in order to enhance its literary artefact condition: metalepsis, intertextuality and meta-literary observation. The final part/section of the study

[1]The Meta-literary Approach first originated in the middle of the first decade of this century in the Education Department of Language and Literature at Almería University with Professor de Amo being its most representative figure and author of the ground-breaking work: "The role of the picture book in the development of the intertext reader" (2005).

is about the possible benefits of such strategies in the developments of the literary-reader competence of young readers.

2. Intertextuality

On the basis of the critic (Genette, 1989; Mendoza, 2010; Heber, 2010) who specialised in the topic, we define intertextuality as those types of stylistic, linguistic, para-textual, textual, referrals, thematic or of gender, explicit or hidden, written as well as audio visual or oral, word of mouth tradition.

These referrals give the hypertext an additional artistic-literary value and new meanings. The intertexts act like "strange organisms" in the text that have been inserted, thus causing a special semantic tension. They refer to other works, but at the same time they are firmly assimilated to the new narrative plot. They work like intertextual connections, through which one can also read other stories, thus allowing the readers to enjoy a wider array of opportunities in the textual interpretation.

This creative phenomenon encourages the readers to participate in the act of decoding the text. Its narrative procedures offer the possibility of reinterpreting the respective hypertexts in a creative manner and requires the reader to become more intellectually involved, making him or her pay more attention and possess the competence and suitable literary knowledge in order to identify and supply additional meanings to the intertextual connections in the hypertext. This fact occurs especially when these creative phenomena are used to describe characters or set the narrated facts in the new text.

Intertextual practises form one of the foremost phenomena in meta-literary discourse. One of the fundamental premises of this poetic rhetoric goes into the statement that everything has been portrayed, so nowadays it is only possible to transform or reinterpret pre-existing fictions. The meta-literary demiurges reuse numerous dimensions in their creations, in this way they are endowed with new meanings and contexts and they influence the idea that literary works currently produced are based on previous stories.

From these postulates the poetic genius becomes a producer of stories based on another or other past stories. Lozano says that the "I genius-artist" is replaced by an artisan who finds an already existing new object in a material through a re-grouping of its components, "of procedures such as the montage, the collage, the suitability or manipulation that we can observe during the cut, copy and paste functions in a computer word processor" (2007, p. 142).

Meta-literary narrative makes use of fiction to reflect on literature itself. Its works reinterpret or retake hypertexts from a fresh stance in order to parody, ridicule, honour, disclose its operation or analyse its thematic or structural components etc.

Through intertextuality, meta-literary discourse frequently mocks (or makes a comical parody of) traditional literature, as if craving to snatch that sacred, moral and serious component that characterises it. In addition to transgressing its basic codes, it turns canonical works, myths or classical stories into comical games.

Meta-literary discourse uses intertextuality not only for the sole purpose to parody, ridicule, reveal or analyse the relative thematic or structural components related to isolated works, but can also do the same with the system of norms of a specific kind.

Starting from the repeated formal and pragmatic perspectives as well as the reflections of Genette (1989) and Amo (2016) about intertextuality, we have carried out an intense exploration of the intertextual strategies most frequently used in the novels analysed. These are the parody, allusion, quotation, paratextuality, metatextuality, intertextual intensification, the prolongation and generic hybridism.

Parodic literature constitutes one of the essential intertextual practices in the corpus object of study. Most of the analysed texts constitute authentic expressions of artistic-literary meta-reflexivity (and, therefore, metaliterature) which mocks nineteenth-century young readers' fiction from an ironic point of view, because they are governed by rigid norms known by the readers whose violations are, therefore, recognisable. Both its macro and discursive-formal microstructures and its diegetic features are manifest and are based on the intertext reader of the vast majority of para narrative text. It is about narrations with a linear plot and a simple linguistic register (short syntactic structures and easily understood general vocabulary) populated by subjects with well-defined roles (these tend to be stereotyped and categorised, simply into "good and bad" and endowed with a known and pre-set outcome and moral, as a general rule, "the malignant individual or individuals" are halted and punished and "the benevolent character or characters" overcome hurdles and are rewarded.

The main effect brought in the aforementioned textual manifestations is not only the referentiality, but also the idea of literature as a narrative topic. (Amo, 2016, pp. 106 - 107).

Bearing in mind that intertextuality forms the basis of the parodic narrative and that, consequently, its successful execution depends fundamentally on the readers' ability to recognise hypertext dimensions, that is to say, the parodied works and genres.

The authors of meta-literary young readers' texts appeal to "the intertext reader to generate processes of identification, recognition, association and interrelation of their implicit knowledge before the textual stimuli" (Amo, 2016, p. 107): In addition to their "schemes related to the structural characteristics of the genre in question all the necessary intertextual knowledge must be set in motion in order to discover the parodied hypo-texts" (Amo, 2016, p. 107). In this way, a paradigmatic text of the studied corpus is *Das geheime Vermächtnis des Pan*[2](2016) by Sandra Regnier. It is about a parody of the traditional elf tales, with a high dose of irony attached, with an unusual semantic depth and with a marked intertextual and anti-mimetic nature. This entertaining narrative operates considerable

[2]*The secret legacy of Pan.*

alterations in the discursive and thematic spheres of the hypo-texts. Its plot is set in 21st century British society, the hero of the story is not a strong nor brave man, but instead a girl in the last year of secondary school with a frail look about her, and such mythological beings, rather than as tiny creatures, with a grotesque appearance, portrayed as “sex symbols” with supernatural physical powers, with a slim figure and a surprising stature:

> My goodness, who on earth is that? I heard Nicole ask out of breath. I had to sneeze again and then I realised that he was there. He was heading towards us accompanied by the headmistress. Even the very Mrs. Haleywood passionately looked at him. He was slim and had an athletic build. His hair was mousy blonde, rather dishevelled as if he were constantly running his fingers through it and so long at the sides that it covered half of his ears. Furthermore, he was tall. Exceedingly tall. Taller than all the other boys at our college. And his face was so good-looking, something of which I had never seen the likes of before in a man. (*Das geheime Vermächtnis des Pan*, p. 16).

The allusion makes reference to a statement whose full interpretation “supposes the perception of its relationship with another statement to which this necessarily refers or that of its inflections, not otherwise perceptible” (Genette, 1989, p. 10). In the vast majority of the analysed corpus texts, this intertextual procedure is used to indicate moods, describe spaces or characters.

As an example, in *Das zweite Buch der Träume*[3] by Kerstin Gier (2014) we can read numerous references to canonical texts and famous tapes that are used masterfully to confer physical features to characters or express states of euphoria, sadness or fear: “Looking frightened all around me was already, however, too late - unfortunately I looked as silly as a scared-stiff Bambi” (pp. 68 – 69).

The textual quotation constitutes the most explicit and literal presence "of one text in another" (Genette, 1989, p. 10). The hypertext reproduces texts of the work of reference with great accuracy and immediately indicates the textual sources or their authorship. Copied words often appear in quotation marks. It is the resource par excellence in the trilogy of *Ink World*.

Due to its huge presence, this intertextual procedure confers Cornelia Funke's work with an intense hyper-textual degree, since all the chapters of the novel are opened, it is frequently used within diegesis and refers to numerous textual productions, both fiction and non-fiction literature. In this way, this creation uses this creative strategy to set the scene for the narrated events, describe characters or honour writers. This is the case of the following quoted texts that pay homage to the American writer Clive Barker:

> I dreamed a limitless book,
> A book unbound,
> Its leaves scattered in fantastic abundance
> On every line there was a new horizon drawn,
> New heavens supposed;

[3]*The second book of dreams*

New states, new souls.
Clive Barker, Abarat (*Tintenblut*[4], p. 582)

The paratextuality refers to the relationship that the work maintains within its paratext, that is to say, with all the textual components that provide a surrounding to the text (title, subtitle, intertitles, prefaces, epilogues, warnings, prologues, marginal notes, footnotes, endings, epigraphs, illustrations, spine, dust jacket, as well as other types of accessory, autograph or allograft indications) (Genette, 1989, pp. 11-12). This strategy is, of course, an ideal tool for the reception of the narrated facts, as it usually provides key clues or additional data related to the plot. In the prologue of *Die magische Pforte der Anderwelt*[5] (2017), two pieces of information are revealed which are of great use in understanding the story which makes the process of identification of the macrostructure of the work. This information consists of the two thematic elements of the plot's rationale: the importance of a magical portal for the survival of the Elf kingdom and the person who has jeopardised it. (Genette, 1989, pp. 9-10).

Metatextuality is about the observation - as a general rule of thumb — "that links a text to another text that mentions it without actually alluding to it, and even, on the boundary without naming it" (Genette, 1989, p. 13). By Magdalena Lembcke there is *A story is a story is a story*[6] (2006) whereby several paradigmatic meta-textual comments are found. These consist of the personal observations made by a child princess about the story The Little Mermaid by Hans Christian Andersen. The Princess indignantly denies that the little mermaid is deprived of the ability to speak and that she cannot tell the Prince that it was her who saved him: "How dreadful!" [...] "Therefore, she could never get the chance to tell him, that she was the one who saved him" (p. 40).
She tells of his hopes about how both characters will later get married: "But surely if he married her, it would be obvious to say that she was very sweet, right?" (p. 40). And she deems it not necessary to caress the cheeks of the girl who finally gets to marry the love of her life: "On top of this, having to also caress the other girl would not have been necessary"[7] (p. 42).

The intertextual intensification is the creative resource that affects the premise of metaliterature relative to the production of new frames from previous materials with more emphasis. Through this intertextual strategy a chapter of the work is endowed with an unusual density of references to other stories or textual productions (such as, for example, lexical elements, sentences, paratexts, characters, themes, plots, motifs and objects) that are easily recognisable by the recipients of the literary communication.

The aforementioned resource is masterfully implemented in *Tintenherz*[8]. Frequently striking concentrations of references to fictions, cultural fields, texts and genres, both literary and non-literary figures in numerous chapters of his speech which reinforce the idea of the poetic creation as a collage of stories and texts extracted from previous materials, aware of its artificial nature. In this way, we

[4]*Ink Blood*
[5]*The magical portal of the other world*
[6]*Ein Märchen ist ein Märchen ist ein Märchen*
[7]"On top of this, having to also caress the other girl would not have been necessary".
[8]*Ink Hearth.*

introduce the results of the application of this creative strategy here in *Pelz auf dem Sims*[9], the chapter of the first volume with the highest intertextual density: twenty-eight references, five quotes and two explicit dimensions.

The prolongation is a continuation made by the writer of his own work (Genette, 1989 p. 201). This hypertextual procedure does not imply "that what is going on is finalised or not" and its key function "is to exploit in a general way the success of a work, often considered in its time as finished, making it resurface with new adventures" (Genette, 1989, pp. 201-202). This is the case of *Die magische Pforte der Anderwelt*[10] (Regnier, 2017). This work consists of a spin-off that takes up the motives and main characters of a saga of novels that totally ended the year before: *The Pan trilogy*.

Generic hybridism occurs when a literary creation houses at least two texts representative of different genres or subgenres. This strategy beholds a special meaning in *Die Stadt der Träumenden Bücher*[11] by Walter Moers (2006). Its pages show an unusual variety of different literary styles, both literary and extra literary, which emphasise the creative nature of poetic creativity and which, solemnly, violates or will have violated the expectations of most of its readers:

- The narrative style:

> Homunkoloss turned around and looked towards the red curtain.
> “There is one thing you should know more about Orm. You have to have the ability to look at the sky, if you want to savour its energy, the sun and the moon. Down there I was long dead, since that energy could not flow through my body. And whoever has ever felt it run through one’s bones, cannot live without it.”
> “What is the gentleman going on about?” Smeik asked. “The Orm? What importance does the Orm have in the matters that we are dealing with here?” (p. 471)

- The dramatic style:

> Danzelot: “Another thing you should bear in mind: the main thing is not how a story begins, nor how it ends."
> Me: And then what is the most important thing?”
> Danzelot: “What happens in the meantime.”
> Me: “I'll bear it in mind, Danzelot.” (p. 21)

- The lyrical style:

> Or today! Congratulate whoever you wish, the teacher!
> Apparently I already know him; and he also knows my name;
> Likewise, I am acquainted with his friends. I was not aware of this.
> Who was he, since the first time.

[9] *Skin on the shelf.*
[10] *The magical portal of the other world.*
[11] *The City of Dreamy Books.*

When we saw each other I did not realise that he was the teacher! (p. 281)

- The epistolary style:

Dear young friend,
I thank you with all my heart for the manuscript you have sent me. Without ever going over the top, I can say that from my viewpoint this creation is the best work in prose that I have ever had in my hands. It has deeply touched my heart and I hope you forgive me for the next sorrowful thing, since I am incapable of expressing myself in any other way...
[...]
Yours sincerely, Danzelot von Silbendrechsler (pp. 249-250)

- The advertising style:

Claudio Harfenstock
Businessman - Sales Agent - Legal Adviser
Legal and Real Estate services of all kinds. We can do your tax-return (p. 74).

- The essay style:

And no less surprising is the training of blue cauliflower. In that case, attention should be paid to the variations of the inflorescence, and not to the growth of the leaves. The group of flowers shows the gardener his temporary obesity. Its innumerable floral buds that club together in the shape of a compact umbrella thickened with all its stems until it becomes an irregular mass of bluish vegetable fat. Therefore, the blue cauliflower is before flowering, already a plant that suffered a deterioration due to its own fat or, in other words, an ill-fated bouquet of flowers, a withered umbel. (p. 14)

- The testamentary style:

Will
I hope and pray that the first one who reads this testament is not the holder of the name Smeik. However, should it be so, I say to you then, Phistomefel, shame on you: Damn you! May you be cursed until the end of your days I will be dancing on your grave, until the sun crashes into this planet!
But, if you do not go by the name of Phistomefel Smeik, dear reader, I shall proceed to tell you this tragic story: When Phistomefel Smeik, who is my ungrateful nephew of a family as low-cast as him, knocked on my door one unfortunate day - perhaps fleeing from some creditors or from lawyers, he had not the remotest idea of his own depraved moral values. (p. 443)

- A pictorial style of fantastic stories:

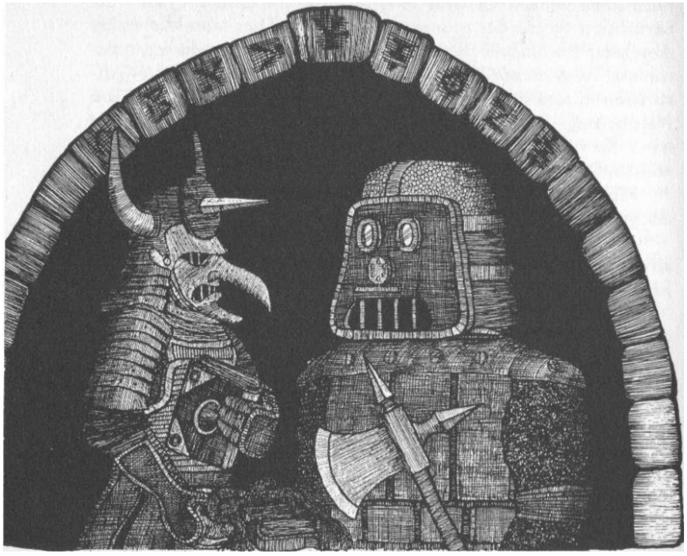

Figure 1. The fearsome book hunters (p. 90)

3. The metalepsis

The metalepsis refers to the creative strategy consisting of the incursion of the narrative or narrative instance in the fictional world or of fictional beings at the enunciative level or other narrative levels, both superior and inferior. This creative resource causes a fracture in the limit of what "we believed to be solid between the diegesis and the narration, between the time of the narrated text and the time of the narration" (Amo, 2016, p. 101), in short, "between the world in which it is narrated and the world from which it is narrated" (Amo, 2016, p. 101).

The violation of the narrative boundaries caused by the metalepsis leads to the rupture of the fictional illusion and affects the artifice character of the creation. This transgression of the basic conventions of the nineteenth-century narrative course encourages the "reader to foster the idea that it is in front of an artifact, whose seams do not allow to differentiate empirical reality from fiction" (Amo, 2016, p. 102).

In the same way, the metaleptic narrative allows the writer to insert in his or her own work some observations on the creative act and the functioning of the *ars litterae*, the reason why the specialised critic deems that it enhances its self-reflective nature in the text and that it is “one of the basic building blocks of the meta-literary building” (Amo, 2016, p. 102). In *Tintenblut*[12] by Cornelia Funke, a writer from the upper level of narrative and supposedly real world makes observations on the process of building tales of good bandits and the literary event on the whole (see the meta-literary commentary) from within his own creation. On the contrary, in *Ein Märchen ist ein Märchen ist ein Märchen*[13] (2006) three inhabitants of the diegetic level move to the supposed empirical world and talk about some basic conventions of fairy tales to a writer.

[12]*Ink blood*.
[13]*A story is a story is a story.*

Through the metaleptic narrative even the boundaries between our world and fiction can be worlds apart. In the corpus under study, we have identified three metaleptic procedures that cause this ontological violation. The first one, the parallel reading, effects a transgression of diegetic levels, whose expansive wave reaches even the empirical reader (Amo, 2016, p. 103). This transgression occurs when the acts of reading this figure and an inhabitant of the diegetic cosmos run parallel to one another. This is the case of the narration *Das dritte Buch der Träume*[14] (2015), in which empirical readers read emails or blogs during the same time slot as the young heroine of the story.

The next narrative resource consists of direct reference. It is a unique allusion that textualises the recipient of literary communication through direct appeals of the narrator (such as, for instance, dear readers) or deictic elements such as first or second person pronouns, in both singular and plural forms. These appeals place him as a character in the narrative world "without ceasing to also be the extratextual reader" (Lozano, 2007, p. 170).

In *Die Stadt der Träumenden Bücher* we can probably encounter the most representative example of direct allusion. In the first two chapters of this work the narrative figure addresses or maintains a flow of direct conversation with the empirical recipients to, among others, provide them with information about the story, insult them, flatter them or congratulate them for having agreed to accompany them on the adventure that has just commenced (p. 9).

Welcome everyone, my reckless friends, you are made of wood, the very essence that adventurers are made from! So, without further ado, our trip starts straightaway, since it is a trip to Book-Home, the city of dreamy books, the city of old bookstores. Make sure your shoes are well fastened, since a large part of our journey takes place on rocky and rugged terrain, and then we have to cross endless meadows, where thick spiky one metre-tall stems abound and can prove as sharp as knives. (*Die Stadt der Träumenden Bücher*, 9)

The extreme ascending metalepsis forms the third and final strategy. This narrative practice is about a fake intertextual text or procedure that aims to give a real status to an imaginary character. A very illustrative example of this type of meta-literary resource is provided by *Tintentod*[15] (2012) by Cornelia Funke. This resides in a fictitious bibliographical reference, located in the bibliography section, that confers to a writer of the diegesis the own ontological condition of a writer of the empirical world: “FENOGLIO: *The songs of the jay*, Pages 271 and 338f. Of the same, *The songs of the jay*, illustrations by Balbulus, Ombra, 2007” (*Tintentod*, 753).

4. The meta-literary comment

Most likely, the assiduous reader of the meta-literary narrative will have encountered at least one observation about information related to the same work he or she is reading or other works, to the

[14] *The third book of dreams.*
[15] *Ink Death.*

creative process, to rhetorical styles, to literary theories, to the literary phenomenon in general, etc. This narrative strategy consists of meta-literary commentary.

Owing to its informative nature, meta-literary commentary constitutes an optimal tool to uncover narrative or linguistic fictional strategies applied in narration. Within the literary production itself, it forms a metanarrative or metalinguistic space with commentaries on narrative or linguistic formulas, the act of writing, literary theories, the writer's thoughts, etc.

The aforementioned comment is, by the way, used in numerous meta-literary works both to explain reader processes and various literary writing techniques, as well as to promote the co-creativity of the recipients of fiction in the literary-literary process. It is through these means that the readers become involved in the game of literary conventions and at once they become familiar with how the narrations function in a playful way, which, as we have previously witnessed, allows them to identify the creative techniques operating on numerous occasions by their own accord and without need for the help of a teacher.

In the same way, meta-literary commentary forms an ideal narrative method to explain the development and progression of the writing process. This type of commentary shows styles of realisation of the poetic act that occur along with the reading of the literary text, thus allowing the reader to observe the artist's decisions of the word throughout his work of fictional creativity. According to Silva-Díaz, this creative resource makes "the story deals with the very act of telling a story and not with other types of events" (2005, p. 186). A narrator has all the intention of telling a story, but is distracted by reflections on "the act of telling, so that the original intention is branched out in order to articulate the meaning (the moment in which counts)" (p. 186).

In the second volume of the *Ink World* trilogy we have the chance to read a vast amount of meta-literary comments on issues related to the literary phenomenon in general and basic conventions of traditional stories, such as those listed: creative strategies; the creation, characterisation, selection, organisation, relevance and function of the characters; the catharsis; the implementation of intertextual resources; and ways of endowing the action with emotion and suspense. In this regard, it is noteworthy to highlight some fascinating thoughts on the physical appearance of traditional rhetoric heroes, from whose text we learn that these key figures for the diegesis to work cannot be too young or too old and should possess a great stature and solemn appearance:

> For the character of the Jay they were not worth many men. He could not be too old, not too young. It goes without saying that they could not be short and stocky either. Heroes can never be short, fat or ugly, in the real world this may be the case, but never in literature. No, the Jay had to be tall and possess a majestic physical appearance. It had to be someone who could win over the love of the people... (*Tintenblut*, 294).

5. Conclusions

In light of the analysis carried out in this work, we can verify the plus points that young reader meta-literary novels entail for the development of reader-literary competence. This narrative teaches the reader both in basic conventions of the nineteenth-century narrative and in the functioning of the art of the word, plus encourages creative activity in the process of literary communication, as well as the ability of the intertext reader to establish intertextual relationships.

In the studied works, implemented meta-literary strategies that transgress the conventions of nineteenth-century narrative related to the reception and production of texts while also exposing both creative processes and generation of meaning. As Prof. de Amo points out, we are faced with creative practices that are characterised "by breaking with the production and reception codes in force in the sphere of Literature, as well as by showing how a work is made and how the meaning is formulated" (Amo, 2016,p. 107).

In the aforementioned novels, the idea of the reader is brought forth as co-author of the work, since he or she, like the author, has to productively confront the hypo-texts and actively involve himself or herself in the generation of textual meanings. They encourage the creative participation of their audience while receiving the work. To a certain extent, the latter is forced to implement their knowledge and skills related to the literary fact in the most suitable way, as well as to establish more complex intertextual relationships. This way of producing literature demands a more qualified and apt reader to "apply a greater amount of knowledge, skills and attitudes related to the literary system and be more experienced in the game of intertextual relationships" (Amo, 2016, p. 108).

For these reasons, we are able to put the topic in a nutshell and conclude that the analysed texts are masterful teaching tools to illustrate the reader in the hypertext reading mode and encourage creative reading. In order to ensure a correct interpretation of the narrated facts, their audience must address an extraordinary amount of intertextual relationships and become more involved in story with the aim of providing a meaning.

In addition to encourage the development of the intertext reader, hypertextual reading carried out in the above-mentioned parodic texts lends itself to pleasure reading and raises the recipient's self-esteem of literary communication while interpreting the work throughout. Its speeches are riddled with explicit remissions that are easy to recognise, whose discovery has the added consequence of a pleasurable playful effect along with a feeling of satisfaction plus pride in the receiver for having been able to successfully overcome such action, a fact that, incidentally, at the same time helps the reader's habit and therefore, is encouraged to undertake the reading of other creations.

On the other hand, the studied novels illustrate to the reader literary conventions in a playful way. His or her constant ostentatious acts of his or her condition as a poetic artifice lead him or her to pay attention to the creative strategies, codes and norms that they themselves implement in the very process of literary communication or throughout the plot. As a result, they portray both textual modes of production and narrative techniques that allow him or her to undertake creative writing tasks and, therefore, imagine and create new fiction.

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LA PROBLEMÁTICA EN TORNO AL ELEMENTO DE JUNTURA: TENDENCIAS EN SU USO EN ENTIDADES LÉXICAS COMPUESTAS EN LENGUA ALEMANA CON ESPECIAL ATENCIÓN AL CAMPO SEMÁNTICO DE LA CULTURA GASTRONÓMICA

EXPLAINING THE LINKING ELEMENT: CERTAIN PATTERNS OF USE IN GERMAN COMPOUNDS WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON THE SEMANTIC FIELD OF GASTRONOMY

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Resumen

En el presente artículo analizaremos diferentes entidades léxicas en el campo semántico de la gastronomía en lengua alemana, entidades categorizadas como compuestos y unidas mediante un elemento de juntura; este elemento enlaza sus diferentes constituyentes y se encuentra localizado en medio de los mismos, esto es, señala el lugar de cohesión de los miembros del compuesto y se define como nexo ilativo. El objeto de este estudio es triple: a) reflejar, en primer lugar, la arbitrariedad del elemento de juntura porque no existe una regla fija para determinar cuál debe aparecer en cada composición; su motivación no es intrínseca y su presencia o, en caso contrario, su ausencia no es lógica ni racional y, además, su posición como elemento de unión no es, sin embargo, unánimemente aceptada en todos los estudios gramaticales del alemán; b) es nuestra intención, en segundo lugar, destapar la problemática que ha suscitado para considerarlo siempre como elemento de unión o, en algunas ocasiones, como elemento flexivo; c) y, finalmente, perfilar una serie de tendencias en el uso del elemento de juntura en el campo léxico de la cultura gastronómica en lengua alemana.

Palabras clave: Morfología derivativa, entidades léxicas compuestas, elemento de juntura, cultura gastronómica, lengua alemana

Abstract

This article deals with the analysis of a set of compounds that belong to the semantic field of gastronomy in the German language and the constituents of which are linked by a linking element in the middle of the word that marks the linking point; this linking elements act thus as markers between words. The aim of this research is on the one hand, to discuss the arbitrariness of the linking element, since there is no rule that states which one must be used in each compound lacking thus an intrinsic function or a logical or rational reason. Moreover, its place as a linking element is not universally accepted by all linguistics. On the other hand, we will try to analyze its role as a plain linking element or as a flexive particle. All this analysis will be carried out within the semantic field of German gastronomy with the aim to outline certain patterns of use.

Key words: Word formation, composition, linking element, semantic field of gastronomy, German language

1. ESTADO DE LA CUESTIÓN

Entendemos bajo el concepto de formación de palabras el conjunto de diferentes procedimientos para la formación de nuevas entidades partiendo de la base de palabras ya existentes; se trata de una importante disciplina en el ámbito de la morfología, pero sin olvidar su ligazón con otros campos y con cuya tradición dentro de la germanística nos sentimos especialmente concernidos. Esta disciplina cumple con la necesidad de introducir, en las distintas lenguas, asignaciones léxicas orientadas a la economía del lenguaje, mediante diferentes procedimientos entre los que destacan, tradicionalmente, dos procesos: composición y derivación.

En la composición se incluyen unidades léxicas cuyos constituyentes son también palabras y en la derivación aquellas formadas por una palabra base y un morfema ligado, de tal manera que los resultados de estos procedimientos son productos compuestos y derivados, respectivamente. La delimitación de las mismas está determinada sistemáticamente por la naturaleza de los morfemas implicados, de tal manera que en el proceso de derivación interviene un morfema fundamental junto con un morfema ligado, mientras que en la composición se trata de un morfema fundamental o morfema libre junto con otro morfema fundamental o libre.

A este respecto, es importante destacar que entre las dos unidades que forman el compuesto puede haber un elemento de unión que enlaza los diferentes constituyentes de la composición y se encuentra localizado en medio de los mismos, esto es, señala el lugar de cohesión entre los miembros de una composición, motivo por el cual se define como nexo ilativo, con la particularidad de ser una unidad semánticamente vacía. Dicho elemento se halla fuera de la estructura compositiva, pero son muchos los interrogantes que lo rodean debido tanto a su arbitrariedad como a su complejidad.

En este sentido, nos centraremos a lo largo del artículo en el análisis del elemento de juntura en aquellas entidades léxicas categorizadas como compuestos en el campo semántico de la restauración, ya que el "Turismo de gastronomía" ha adquirido en los últimos tiempos una gran relevancia, al aumentar el interés por la cultura culinaria del país que se visita, especialmente, países como España donde el sector turístico desempeña un papel fundamental a nivel socio-económico con un elevado número de visitantes procedentes de países de habla germana[1], motivo por el cual resulta esencial el conocimiento léxico de este campo en la disciplina de la lingüística aplicada y del lenguaje para fines específicos en lengua alemana.

[1] Cfr. los datos del turismo del año 2016 ofrecidos por el Ministerio de Energía, Turismo y Agenda digital del Gobierno de España disponibles en http://www.minetad.gob.es/es-es/gabineteprensa/notasprensa/2017/documents/turespa%C3%B1a%20avance%20cierre%202016.pdf [consulta: 23/06/2017] y la nota de prensa del 31 de enero de 2017 del Instituto Nacional de Estadística sobre la Estadística de Movimientos Turísticos en Fronteras (FRONTUR) disponible en http://www.ine.es/daco/daco42/frontur/frontur1216.pdf [consulta: 23/06/2017] donde se refleja el importante movimiento de turistas que acoge España, datos que suponen un impacto muy significativo en nuestra economía e implica que un elevado número de nuestros egresados sean especialistas en el sector turístico con un importante dominio de las lenguas, especialmente, del inglés y del alemán.

2. OBJETIVOS

Al hilo de esta exposición, nos parece acertado dar cuenta de que en ciertas composiciones, aunque en realidad se cuentan como excepciones, el elemento de unión aparece ligado a una diferencia de significado como ocurre, por ejemplo, en las palabras *Landmann* vs. *Landsmann*, *Kindbett* vs. *Kinderbett*, *Volkskunde* vs. *Völkerkunde*, al igual que se pueden apreciar también ciertas diferencias regionales en cuanto a su uso. A modo de ejemplo, destacamos que en Suiza hay una tendencia a perder la –e– como elemento de juntura (*Bandanstalt*, *Ruhbett*), mientras que en Baviera es más fuerte la introducción de dicho elemento (*Einmacheglas*, *Schlachtemesser*, *Singegrüppe*); lo mismo ocurre en la palabra suiza *Abfahrtzeit*, donde no aparece ningún elemento de unión, frente al término alemán *Abfahrtszeit*, unido mediante el elemento –s–, o en el caso de la unidad léxica austriaca *Fabriksarbeiter*, donde sí aparece un elemento de juntura en medio de sus constituyentes, frente a la alemana *Fabrikarbeiter* que carece del mismo (Kienpointner 1985; Donalies 2002).

Así pues, la arbitrariedad es una de las características fundamentales del elemento de juntura que muchos de los lingüistas atribuyen a una cuestión del uso del idioma y a las convenciones creadas por la tradición. Según algunos autores, como Lühr (1996) o Fleischer (1971), su finalidad estriba en actuar como señal fronteriza, mientras que otros lingüistas, por el contrario, atribuyen su presencia a tendencias de la lengua: "Als allomorphischer Zuwachs von Phonemem können die Fugenelemente erklärt werden, allerdings kaum nach Regeln, allenfalls als „Tendenzen“" (Polenz en Kienpointner 1985: 34).

En este artículo nuestro objetivo es reflejar, en primer lugar, la arbitrariedad del elemento de juntura porque no existe una regla fija para determinar cuál debe aparecer en cada composición; su motivación no es intrínseca y su presencia o, en caso contrario, su ausencia no es lógica ni racional como demuestran las siguientes secuencias: *Arbeit-s-vertrag*, *Arbeit-s-klima*, pero *Arbeit-ø-geber*, *Arbeit-ø-nehmer* o *Arbeit-er-viertel*. Además, su posición como elemento de unión no es, sin embargo, unánimemente aceptada en todos los estudios gramaticales del alemán; una concepción convencional es englobarlo como parte integrante de las composiciones frente a otra que considera que se trata de un elemento itinerante entre la base y el sufijo. Finalmente, nos gustaría destapar la problemática que ha suscitado para considerarlo siempre como elemento de unión o, en algunas ocasiones, como elemento flexivo; esta problemática que rodea al elemento de juntura en lengua alemana será analizada, a continuación, desde una perspectiva onomasiológica en el campo de la restauración, a fin de entrever una serie de tendencias en su uso.

3. LA PROBLEMÁTICA EN TORNO AL ELEMENTO DE JUNTURA

El elemento de unión recibe en alemán diferentes denominaciones; es conocido comúnmente como *Fugenelement*, pero también se alude al mismo como *Bindelement*, *Fugenzeichen*, *Kompositionsfuge*, *Interfix*, *Verbindungskitt* o, más tradicionalmente, *Fugen-s* y representa el lugar de unión de los constituyentes que forman una palabra compleja. Este elemento puede aparecer bajo diferentes formas lingüísticas, de las cuales las más características son: –en–, –(e)s–, –e– y –er–, teniendo en cuenta que su origen se encuentra en la marca de genitivo masculino y neutro en singular (–es–) (Götze y Hess–Lüttich 2005).

Por esta razón, muchos lingüistas, entre ellos, Fleischer (1971), Stepanowa y Fleischer (1985), Stepanova y Černyševa (1986), Kienpointner (1985)[2], Weinrich (1993)[3] o Römer (2006) lo insertan en el campo de la composición como un elemento que señala el nexo de unión formal dentro del compuesto pudiendo aparecer, por lo tanto, mediante diferentes formas y, en algunos casos, mediante el denominado *Null-Fuge*, es decir, quedar vacío. En este sentido, Römer (2006: 30) manifiesta la siguiente postura al respecto: "Fugenelemente werden manchmal auch als „leere Zeichen" angesehen, als leer in Bezug auf die Inhaltsseite von Zeichen. Fugenelemente treten innerhalb von Komposita an Kompositionsfugen auf".

Así, Fleischer (1971) encaja el elemento de unión en el campo de la composición, más concretamente, en el campo de aquellos compuestos que tienen sustantivos y raíces verbales como primer constituyente. Este autor realiza una síntesis, que merece especial atención, del uso del elemento de unión en el alemán actual donde considera que el más frecuente es –(e)s–, la mayoría sin –e–, no existiendo reglas para establecer el uso de uno u otro. Por otra parte, destaca también el elemento de unión –(e)n– que suele aparecer en femeninos que acaban en –e y, por último, considera como una clase especial los elementos de unión –o– e –i–, procedentes de la vocal de composición griega –o– y de la latina –i–, en unión con préstamos extranjeros. En posteriores investigaciones, Stepanowa junto con Fleischer (1985) definen el elemento de unión como una forma dentro de la composición y en el campo de la formación de palabras sustantivas, siendo frecuente su aparición con primeros constituyentes sustantivos o raíces verbales. Los elementos de unión más frecuentes son –(e)s–, –(e)n–, –ens–, –e–, –er–, siendo–(e)s– el más común y cuyo uso está determinado por factores como la estructura morfológica del primer constituyente inmediato o el género del mismo; por otro lado, es frecuente también el elemento de unión –(e)n–, ligado en la mayoría de los casos a sustantivos femeninos que acaban en –e; sin embargo, es poco habitual el uso de –ens–, así como el de –e– o –er–. Del mismo modo, Stepanova en colaboración con Černyševa (1986) lo relacionan con los compuestos, motivo por el cual lo definen como la unión de ambos componentes y consideran que, desde un punto de vista formal, coincide tanto con morfemas gramaticales de flexión en caso genitivo como con sufijos de plurales, donde destacan los siguientes constituyentes como los más comunes: –(e)s–, –(e)n–, –er–, –e–, –ens–.

[2] Kienpointner (1985) hace referencia a este constituyente sólo en los compuestos que contienen una raíz verbal donde los elementos de unión más relevantes son –ø– y –e–.

[3] Weinrich (1993) considera que tanto en las composiciones adjetivales como en las sustantivales con un sustantivo como palabra determinante, aparecen diferentes elementos de unión como son los siguientes: –n–, –en–, –e–, –er–, –s–, –es–, –ns–, –ens– o, en algunos casos, sin elemento de unión. Este autor también hace referencia a que en algunas ocasiones los elementos de juntura coinciden formalmente con el número del sustantivo que actúa como palabra determinante y, debido a esta coincidencia formal, ha presupuesto una compatibilidad con los elementos flexivos de la declinación numeral: *die Kraft / die Kräfte* → *kraftsparend / kräftezehrend*.

Sin embargo, existen posturas encontradas con respecto a la anterior, ya que algunos autores consideran que el elemento de unión no solo forma parte de la composición, sino que también aparece en la derivación explícita, esto es, ocupando el lugar entre la base y el sufijo; se trata de segmentos que se encuentran tanto en la unión de compuestos como en la de derivados, si bien concurren mayoritariamente en la unión de compuestos sustantivales[4]. Entre los lingüistas que consideran como elementos de unión aquellos que se encuentran entre la base y el sufijo, en concreto, Fleischer y Barz (1995) van más lejos y lo denominan interfijo, postura que también comparten Kühnhold, Putzer y Wellmann (1978)[5] o Motsch (2004).

En el caso de Fleischer y Barz (1995), estos investigadores designan los elementos de unión con el término interfijo, término ya utilizado por Stepanowa y Fleischer (1985: 67): "Anders als Präfix und Suffix erscheint das Interfix nicht als eigenständiges Worbildungsmorphem, sondern als eine –semantisch nicht differenzierende– morphonologische Erscheinung an der Grenze zwischen Derivationsbasis und –suffix: öffen-t-lich, dokument-ar-isch". Fleischer y Barz destacan que hay otros términos utilizados como elementos de unión y los definen como segmentos semánticamente "vacíos", es decir, no aportan ningún significado en la unión de los constituyentes de una formación. Los fonemas o secuencias fonéticas más frecuentes que se intercalan son las siguientes: –e–, –(e)n–, –(e)s–,–ens–, –er–, –i–, –o–; aparecen con mayor frecuencia en la unión de compuestos sustantivales, pero también se consideran interfijos los elementos que se encuentran entre la base y el sufijo de derivados sustantivales y adjetivales y no se clasifican de forma clara ni dentro del primer constituyente ni dentro del segundo, por lo tanto, es una clase específica que da lugar tanto a características comunes como diferenciadas. De esta manera, se puede elaborar un inventario de los morfemas de formación en alemán teniendo en cuenta que, en el caso de las derivaciones, aparecen unidos de forma más fuerte a determinadas bases o sufijos[6].

En este sentido, nos centraremos en el elemento de juntura en el proceso compositivo, campo al que pertenecen los ejemplos analizados en el ámbito de la cultura gastronómica, aunque es importante resaltar que no hay solo discrepancias entre los lingüistas en lo referido a dónde se enmarca el elemento

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[4] Autores como Donalies (2002) consideran controvertidos los casos de derivación explícita donde aparecen elementos entre la base y el sufijo como *gelegen-t-lich* u *öffen-t-lich*, ya que en lingüística se plantea si se deben considerar como un elemento de unión en la derivación o interfijo, es decir, como una categoría propia que está a la misma altura que los elementos de unión en los compuestos, aunque se trataría de categorías independientes, o si se ha de interpretar como parte del sufijo. En este sentido, Donalies interpreta estos constituyentes como un elemento de unión.

[5] Estos lingüistas incluyen el elemento de unión tanto en las formaciones de compuestos como en la de derivados y, tras realizar un estudio estadístico, abordan la cuestión del nexo ilativo, por un lado, en los compuestos y en aquellas construcciones con sufijoides y, por otro lado, en las formaciones con sufijos.

[6] Estos lingüistas hacen hincapié en no confundir los presentes interfijos con los infijos, ya que estos últimos se refieren a los afijos que se encuentran en el interior de una formación de palabras, de tal manera que se caracterizan por tener relevancia semántica (significado léxico) y que, al contrario de los interfijos, se unen a la base de la derivación: "Anders als Interfixe sind Infixe wie Präfixe und Suffixe semantisch relevant, werden aber nicht vor- oder nachgestellt, sondern in die Derivationsbasis eingefügt" (Fleischer y Barz 1995: 33).

de juntura, sino también a qué tipo de función desempeña en la entidad léxica. De forma general y, en concreto, autores como Naumann (1986), consideran que debido al número tan restringido de composiciones donde el elemento de unión tiene una función distintiva, como ha quedado reflejado en los ejemplos anteriormente mencionados, no es posible considerarlo como un morfema. De este modo, podemos destacar que su función principal, desde un punto de vista estrictamente léxico, es señalar, ya sea tanto al oyente como al lector, el lugar donde debe hacerse la separación entre las partes principales del compuesto, teniendo en cuenta que dicho elemento se amalgama siempre a la palabra precedente. De este modo, al facilitar tanto la pronunciación o la lectura (*Hochzeitstorte* vs. **Hochzeittorte*) como la recepción de esa unidad léxica compleja, ayuda a que su comprensión sea más rápida (cfr., entre otros, Götze y Hess–Lüttich 2005; Donalies 2002).

Por este motivo, si consideramos que su finalidad es enlazar las diferentes partes de la composición localizado en medio de las mismas, esto es, señalar el lugar de cohesión entre los diferentes miembros de una composición y, por eso, se define como un nexo ilativo con la particularidad de ser una unidad semánticamente vacía, lingüistas, como es el caso de Donalies (2002), lo consideran como una excepción entre aquellas unidades que forman parte de los diferentes procesos de formación de palabras porque sus funciones solo son morfológicas, de tal manera que no puede formar palabras. Sin embargo, aunque los elementos de unión se encuentran, de ordinario, en los compuestos y a veces reciben la denominación de signos vacíos en relación al contenido, lingüistas como Römer (2006: 30-31), con quien nos mostramos de acuerdo, ya que estos elementos cumplen una función inexcusable, consideran que la característica del elemento de unión como vacío es cuestionable porque puede tener funciones específicas como son las siguientes:

> a) Sie helfen beim Verstehen der Konstituentenhierarchie (Universität-s-verwaltung-s-angestellter), b) sie markieren den Plural des Erstgliedes (Frau-en-arzt, Frau-en-versteher, Frau-en-haus), c) sie zeigen den Genitiv des Erstgliedes an (Staat-s-kasse, Wirt-s-haus), d) sie markieren Bedeutungs- und Kategoriendifferenzierungen (Land-es-verteidigung = 'Statt' vs. Länd-er-spiel = 'Staaten' (…)), e) sie zeigen eine stilistische Differenzierung an (Mond-schein vs. Mond-en-schein).

En este orden de cosas, nos ha llamado poderosamente la atención la problemática suscitada en torno a la cuestión planteada de forma bastante clara por algunos autores de si se trata realmente de un elemento de unión o si, por el contrario, es un morfema flexivo; las respuestas a esta pregunta, aparentemente trivial, no son fáciles de dar por desacuerdos y discrepancias en torno a la cuestión liderada, fundamentalmente, por dos posturas concretas. En primer lugar, la que considera como elemento de unión todo aquel constituyente que se encuentra localizado entre el primer y el segundo miembro, por lo que esta posición contempla todo como elemento de juntura. A este respecto, autores, como es el caso de Bergmann, Pauly y Stricker (2005), consideran que el elemento de unión es algo diferente a la flexión y no está en relación con la flexión del primer constituyente, aunque en algunos casos coincida desde un punto de vista formal; en esta línea, Lühr (1996) considera que los elementos como –e– o –es– que aparecen en construcciones tales como *Hund-e-futter* (‘*der Hunde Futter*’ → ‘*Futter für Hunde*’) o *Wald-es-rand* (‘*des Waldes Rand*’ → ‘*Rand des Waldes*’) son auténticos elementos de unión y no morfemas flexivos porque, al margen de esa construcción, no poseen la función de un morfema flexivo, es decir, no tienen la categoría de morfema, ya que en el caso de *Waldesrand*, al ser además una construcción endocéntrica, significa lo mismo que sin el elemento de unión[7].

En segundo lugar, se encuentra aquella postura que considera que el primer miembro puede ser un elemento flexivo, de tal manera que se excluyen como elementos de unión aquellas unidades que se pueden encontrar como paradigma de flexión del primer miembro. Esta segunda posición es defendida por aquellos autores que consideran que la forma de la palabra es flexiva siempre y cuando el paradigma de flexión de la primera unidad contenga esa forma; así pues, Donalies (2002), por ejemplo, no considera como elementos de unión aquellas unidades que coinciden con la flexión del primer constituyente como la –es– en *Sohnespflicht* ('Pflicht des Sohnes') que representa la marca de genitivo o en el caso de –e– en *Ärztehaus*, la marca de plural, pero, en el caso contrario, la forma –s– en la palabra *Arbeitsanzug* no se puede explicar de ningún modo como una forma flexiva[8].

De tal manera que los elementos de unión, generalmente, funcionan como señales fronterizas, a excepción de aquellas cuya presencia o ausencia implica una función distintiva, es decir, significan un rasgo distintivo en el más estricto sentido jakobiano de la palabra. Así pues, compartimos la misma postura que lingüistas como Fleischer (1971: 117), quien considera que dicho elemento no tiene carácter de signo flexivo: "Das Fugenelement hat also nicht mehr die Funktion eines Flexionszeichens. Es ist überhaupt kein Zeichen mehr, sondern eine Setzung oder Unterlassung eine Frage des Sprachgebrauchs, der Konvention, der Üblichkeit – ohne funktionelle Motivation"; postura también defendida por otros autores como Stepanova y Černyševa (1986: 97), quienes consideran que el elemento de unión no se puede clasificar como un verdadero morfema, sino como un signo o elemento facultativo de unión, es decir, representa una clase de morfema vacío, un elemento intraestructural desprovisto de significado:

> das Fugenelement sei in der Gegenwartssprache kein regelrechtes Morphem, sondern nur ein fakultatives Funkionzeichen der Verbindung von zwei Konstituenten miteinander, das teilweise infolge einer historischen Tradition, teilweise aus phonetischen Gründen, dabei aber bei weitem nicht immer konsequent genug gebraucht wird. Das heißt, daß das Fugenelement eine Art von „leerem Morph", ein strukturelles Element ohne Inhalt darstellt.

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[7] En este grupo, además, algunos lingüistas, como Eisenberg (2004) o Römer (2006), diferencian entre elementos de unión paradigmáticos y no paradigmáticos. Así pues, basándose en Fuhrhop, los paradigmáticos son aquellos que forman con el primer constituyente una unidad flexiva, lo que no ocurriría con los no paradigmáticos. Por su parte, Römer (2006) toma como base los siguientes ejemplos: *Amtsgericht* y *Versicherungsvertreter*, donde se refleja que ambos tienen la consonante –s– en el lugar de unión entre los constituyentes inmediatos del compuesto, pero la diferencia es que el elemento de juntura en el primer ejemplo es paradigmático y, por el contrario, en el segundo ejemplo no lo es, porque en el caso de *Amtsgericht* tiene su origen en el elemento flexivo ('das Gericht des Amts'), mientras que no ocurre lo mismo en el caso de *Versicherungsvertreter*.

[8] Entre los diferentes elementos de unión, esta autora destaca los siguientes: –i– (*Stratigrafie*) que se encuentra raras veces en las composiciones y, generalmente, en las compuestas por confijos; –o– (*Thermometer*) que aparece en las composiciones realizadas con préstamos griegos y –s– (*Geschwindigkeitsrausch*) que generalmente aparece en las composiciones en las que el primer elemento, sustantivos femeninos, se ha obtenido por derivación mediante los siguientes sufijos: –heit, –ion, –ität, –keit/–igkeit, –schaft, –ung.

O Naumann (1986: 25) quien arguye que el elemento de juntura no posee estatus de morfema debido a que son mínimas las ocasiones en las que tiene una función distintiva: "diese Fälle reichen jedoch nicht aus, dem Fugenelement Morphemstatus zuzuerkennen".

4. ANÁLISIS DEL ELEMENTO DE JUNTURA EN EL PROCESO COMPOSITIVO CON ESPECIAL ATENCIÓN A ENTIDADES LÉXICAS EN EL CAMPO SEMÁNTICO DE LA GASTRONOMÍA

En lo que a la composición se refiere, se trata de un proceso altamente productivo mediante el cual se obtiene una construcción compleja formada, al menos, por dos piezas léxicas libres que pueden aparecer también como morfemas independientes con significado propio. Tomando como punto de partida la definición de Fleischer (1971: 50), podemos formular que la composición es "eine Morphemkonstruktion, deren unmittelbare Konstituenten auch als freie Morpheme oder Morphemkonstruktionen vorkommen können", donde los constituyentes que la forman se unen mediante diferentes elementos de unión, motivo por el cual, de forma generalizada, muchos autores adoptan esta postura, es decir, incluir el elemento de juntura como parte del proceso compositivo aunque, como ya hemos manifestado anteriormente, otros lingüistas lo clasifican como un elemento que se encuentra en la derivación explícita y, más concretamente, en el caso de los sufijos, esto es, entre la base y el sufijo. Así, se considera, por norma general, que el punto de partida del elemento de unión es la marcación del atributo de genitivo, pero no es fácil intentar describir las regularidades productivas más importantes y algunas tendencias generales en la forma del elemento de unión en el alemán actual, al igual que abarcarlas tomando como punto de partida su funcionalidad (Eisenberg 2004).

El elemento de juntura suele encontrarse en aquellos compuestos, especialmente, de categoría sustantiva cuyo primer componente es, por norma general, también un sustantivo o, en otros casos, una raíz verbal que se une a la palabra fundamental mediante diferentes elementos de unión, de los cuales los más frecuentes son –(e)s–, –(e)n–, –ens–, –e–, –er– (Fleischer 1971; Stepanowa y Fleischer 1985), aunque es de destacar, especialmente, la presencia de un elemento de unión vacío en compuestos determinativos formados por dos sustantivos, es decir, en aquellos donde tanto la palabra fundamental como la determinante son de categoría sustantiva careciendo, la mayoría de estos compuestos, de elemento de juntura. Al tener en cuenta estas consideraciones, observamos una serie de tendencias en el uso, empleo y frecuencia del elemento de juntura en el campo léxico gastronómico; en este sentido, los compuestos analizados, enlazados entre sí mediante un elemento de unión, están formados por dos sustantivos y, según el género que presenta el primer constituyente, es decir, la palabra determinante, hemos observado algunas disposiciones que exponemos a continuación.

En primer lugar, se encuentran aquellos compuestos cuyo primer constituyente es de género masculino y la tendencia que presenta este grupo, al unirse al sustantivo que actúa como palabra fundamental, es realizarlo mediante el elemento de juntura –(e)n–, generalmente sólo a través de –n–. En el corpus analizado en el marco de la restauración en lengua alemana, la mayoría de los sustantivos que actúa como palabra determinante forma parte de aquellos que se rigen por la flexión débil del sustantivo, es decir, la denominada declinación en –n como son, por ejemplo, "Bauer" (*Bauer-n-brot*), "Hase" (*Hase-n-braten, Hase-n-brot*), "Löwe" (*Löwe-n-maul*, *Löwe-n-zahn*) o el término "Ochse" que genera una serie de compuestos de forma muy productiva (*Ochse-n-blut*, *Ochse-n-brust, Ochse-n-fleisch, Ochse-n-galle, Ochse-n-gaumen, Ochse-n-maul, Ochse-n-maul-salat*, *Ochse-n-schwanz, Ochse-n-schwanz-suppe, Ochse-n-schlepp-suppe, Ochse-n-zunge*).

En este grupo de compuestos, destacan aquellos que hacen referencia a la parte del cuerpo de un animal donde el elemento de juntura coincide, desde el punto de vista formal, con los morfemas gramaticales de flexión en caso genitivo del constituyente inmediato, es decir, al aplicar la prueba del test transformacional se observa que el elemento de unión coincide formalmente con la función de genitivo. Si tomamos como ejemplo el término *Ochsengaumen*, este compuesto se parafrasearía de la siguiente manera: 'Gaumen des Ochsen', paráfrasis que se hace extensiva al resto de los compuestos (*Ochsenmaul* = 'Maul des Ochsen', *Ochsenschwanz* = 'Schwanz des Ochsen', etc.), función que se correspondería de igual manera en aquellos compuestos idiomáticos como es el caso de *Löwenzahn* ('Zahn des Löwen')[9].

En relación con los compuestos cuya palabra determinante es un sustantivo de género neutro, hemos observado que sus constituyentes se unen, generalmente, mediante el elemento de juntura –(e)s–, en la mayoría de los términos se emplea solo el elemento –s–, coincidiendo, de nuevo, con morfemas gramaticales de flexión en caso genitivo como ocurre, por ejemplo, con la serie de compuestos cuyo primer término es “Kalb” (*Kalb-s-bries, Kalb-s-brust, Kalb-s-hachse, Kalb-s-herz, Kalb-s-keule, Kalb-s-kopf, Kalb-s-leber, Kalb-s-leberwurst, Kalb-s-medaillon, Kalb-s-schnitzel, Kalb-s-steak, Kalb-s-zunge*), los formados por el término “Meer” (*Meer-es-krebs, Meer-es-früchte*), por la palabra “Rind” (*Rind-s-braten, Rind-s-gulasch, Rind-s-fett, Rind-s-suppe*) o por el constituyente “Schwein” que genera una serie de compuestos de manera muy productiva en el campo semántico de la cultura gastronómica (*Schwein-s-äuglein, Schwein-s-braten, Schwein-s-bratwurst, Schwein-s-fuß, Schwein-s-hachse, Schwein-s-keule, Schwein-s-kopf, Schwein-s-kopf-sülze, Schwein-s-lende, Schwein-s-ohr, Schwein-s-rippe, Schwein-s-schnitzel, Schwein-s-zunge*)[10] [11].

En este sentido, y al igual que los sustantivos del primer grupo de género masculino, el elemento de unión cumple la función de genitivo, generalmente, cuando el compuesto hace referencia a una de

[9] Hay una serie de términos que no siguen esta regla por cuestiones fonéticas, ya que rompería la armonía sonora; en este grupo se encuentran aquellos compuestos cuya palabra determinante termina en una consonante africada como [ʃ] (*Fisch-ø-suppe*; *Fleisch-ø-brühe*, *Fleisch-ø-klößchen*; *Frosch-ø-schenkel*; *Haifisch-ø-flosse*, *Haifisch-ø-flosse-n-suppe*; *Hirsch-ø-kalb*, *Hirsch-ø-rücken*, *Hirsch-ø-steak*, *Hirsch-ø-talg*, *Hirsch-ø-zunge*) o [s] (*Lachs-ø-brötchen*, *Lachs-ø-fisch*, *Lachs-ø-forelle*, *Lachs-ø-schinken*, *Lachs-ø-schnitzel*), así como los sustantivos masculinos terminados en –er (*Hühner-ø-brühe*; *Hummer-ø-cocktail*, *Hummer-ø-fleisch*, *Hummer-ø-mayonnaise*, *Hummer-ø-salat*, *Hummer-ø-suppe*) (Duden 1984).

[10] Asimismo, otros compuestos emplean de igual modo el elemento de unión –s– como son, por ejemplo, *Jakob-s-muschel*, término donde la palabra determinante es un nombre propio.

[11] En otras ocasiones, este elemento de juntura aparece en aquellos compuestos que, siguiendo la tendencia general en lengua alemana, su primer constituyente contiene el prefijo Ge– (*Geschmack-s-verstärker*), en aquellos en los que la palabra determinante se forma mediante el sufijo –ling (*Frühling-s-zwiebel*) o en aquellos sustantivos femeninos terminados en –ung (*Konservierung-s-mittel*) (Duden 1984).

las partes del cuerpo del animal en cuestión, como se observa al aplicar de nuevo el test transformacional: *Kalbskeule* = 'Keule des Kalbs' o *Schweinsfuß* = 'Fuß des Schweins'. Sin embargo, se evidencia la arbitrariedad del elemento de unión en el marco de la restauración en términos como, por ejemplo, aquellos cuya palabra determinante es "Rind" donde, a diferencia de los compuestos anteriormente mencionados que estaban unidos por el elemento de unión –s–, otros términos, aun conteniendo la misma palabra determinante, se encuentran unidos mediante el elemento de juntura –er–, coincidiendo formalmente con la marca del plural del sustantivo que actúa como palabra determinante, como mostramos a continuación: *Rind-er-brust, Rind-er-filet, Rind-er-herz, Rind-er-leber, Rind-er-lende*, *Rind-er-roulade*, *Rind-er-talg* o *Rind-er-zunge*. Este elemento de unión también se emplea en otros compuestos como es el caso de *Kräut-er-quark* o el término *Blätt-er-teig*.

A este respecto, la arbitrariedad del elemento de unión queda aún más evidenciada en el empleo de diferentes constituyentes para generar el mismo compuesto, como podemos observar en los siguientes términos que pueden aparecer unidos tanto por el elemento de juntura –s– como por el elemento –er–, por ejemplo: *Rind-s-braten / Rind-er-braten* o *Rind-s-gulasch / Rind-er-gulasch*. En otros casos, al unir los constituyentes de un compuesto, el elemento de unión coincide, formalmente, tanto con morfemas gramaticales de flexión en caso genitivo, concretamente, con la marca –s–, como con sufijos de plurales de la palabra determinante que, a diferencia del grupo anterior, en esta serie de términos se trataría del elemento –e–, como podemos observar en los siguientes ejemplos: *Schwein-s-braten / Schwein-e-braten, Schwein-s-lende / Schwein-e-lende, Schwein-s-schnitzel / Schwein-e-schnitzel*. En este sentido, otra serie de compuestos cuyo primer constituyente lo forma también la palabra "Schwein", aparece unida al término fundamental mediante el elemento de unión –e–, que coincide con la flexión del plural, tal y como mostramos a continuación: *Schwein-e-backe, Schwein-e-bauch, Schwein-e-beuschel, Schwein-e-braten, Schwein-e-fett, Schwein-e-fleisch, Schwein-e-filet, Schwein-e-gulasch, Schwein-e-hack-fleisch, Schwein-e-kotelett, Schwein-e-leber, Schwein-e-lende, Schwein-e-rippchen, Schwein-e-rücken, Schwein-e-rüssel, Schwein-e-schmalz, Schwein-e-schnitzel.*

En otros casos, también se muestra la arbitrariedad del elemento de unión en aquellos compuestos donde sus constituyentes se pueden unir tanto por el elemento de juntura –s–, coincidiendo formalmente con la marca del genitivo del primer término, como aparecer unidos sin ningún elemento de unión, es decir, quedar vacío, como es el caso de *Rind-s-suppe / Rind-ø-suppe* o de *Schaf-s-milch / Schaf-ø-milch*. A este respecto, otros compuestos que también carecen de elemento de unión son, por ejemplo: *Kalb-ø-fleisch*; *Kaninchen-ø-braten*, *Kaninchen-ø-frikassee*; *Reh-ø-bein*, *Reh-ø-braten*, *Reh-ø-fleisch*, *Reh-ø-keule*, *Reh-ø-medaillon*; *Rind-ø-fleisch*, *Rind-ø-stück*; o *Schaf-ø-fleisch*, *Schaf-ø-käse.*

Por último, en cuanto a aquellos compuestos cuya palabra determinante es de género femenino, la tendencia que hemos observado es el empleo del elemento de unión –n–, ligado en la mayoría de los casos a sustantivos femeninos que acaban en –e, es decir, utilizan su marca flexiva del plural, como mostramos a continuación, aunque a diferencia de los dos grupos anteriores, donde el primer término del compuesto era de género masculino o neutro, en este caso el elemento de juntura no se corresponde, generalmente, con la función de la declinación numeral a pesar de la coincidencia formal: *Artischocke-n-boden*; *Biene-n-honig*; *Birne-n-geist*; *Blume-n-kohl*; *Bohne-n-kraut*; *Endivie-n-salat*; *Ente-n-brust*, *Ente-n-ei*, *Ente-n-leber*; *Forelle-n-filet*; *Hülse-n-frucht*; *Knolle-n-sellerie*; *Lende-n-braten*, *Lende-n-stück*; *Palme-n-herz*; *Pinie-n-kern*; *Rinde-n-pilz, Rinde-n-tee*; *Rose-n-kohl*; *Schale-n-tier*; *Schlange-n-ei*; *Stange-n-brot*, *Stange-n-sellerie*; *Staude-n-sellerie*; *Tinte-n-fisch*; *Tomate-n-soße*, *Tomate-n-mark*; *Ziege-n-käse*, *Ziege-n-milch* o *Zitrone-n-schale*[12].

Como hemos observado, el uso del elemento de juntura está determinado por factores como la estructura morfológica del primer constituyente inmediato o el género del mismo y, en algunas ocasiones, coincide, desde un punto de vista formal, tanto con morfemas gramaticales de flexión en caso genitivo como con marcas del plural del primer constituyente del compuesto, lo que hace cuestionarnos si esta coincidencia formal presupone también una compatibilidad funcional con los elementos flexivos de la declinación numeral y del genitivo. En este sentido, una tendencia que hemos observado es que en aquellos compuestos cuyo primer término es un sustantivo de género masculino o neutro que hace referencia a un animal, se emplean los morfemas de flexión en genitivo cumpliendo, de igual modo, con dicha función y con la especial característica de que los sustantivos masculinos forman parte de aquellos que se rigen por la flexión débil del sustantivo, esto es, por la declinación en –n. En cuanto a los sustantivos de género neutro, no se sigue esta tendencia de forma regular ya que una serie de compuestos evidencian la arbitrariedad del elemento de juntura y, finalmente, en relación con los sustantivos femeninos, estos compuestos hacen uso del elemento de unión –n– coincidiendo con su marca del plural, pero sin cumplir, generalmente, con dicha función.

5. CONCLUSIONES

A modo de conclusión, podemos indicar que entre las dos unidades que forman el compuesto puede haber un elemento de unión que enlaza los diferentes constituyentes y se encuentra localizado en medio de los mismos, con la particularidad de ser una unidad semánticamente vacía; dicho elemento se halla fuera de la estructura compositiva, pero son muchos los interrogantes que lo rodean debido tanto a su arbitrariedad como a su complejidad.

Una corriente habitual en la germanística es insertar el elemento de juntura en el campo de la composición como un elemento que señala el nexo de unión formal dentro del compuesto pudiendo aparecer, por lo tanto, mediante diferentes formas y, en algunos casos, quedar vacío. Sin embargo, existen posturas encontradas con respecto a la anterior, ya que algunos autores consideran que el elemento de unión no sólo forma parte de la composición, sino que también aparece en la derivación explícita, si bien concurre mayoritariamente en la unión de compuestos sustantivales. Así pues, los elementos de unión, generalmente, funcionan como señales fronterizas, a excepción de aquellos cuya presencia o ausencia implica una función distintiva, aunque es importante resaltar que no hay solo discrepancias entre los lingüistas en lo referido a dónde se enmarca el elemento de juntura, sino también a qué tipo de función desempeña en la entidad léxica.

[12] Sin embargo, algunos sustantivos femeninos terminados en –e no emplean ningún elemento de juntura para unirse a la palabra fundamental; el motivo puede radicar en que estos sustantivos carecen de marca de plural como es el caso de “Sahne” (*Sahne-ø-torte*) o “Vanille” (*Vanille-ø-creme, Vanille-ø-zucker*).

En este sentido, nuestro análisis ha girado en torno al elemento de juntura en el proceso compositivo, campo al que pertenecen los ejemplos analizados en el ámbito de la cultura gastronómica en lengua alemana. Los resultados obtenidos indican que la gran mayoría de formaciones son compuestos determinativos con un sustantivo como palabra fundamental y con diferentes categorías gramaticales como palabra determinante, aunque el elemento de juntura en este campo léxico se encuentra en aquellos compuestos con un sustantivo como palabra determinante.

Estas formaciones carecen, generalmente, de elemento de unión; sin embargo, una serie de compuestos emplea diferentes elementos de juntura a la hora de enlazar sus constituyentes, sin haber hallado en este campo semántico ningún ejemplo donde dicho elemento ejerza una función distintiva. Algunas tendencias en su uso en los compuestos analizados, formados en su mayoría por dos constituyentes, son las siguientes:

1. En aquellos compuestos cuya palabra determinante es de género masculino, se suele emplear el elemento de juntura –n– coincidiendo formalmente con la marca del genitivo de aquellos sustantivos que se rigen por la flexión débil, es decir, por la declinación en –n y, al mismo tiempo, cumpliendo dicha función cuando la palabra determinante hace referencia a un animal.

2. Con respecto a aquellos términos que actúan como palabra determinante y son de género neutro, generalmente se emplea la marca –s– como elemento de juntura coincidiendo formalmente con el genitivo del sustantivo que ocupa el primer lugar del compuesto y ejerciendo dicha función, al igual que en el grupo anterior, en aquellos casos en los que se hace referencia a la parte del cuerpo de un animal. Sin embargo, en este grupo se refleja claramente la arbitrariedad del elemento de juntura porque un mismo término puede emplear distintos elementos a la hora de unirse con la palabra base para formar el compuesto, tal y como hemos observado en los ejemplos anteriormente analizados.

3. Por último, en cuanto a los sustantivos femeninos que ocupan el primer lugar del compuesto, el elemento de juntura suele ser –n–, coincidiendo formalmente con la marca del plural de dichos sustantivos que acaban, generalmente, en –e, aunque, por norma general, no se corresponde con dicha función.

Según el análisis realizado en esta investigación desde un enfoque onomasiológico en el marco de la restauración en lengua alemana, el uso del elemento de juntura está determinado por factores como la estructura morfológica del primer constituyente inmediato o el género del mismo. Desde un punto de vista formal, su uso coincide tanto con morfemas gramaticales de flexión en caso genitivo como con marcas de plurales donde destacan los constituyentes –n– y –s– como los más comunes. En algunas ocasiones, los elementos de juntura coinciden formalmente con la declinación en genitivo del sustantivo que actúa como palabra determinante y, debido a esta coincidencia formal, se ha generado una compatibilidad con dicha función, especialmente, en aquellos compuestos en los que se hace referencia a la parte del cuerpo de un animal. En futuras líneas de investigación, cabría analizar el papel que juega la motivación semántica en estos compuestos, así como las correspondencias en lengua española, con la finalidad de poder aplicar, posteriormente, estos hallazgos a la disciplina de la didáctica del alemán como lengua extranjera.

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EXPLORING THE LEVEL OF SPECIALISATION OF A CORPUS OF SCIENTIFIC TEXTS AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND NEEDS IN AN ESP CONTEXT

EXPLORANDO EL NIVEL DE ESPECIALIZACIÓN DE UN CORPUS DE TEXTOS CIENTÍFICOS Y LAS PERCEPCIONES Y NECESIDADES DE LOS ALUMNOS EN UN CONTEXTO DE INGLÉS PARA FINES ESPECÍFICOS

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Abstract
The incorporation of some original texts combining the academic component with a particular scientific domain can be seen as an opportunity, in higher education and, in particular, in an English for Specific and Academic Purposes (ESP and EAP, respectively) context, to enable students to access authentic examples of the use of the language. This article investigates the degree of specialisation of some scientific texts that could be read and analysed in class in order to determine the pedagogical effect these might have when teaching the reading skill. In so doing, a corpus of twelve recent texts belonging to the domain of Biotechnology was analysed. Moreover, two different empirical studies were conducted in order to know more about students' needs and perceptions throughout two consecutive academic years; 2017-2018 (qualitative analysis of their initial perceptions) and 2018-2019 (qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data provided by a questionnaire). Preliminary findings suggested that the selection of texts showed different degrees of specialisation.
Key words: ESP, EAP, reading, specialisation levels, lexical density

Resumen
La incorporación de textos originales capaces de combinar el componente académico con el de un campo científico concreto puede verse, en el ámbito de la educación superior y, en concreto, en el del inglés para fines específicos y académicos, como una oportunidad para que los estudiantes accedan a ejemplos auténticos del uso de la lengua. En el presente artículo se estudia el grado de especialización de varios textos científicos con el fin de utilizarlos en el aula y determinar su efecto a nivel pedagógico al enseñar la destreza de la comprensión escrita. Para ello, se analizó un corpus de doce textos relacionados con la Biotecnología publicados recientemente y se llevaron a cabo dos estudios empíricos para indagar en las necesidades y percepciones de los estudiantes durante dos cursos académicos; 2017-2018 (análisis cualitativo de las primeras percepciones) y 2018-2019 (análisis cualitativo y cuantitativo de los datos aportados a través de un cuestionario). Los primeros resultados indicaron que los textos seleccionados mostraban diferentes grados de especialización.
Palabras clave: Inglés para fines específicos, inglés para fines académicos, comprensión escrita, niveles de especialización, densidad léxica

1. INTRODUCTION

In order to contextualise the present research, we might refer to the development of new areas of study and the evolution towards a much greater specialisation of knowledge as two of the main factors that lead English for Specific Purposes (henceforth ESP) instructors to face "the challenge of teaching a foreign language to the students of highly specialised disciplines" (Krajka 2009: 209). According to Paltridge and Starfield (2013), the field of English for Specific Purposes has expanded so as to include other areas such as English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Vocational Purposes (EVP), etc. The abbreviation EAP, i.e. English for Academic Purposes, might thus be seen as a hyponym of ESP. In this study, we use the label ESP to refer to the teaching and learning of English as a foreign or second language in an attempt to allow students to use it in their particular professional, i.e. scientific and technical, domain. On the other hand, EAP might be defined as "the English that is taught to second-/third-language students preparing to enter an undergraduate and postgraduate course at universities and other institutions of higher education" (McCarter & Jakes 2009: 9). Additionally, in EAP, a language instructor "may be teaching students who are preparing to study or who are already studying subjects like business, sociology, law, finance, science or the arts" (McCarter & Jakes 2009: 9). In this context, language teachers "will have to learn the types of writing and reading assignments that are common to the particular subject areas of the students", which would encourage these professionals to "familiarise themselves with the particular ways their students have to write and the particular texts they have to read" (McCarter & Jakes 2009: 9).

Teaching the two written skills, i.e. reading and writing in higher education and, in particular, in the context of an English for Professional and Academic Communication course is always a challenging process. The combination of the labels "professional" and "academic" in the English classroom can make the teaching process even more encouraging and enriching by taking advantage of the opportunities provided by this dual approach. This article addresses the research conducted in an attempt to identify, implement, and use a corpus of specialised texts representing different genres related to the field of Biotechnology with undergraduate students of English. The final selection of recently published articles has already become the central component of one of the units of the course English for Professional and Academic Communication (henceforth EPAC) at the Technical University of Madrid (Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, henceforth UPM). In order to enrol in this EPAC course, students are required to certify an upper-intermediate level of English, B2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. It is a compulsory subject (6 ECTS) at UPM and is mainly focussed on the development of a series of common competences and skills, i.e. note-taking; writing CVs and formal letters; analysing and producing written reports; or familiarising oneself with the situations, tools and guidelines for academic and professional oral communication, for instance, oral presentations, job interviews as well as meetings. Even though this EPAC course aims at providing students with the tools and methods for practicing, developing, and fostering a series of oral and written skills and competences in an academic and professional context, they usually express their interest in using materials and participating in activities closely related and adapted to their corresponding field of specialisation. This is a motivating factor which is especially evident in the case of the Bachelor's degree in Biotechnology, since it has been perceived that students' level of involvement is very high and most of them expect and demand an English course as adapted to their scientific domain or subject area as possible. Furthermore, in the context of a technical university, in which students have a specialised background, it is relevant and even mandatory to explore and find new ways, methods, and techniques "capable of fostering an integral communicative competence and making the entire learning process more dynamic and attractive" (Gimeno-Sanz & Martínez-Sáez 2016: 31).

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The writing and reading that a language instructor teaches "need to fit the academic purposes of their students" (McCarter & Jakes 2009: 9). Consequently, the "focus on preparing students for their specific academic requirements of English for higher education" would be "the main difference between EAP and general English Language Teaching (ELT)" (McCarter & Jakes 2009: 9). More specifically, focussing on the ways of fostering students' competence concerning the reading skill, the incorporation of original texts combining the academic component with the dissemination of knowledge regarding a particular scientific domain could also be seen as a promising opportunity that might allow learners to have access to authentic examples of the language in use. However, choosing the appropriate materials can be one of the toughest steps due to the importance of detecting the suitable level of specialisation and complexity of the written resources.

With regard to the use of appropriate teaching resources in these learning contexts, it might be mentioned that there is a "lack of properly developed commercial materials", which confronts many of the lecturers with the urgent need of adapting those resources (Krajka 2009: 209). As stated by Krajka (2009), there is a significant amount of target language input available on the Internet which would provide language instructors working in technical institutions with different paths. This would enable them to retrieve, evaluate, analyse, and start to implement a compilation of some of those online written materials in a varied range of English learning settings.

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

These are some of the main reasons why it was deemed especially relevant to analyse the degree of specialisation of the scientific texts that would be eventually read and analysed in the ESP and EAP classroom context. There are two main ways of addressing the degree of specialisation (Ciapuscio & Kugel 2002; Edo-Marzà 2011: 298). Firstly, some authors refer to a "sharp line" or "clear-cut boundary" which allows for "a fast and easy distinction between general and specialised language" (Edo-Marzà 2011: 298). This distinction would be mainly based on "the specificity of the topics dealt with, addressers and addressees and communicative situations" (Edo-Marzà 2011: 298). In contrast, other authors mention that there is a continuum and that "the difference between general and specific is a matter of degree" (Cabré 1993, 1999; Edo-Marzà 2011: 298). The approach which has been adopted in this specific study coincides with the second perspective, and in particular with the three levels mentioned by Cabré, i.e. highly specialised, specialised and fairly specialised. Therefore, measuring the degree of specialisation was one of the initial priorities in order to present students with a broader variety of resources and different levels of complexity. In order to measure specialisation, lexical richness and variation (Edo-Marzà 2011) as well as function, genre and tenor relationship (Edo-Marzà 2011; Vargas-Sierra 2005) were taken into consideration.

3. METHODS

This section, as well as section four, has been divided into two main parts. On the one hand, we are presenting the method that was followed in order to measure the degree of specialisation of the corpus of twelve texts. On the other hand, we include a description of the way in which the two empirical studies were conducted throughout two consecutive academic years.

3.1. Measuring the degree of specialisation

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

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

articles. The main topics included in the corpus covered the three biotechnological branches offered at UPM; plant, medical, and computational. The topics were crop modification, genetics, new medical techniques developed for targeting diseases in a more personalised way, bioinformatics or modelling. Thirdly, the need emerged to delimit their corresponding degree of specialisation and more particularly, their level of complexity, define their role and measure how appropriate and effective these could be for their eventual implementation in the classroom.

When measuring specialisation, both lexical richness and variation are seen as defining and key factors (Edo-Marzà 2011). However, lexical variation– "the ratio measured as a percentage between the different words in the text and the total number of running words (number of words x 100/ number of tokens"–can be affected by differences in length and be unstable in the case of short texts (Gregori-Signes & Clavel-Arroitia 2015: 548). Some other criteria are function, genre, and tenor relationship (Vargas-Sierra 2005; Edo-Marzà 2011). These criteria were also taken into consideration when selecting the texts from several prestigious publications and resources dealing with Biotechnology (see Appendix, part 1), through which experts address their research and findings to other scientists and students sharing their knowledge and interest in this particular field.

"Lexical density, lexical diversity or lexical richness are terms which refer to statistical measures that gauge the lexical richness of texts" (Daller, van Hout & Treffers-Daller 2003; Gregori-Signes & Clavel-Arroitia 2015: 547). In the present study, in which we have compared the level of complexity and students' needs and perceptions, we have narrowed the scope and focussed more specifically on lexical density (complexity factor). The factor of complexity "provides a measure of the proportion of lexical items (i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives, and some adverbs) in the text (Johansson 2008; Gregori-Signes & Clavel-Arroitia 2015: 547). As claimed by these authors (2015), texts with lower density tend to be more easily understood. However, there is a paradox, since we might find a text with high lexical diversity (i.e. "contain many different word types") and with low lexical density (i.e. "contain many pronouns and auxiliaries rather than nouns and lexical verbs") or vice versa (Johansson 2008; Gregori-Signes & Clavel-Arroitia 2015: 547).

We measured lexical density using *Textalyser* (http://textalyser.net), which is presented as a free online text analysis tool able to offer detailed statistics, find out the keyword density, and analyse word groups as well as the prominence of words or expressions. In this study, we focussed our

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[2] "Review Articles provide a comprehensive summary of research on a certain topic, and a perspective on the state of the field and where it is heading." "Reviews commonly cite approximately 100 primary research articles."(https://www.springer.com/gp/authors-editors/authorandreviewertutorials/writing-a-journal-manuscript/types-of-journal-articles/10285504).
They "give an overview of existing literature in a field, often identifying specific problems or issues and analysing information from available published work on the topic with a balanced perspective". (https://www.editage.com/insights/6-article-types-that-journals-publish-a-guide-for-early-career-researchers)
[3] "The most common type of journal manuscript used to publish full reports of data from research. It may be called an Original Article, Research Article, Research, or just Article, depending on the journal. The Original Research format is suitable for many different fields and different types of studies." (https://www.springer.com/gp/authors-editors/authorandreviewertutorials/writing-a-journal-manuscript/types-of-journal-articles/10285504)

analysis on the beginnings of the articles compiled and classified for the study, i.e. abstracts as well as other introductory sections. The main reason why we decided not to work on the complete versions was that the original texts were too long to be read and explored in the classroom in the context of a subject designed to cover a wider range of oral and written communicative tools and resources in just one semester. Additionally, this delimitation allowed us to measure lexical density in extracts of a more similar length‒between 550 and 650 words per article (total word count provided automatically by *Textalyser*)‒and be able to compare more homogenous sections regarding content and structure. This delimitation also helped us to draw attention to the initial parts, as we thought that focussing on the whole article would be much more time and effort consuming for students and might distort their global perceptions.

3.2. Empirical studies conducted in the classroom

In order to offer a more representative view of the comparison of the results of the analysis of the corpus with the results of the first phase of implementation of some of those texts in the classroom context, two different empirical studies were conducted. These studies enabled us to learn more about students' specific needs and perceptions throughout two consecutive academic years; 2017-2018 and 2018-2019. In the first case, we carried out a brief qualitative analysis of the texts with a group of 58 students following the above-mentioned English for Professional and Academic Communication course at the Technical University of Madrid. In so doing, a debate was held right after reading, analysing and exploring the main linguistic patterns of scientific discourse found in the abstract and introductory parts of at least one text per genre. The students were asked to express and share their opinion with the whole group by taking into account the level of difficulty, relevance and adequacy of the texts that had been selected.

A year later, a different group of 52 students who had also enrolled in the same course at UPM participated in the second study. The approach was both qualitative and quantitative in this second stage. We decided to incorporate a more tangible way of measuring students' impressions in an attempt to compare and consolidate the results which had been obtained the previous year, so the learners were asked to fill out a questionnaire. The survey (See Appendix, part 2) was aimed at showing what their main needs and perceptions were with regard to the usefulness and relevance of some of the original texts that had been used in class in relation to their own scientific domain. The online survey was administered through Google Forms. The first part of the questionnaire was designed in an attempt to know if the students of scientific disciplines were aware of the existence of different levels of specialisation and if they were able to detect them easily. We also wanted to determine if students perceived the distinction between general and specific as a continuum and thus based on a matter of degree or, on the contrary, if they were just able to notice a clear-cut boundary between general and specialised language. The participants were also asked about the kind of texts which should play a more dominant role in our EPAC course or about the texts they would be more interested in regarding the level of specialisation. The different options listed in this specific item were the following: highly specialised texts dealing with Biotechnology; highly specialised texts dealing with Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines; specialised texts dealing with Biotechnology; specialised texts dealing with Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines; general texts including references to Biotechnology, general texts including references to Biotechnology and other scientific fields; and texts dealing with more general topics. We also tried to explore if the level of motivation is higher when reading texts related to one's own Bachelor's degree and the types of texts that are considered more useful and convenient in terms of developing students' reading and communicative skills in a specific academic, occupational or professional context.

As regards the section of the questionnaire dealing with the genres which had been previously analysed, our primary aim was to monitor if the students considered that there were remarkable differences in terms of the level of usefulness, suitability and adequacy of the texts to improve their linguistic or scientific competence. Moreover, they had to indicate if they were capable of detecting a different level of complexity when comparing original, review and opinion articles or if they were familiar with a more complex genre apart from the three types included in the study. They also had to specifically state which one of the texts read in class had been the most complex or hardest to understand. Additionally, the students were told to determine which particular linguistic feature was an indicator of a higher level of complexity. These were the options: complex terminology, complex noun phrases, abbreviations, impersonal structures, the use of the passive voice, the constant use of figures (numbers) or formulae. Furthermore, an open-ended option was provided so that they could emphasise other significant features apart from the ones listed in the survey. Moreover, the participants had to decide on the least complex text seen in class or if they would replace any of the texts provided. They also had to explain the reasons behind that particular decision.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Measuring the degree of specialisation

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

Regarding lexical richness, and in particular the lexical density and complexity of the texts analysed, we were able to observe how the complexity factor (lexical density) in opinion articles‒ranging from 62.2% to 67.7%‒was higher than it was in the selection of review articles, offering more varied results, which ranged from 62.5% to 64.5% in the case of mini-reviews, and from 56.7% to 58.6% in both review articles. The most significant contrast was found in the results provided by the analysis of the corpus of original articles, which showed a more noticeable decrease in the level of complexity or lexical density –ranging, in this case, from 53.5% to 56.9%–when compared with the two previous genres, which hypothetically means that students would find them easier to understand.

In general, as illustrated in Table 1, these results reflected a trend which can also be seen in other factors such as the average sentence length or readability when the Gunning-Fog and the alternative beta indexes are analysed. When we studied the results provided by the Gunning-Fox Index in the first readability test, we were able to see that the texts with a higher level of complexity or lexical density also showed a more prominent level of difficulty, which is normally equal to or higher than 13.6. The most remarkable data are provided by original articles 3 and 4, which, in spite of offering a lower level of lexical density and thus of complexity, would be more difficult to read than reviews 2 and 3. Similar results were revealed by the alternative beta index, as it illustrated that opinion articles 1 and 2 as well as original articles 3 and 4 would be the hardest to understand. On the other hand, the most accessible texts would be original articles 1 and 2.

As for the sentence length parameter, we observed that the most complex or lexically dense texts tended to be the ones including the longest sentences. However, there were two significant exceptions, since the numbers provided by both mini-reviews regarding the average length of their sentences were much lower than those of other texts with a similar level of lexical density. Moreover, review 2 revealed a more moderate complexity factor in spite of being one of the texts with more words per sentence.

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

Table 1. Results provided automatically by *Textalyser*

4.2. Empirical studies conducted in the classroom

Firstly, we conducted a brief qualitative analysis of the initial implementation of some of the texts representing each genre included in the corpus with a group of 58 students following the EPAC course at UPM in the academic year 2017-2018. In general terms, most of the students were able to detect different levels of complexity even within the same article and in comparison with other texts. In terms of usefulness and suitability, they shared their own conclusions with the whole group after reading and analysing the introductory sections. Besides, they were asked to think about the role of these extracts and if reading and analysing them could be considered as a useful tool and method to start to attain the above-mentioned linguistic goals. The first and general impressions revealed a favourable outcome.

However, with regard to the apparently high level of specialisation of the first texts read in class, some of the initial hypotheses were also confirmed, since the participants expressed the view that some parts were quite complex and difficult to understand in spite of their good command of English and familiarisation with some of the main ideas and specific topics. Initially, we also thought that those students who are more used to scientific and technical disciplines might be slightly reluctant to do an activity essentially based on linguistic analysis. Nevertheless, they seemed to appreciate the relevance of the contents and analysis carried out in class.

After the first steps of the study, we were aware of the limited scope and obvious restrictions presented by the debate held in class and its subsequent qualitative analysis, along with the impossibility of accepting the results as conclusive evidence, since our validation questionnaire had not been developed yet. A year later, the method that we decided to follow was quite similar in terms of the work done in class and the way the texts were presented and analysed. However, in this second stage of the study, a total of 52 students who had enrolled in the above-mentioned EPAC course submitted the questionnaire.

We were able to observe how 75% of the students considered that there was a clear-cut boundary between general and specialised language, 17.3% did not agree with that statement and 7.7% did not know how to answer the question. If we compare these results with the ones obtained in the following item, we can perceive how the same percentage of students, i.e. 75%, thought that the difference between general and specific was a matter of degree, which can be seen as paradoxical evidence. The results showed that the same number of students were defending the hypothesis based on a clear-cut boundary between the labels “general” and “specific” while stating that there are also different degrees between these two categories. 15.4% of the participants did not think that that distinction consisted in a matter of degree and 9.6 did not know which option was the most appropriate one. The results can be explained by saying that students tend to think that there is a very clear distinction between texts which deal with more general topics and those focussed on a specific domain. At the same time, they can notice that there is a scale within that specific field that would include texts showing a lower or a higher degree of specialisation.

Regarding the kind of texts which should play a more dominant role in the EPAC course, 42.3% of the participants reported that the most suitable option was the use of "specialised texts dealing with the field of Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines". 32.7% agreed that the best option was specialised texts related only to the field of Biotechnology; 11.5% of the students opted for a higher level of specialisation and selected the option "highly specialised texts dealing with the field of Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines" and a less significant number of students (5.8%) thought that using highly specialised texts focussed on the field of Biotechnology would be the most convenient method. Therefore, most of the students reported that a combination between biotechnological and other branches of science would be more enriching in their language learning process. The students were also aware of the level of complexity and difficulty of highly specialised texts and how the use of these original resources could be counter-productive in this learning context.

If we compare the previous results with the kind of texts the students were more interested in, we can observe a similar order of preferences as well as significant differences in the number of students supporting one option or another (See Figure 1). 36.5% of the participants would prefer to read and make use of "specialised texts related to Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines"; 25% opted for specialised texts dealing with Biotechnology, which means that most of the students perceived that specialised texts should be implemented and used in class instead of highly specialised resources focussed on Biotechnology (7.7%) or highly specialised texts combining this field with other disciplines (11.5%). Some students (5.8%) would also prefer to read and analyse more general texts including some references to Biotechnology and a higher percentage (11.5%) would be more interested in the implementation of more general texts combining the field of Biotechnology with other scientific topics.

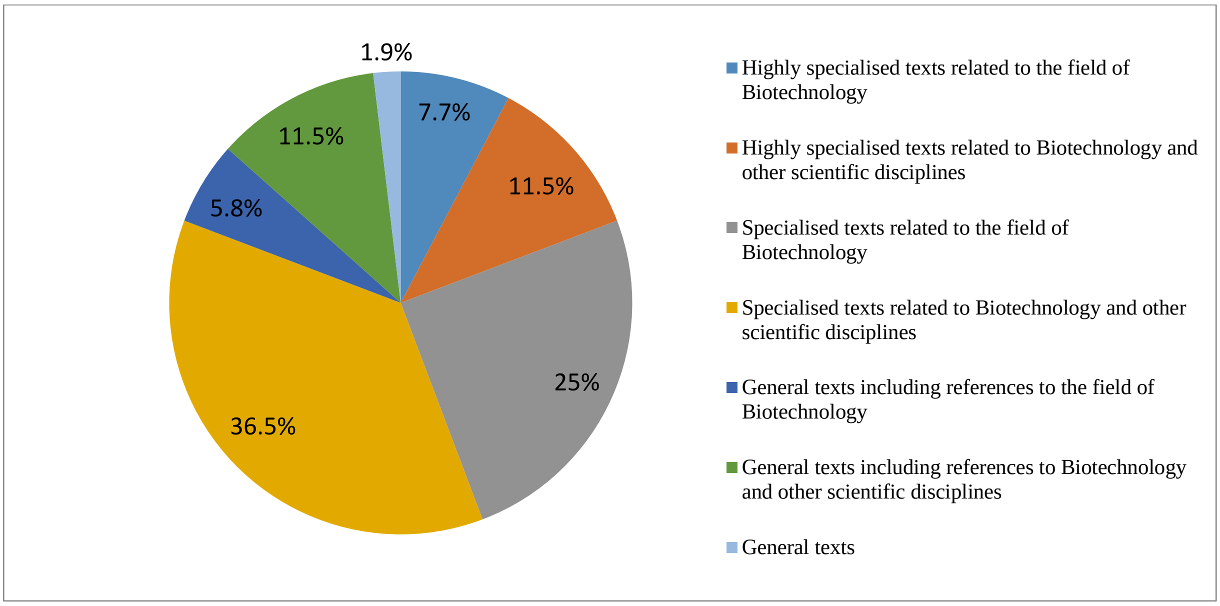

Figure 1. Question 4. What kind of texts are you more interested in?

Regarding students' academic and professional needs, some of the most useful topics listed were genetic engineering, immunology, drug design, and nanotechnology. Figure 2 illustrates the opinions shared by the participants when asked if their level of motivation is usually higher when they read texts in English related to their specific Bachelor's degree. The percentage of students with no opinion was higher than expected, which had a slight negative impact on the number of students supporting the affirmative option. Nevertheless, the number of students who considered that the fact of using materials related to their own degree would raise their level of motivation was significantly higher.

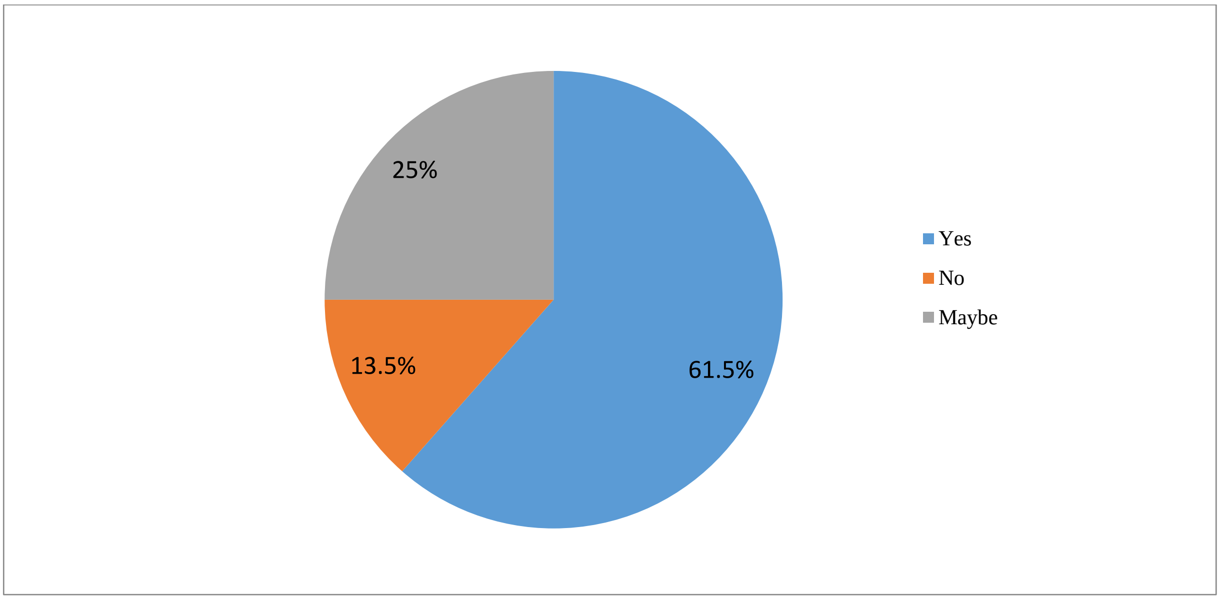

Figure 2. Question 6. Do you think that your level of motivation is higher when you read texts in English related to the Bachelor's degree in Biotechnology?

The following table shows the results of three consecutive questions, which were aimed at measuring students' perceptions regarding different levels of specialisation and how these could foster their communicative skills in a specific academic, occupational or professional context. As we can see, once again students tended to opt for specialised texts when these were compared to highly specialised or more general texts. The percentage of students who preferred a more general level in this particular context was slightly lower if we compare it to the highest degree of specialisation.

Question	Yes	No	Maybe
7. Highly specialised texts	65.4%	5.8%	28.8%
8. Specialised texts	80.8%	1.9%	17.3%
9. More general texts	61.5%	13.5%	25%

Table 2. Questions 7, 8, and 9. Do you think reading (7) highly specialised, (8) specialised, (9) more general texts would allow you to communicate in a specific academic, occupational or professional context?

Regarding the most useful genre to improve students' level of linguistic competence, 36.5% considered that opinion articles would be the most convenient choice; 34.6% supported scientific or original articles as the most effective genre; and 23.1% opted for reviews or mini-reviews. The third position was more surprising, since we did not expect to see such a high number of learners considering reviews or mini-reviews as the most suitable genre to achieve a higher level of English in this specialised domain. Three students decided to offer their own alternative. Two of them suggested a combination of scientific articles with opinion articles or scientific articles with reviews, and one student emphasised the potential of oral debates held in the classroom context. However, when asked about the genre that would best help them improve their level of scientific competence, an overwhelming percentage (88.5%) deemed the scientific article as the most effective one, followed by reviews/mini-reviews (5.8%) and opinion articles (1.9%). These results allowed us to see a very clear distinction between the tools they would use to improve their language level in this ESP and EAP context and the type of texts they find most reliable when it comes to expanding their scientific knowledge. This was probably due to the fact that scientific articles are usually thought to provide more innovative, up-to-date and captivating data as well as significant findings.

Concerning students' perceptions of the level of complexity and in order to compare them with the results presented in section 4.1, they were asked to point to the most complex genre after reading their introductory sections. An overwhelming percentage of learners (82.7%) stated that the scientific article was the genre showing the highest level of complexity. Only 7.7% of the participants opted for reviews/mini-reviews and a very low number (3.8%) considered that the opinion article was the most complex type of text. There were only three students, out of the 52 participants, who had no opinion or thought that the three alternatives were equally complex. Going back to the results of our corpus analysis, we can observe significant differences between the statistical data provided by *Textalyser* in order to determine the genre showing the highest level of complexity and the results provided by the analysis of students' perceptions. These results coincided with the data retrieved from the questions in which the participants were asked to say which articles had been the most complex and simple ones. We were able to see how students tended to rate original articles as the most complex texts they had had to read, whereas most of them found that the mini-review had been more accessible.

One of the questions centred around students' opinions regarding the level of the articles read in class. The results coincided with the perceptions shared orally a year earlier, since 53.8% of the participants found that the level was high and 40.4% that it was appropriate. 5.8% considered that the level of the texts was low. None of the learners thought that the level was too high or too low.

Furthermore, the questionnaire included an item aimed at showing which linguistic component made students think that a text was more complex than another. In this particular case, a very high number of students (57.7%) considered that there was a clear correlation between the level of complexity and the use of very specialised terminology, whereas 34.6% of the participants thought that the level of complexity was clearly determined by the common use of long and complex noun phrases. Three students pointed to formulae, abbreviations and the passive structure as the cause of a higher level of complexity. One of the participants suggested that it was a matter of content and made reference to the fact they were still in their second year and had to get more familiar with some of the concepts included in the articles.

Lastly, when asked whether they would replace any of the texts read in class or not, a vast majority said that they would not substitute any of them, whereas some other students emphasised the idea that less complex texts and even more general examples might be more encouraging, interesting and useful in order to improve their level of reading competence.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Once the analysis of the texts was completed, preliminary findings suggested that the corpus was able to show different degrees of specialisation. However, we should also mention that this is still a study in progress. Although we are aware of the need to expand and achieve a more representative corpus, we might say that some of the preliminary findings contribute to the initial theory of the existence of a continuum or a progressive degree of specialisation, even within texts addressed by and to experts in the same scientific area. As we have seen, the corpus comprising twelve texts is able to present the reader with different degrees of high complexity depending on the type of text. We have also started to explore the specific pedagogical effects that these resources have when used in an ESP and EAP learning context, and have seen that lecturers' intuition and previous hypothesis about a likely increase in students' motivation and progress is confirmed by the results provided by the questionnaire responded by a total of 52 participants in the second stage of the study.

These initial results have enabled us to see a noticeable effect in terms of the familiarisation of students with the structure of scientific publications and the main features of scientific discourse, since the texts read in the classroom showed some of the main linguistic patterns defining the above-mentioned genres. As it has been previously shown, apart from lexical density, we have also considered factors such as readability or the average sentence length, which has allowed us to detect significant correlations and some other discordant features. For instance, we can highlight the fact that a higher level of complexity does not necessarily correlate with a lower readability index or with higher numbers in relation to the average sentence length. We have also been able to take a very significant step and explore the contrasts and similarities between the results that were automatically obtained and the perceptions shared by the students, who showed their interest and preference for specialised texts instead of for highly specialised resources. Furthermore, there are some other factors concerning the degree of specialisation of scientific resources which should be taken into consideration in the near future in order to offer a broader and complete view of all the components taking part in the present approach to ESP and EAP learning contexts.

Furthermore, taking into account students' perceptions in the present study, one of the concluding remarks would be that the use of authentic and original materials was also seen as an adequate tool to improve students' written comprehension skill in this particular case and context. Additionally, we were able to observe how this practice could allow them to access texts and resources that might have a very positive effect and enhance their careers as scientists or engineers in the coming years. They would learn more about the latest developments and breakthroughs in their corresponding scientific domains while getting familiar with some of the most significant patterns of scientific discourse. Therefore, it would always be necessary to check the level of adequacy, complexity and suitability of the resources implemented in the ESP and EAP classroom. Bearing students' perceptions and level of motivation in mind has also proven to be a very useful method to finally determine which learning tools could play a more effective role in our EPAC course. In so doing, language instructors might have a more varied and representative view of their students' behavioural characteristics, learning preferences as well as expectations, which would have a positive impact on the whole learning process.

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APPENDIX

1. LIST OF ARTICLES ANALYSED IN THE PRESENT STUDY (see Table 1):

A. Opinion Articles

A.1. Vervoort, Y., Gutiérrez, A., Roncoroni, M., Liu, C., Steensels, J. & Verstrepen, K. 2017. High-throughput system-wide engineering and screening for microbial biotechnology. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology, 46*, 120-125.
A.2. Tsigkinopoulou, A., Baker, S. M. & Breitling, R. 2017. Respectful Modeling: Addressing Uncertainty in Dynamic System Models for Molecular Biology. *Trends in Biotechnology*, *35*(6), 518-529.
A.3. Keidar, M., Yan, D., Beilis, I. I., Trink, B. & Sherman, J. H. 2018. Plasmas for Treating Cancer: Opportunities for Adaptive and Self-Adaptive Approaches. *Trends in Biotechnology, 36*(6), 586-593.
A.4. Malyska, A., Bolla, R. & Twardowski, T. 2016. The Role of Public Opinion in Shaping Trajectories of Agricultural Biotechnology. *Trends in Biotechnology*, *34*(7), 530-534.

B. Review Articles

B.1 Regnat, K., Mach, R. L. & Mach-Aigner, A. R. 2018. Erythritol as sweetener—wherefrom and whereto? (Mini-review). *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, *102*(2), 587–595.
B.2. Sprague, M., Betancor, M. B. & Tocher, D. R. 2017. Microbial and genetically engineered oils as replacements for fish oil in aquaculture feeds. *Biotechnology Letters, 39*(11), 1599–1609.
B.3. Backofen, R., Engelhardt, J., Erxleben, A., Fallmann, J., Grüning, B., Ohler, U., Rajewsky, N. & Stadler, P. F. 2017. RNA-bioinformatics: Tools, services and databases for the analysis of RNA based regulation. *Journal of Biotechnology*, *261*, 76–84.
B.4. Löfblom, J., Rosenstein, R., Nguyen, M., Ståhl, S. & Götz, F. 2017. Staphylococcus carnosus: from starter culture to protein engineering platform (Mini-review). *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, *101*(23-24), 8293-8307.

C. Original Research Articles

C.1. Raj, R. S., Thakur, S. V., Hussen, V. S., Joshi, M. N., TyagiSnehal, S. N. & Bagatharia, B. 2017. Development of PR genes panel for screening aphid-tolerant cultivars in Brassica juncea. *3 Biotech*, *7*(129), https://doi.org/10.1007/s13205-017-0785-7
C.2. Naresh, P., Reddy, M. K., Reddy A. C., Lavanya, B., Lakshmana Reddy, D. C., & Madhavi Reddy, K. 2017. Isolation, characterization and genetic diversity of NBS-LRR class disease-resistant gene analogs in multiple virus resistant line of chilli (Capsicum annuum L.). *3 Biotech*, *7*(114), https://doi.org/10.1007/s13205-017-0720-y
C.3. Nielsen, M., Holst-Fischer, C., Malmgren-Hansen, B., Bjerg-Nielsen, M., Kragelund, C., Møller, H. B., Mørck Ottosen, L. D. 2017. Small temperature differences can improve the performance of mesophilic sludge-based digesters. *Biotechnology Letters*, *39*(11), 1689-1698.
C.4. Kroll, P., Stelzer, I. V., Herwig, C. 2017. Soft sensor for monitoring biomass subpopulations in mammalian cell culture processes. *Biotechnology Letters*, *39*(11), 1667-1673.

2. SURVEY: Degree of specialisation of a corpus of biotechnological texts (UPM, 2018)

1. Do you consider that there is a clear-cut boundary between general and specialised language?

Yes / No / I do not know.

2. Do you think the difference between general and specific is a matter of degree (specialisation level)?

Yes / No / I do not know.

3. What kind of texts should play a more dominant role in our EPAC course?

- Highly specialised texts related to the field of Biotechnology

- Highly specialised texts related to Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines

- Specialised texts related to the field of Biotechnology

- Specialised texts related to Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines

- General texts related to the field of Biotechnology

- General texts related to Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines

- General texts

- Other:

4. What kind of texts are you more interested in?

- Highly specialised texts related to the field of Biotechnology

- Highly specialised texts related to Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines

- Specialised texts related to the field of Biotechnology

- Specialised texts related to Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines

- General texts related to the field of Biotechnology

- General texts related to Biotechnology and other scientific disciplines

- General texts

- Other:

5. Think about your academic and professional needs. Please, list three useful topics.

6. Do you think that your level of motivation is higher when you read texts in English related to the Bachelor's degree in Biotechnology?

Yes / No / Maybe.

7. Do you think reading highly specialised texts would allow you to communicate in a specific academic, occupational or professional context?

Yes / No / Maybe.

8. Do you think reading specialised texts would allow you to communicate in a specific academic, occupational or professional context?

Yes / No / Maybe.

9. Do you think reading more general texts would allow you to communicate in a specific academic, occupational or professional context?

Yes / No / Maybe.

10. What would you say is the most useful genre to improve your level of linguistic competence?

- Scientific articles

- Opinion articles

- Reviews or mini-reviews

- Other:

11. What would you say is the most useful genre to improve your level of scientific competence?

- Scientific articles

- Opinion articles

- Reviews or mini-reviews

- Other:

12. What do you think is the genre with the highest level of complexity?

- Scientific articles

- Opinion articles

- Reviews or mini-reviews

- I do not know.

- Other:

13. What do you think about the level of the articles in Unit 5 (Moodle)?

- The level was too high.

- The level was high.

- The level was appropriate.

- The level was low.

- The level was too low.

14. What was the most complex text in Unit 5?

15. What makes you think that a text is more complex than others?

- Complex terminology

- Complex noun phrases

- Abbreviations

- Impersonal structures

- Passive voice

- Figures (numbers)

- Formulae

- Other:

16. What was the least complex text in Unit 5?

17. Would you replace any of the texts? Please, say why.

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DDL INTEGRATION IN DIFFERENT EAP SCENARIOS OF ACADEMIC WRITING

INTEGRACIÓN DE ABD EN DIFERENTES ESCENARIOS DE ESCRITURA ACADÉMICA EN IFA

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Abstract
In EAP (English for Academic Purposes) contexts, a holistic view is desirable for research and pedagogy. This mixed-methods approach usually includes quantitative data from language learning situations. For example, pre-tests, post-tests, and delayed post-tests may be exploited for concrete linguistic aspects so that the learners' performance evolvement with them is measured and contrasted. Other instruments of qualitative observation such as surveys, questionnaires, interviews, and classroom discussion also tend to refine the depiction of the learning profiles and outcomes. In this paper, the goal is to compare different EAP contexts over an 8-year period so that some corpus-related pedagogy issues in EAP may be explored. In particular, the study sets out to compare three different academic scenarios where DDL (Data-Driven Learning) techniques were developed with and for students during the academic writing sessions of the courses. The students were university faculty members (N=20, most with a B1 level), 15 other (graduate) students (mostly B2), and 15 other faculty and graduate students (B2). The DDL method was explored with all three groups, and salient linguistic-discursive features were compared (use of first-person pronouns / awareness of authorship, and importance of active / passive voice in the texts). Furthermore, by using some questionnaires and interviews with the students, additional feedback via their reflections on academic written English was collected. Overall, most students responded positively to the recognition of the learning opportunities offered with DDL for written academic language improvement across and within their fields, although some variations exist within and across groups in terms of learning opportunities and outcomes.
Key Words: EAP, writing, authorship, DDL, corpora

Resumen
En contextos de IFA (Inglés para fines académicos), es deseable aplicar una visión holística a la hora de investigar temas pedagógicos. Este enfoque de métodos múltiples generalmente incluye datos cuantitativos sobre los ítems específicos que se exploren en la situación de aprendizaje. El uso de pre- y post-tests / post-tests posteriores en torno a aspectos lingüísticos concretos puede proporcionar información detallada sobre la adquisición lingüística del alumnado. Otros instrumentos de observación cualitativa tales como encuestas, cuestionarios, entrevistas y debates pueden refinar el dibujo de los perfiles de aprendizaje y resultados del mismo. En este trabajo, el objetivo es comparar diferentes contextos de LFE a lo largo de un periodo de ocho años para que se exploren diferentes temas importantes en relación con la pedagogía de corpus en clases de Inglés para fines académicos (IFA). En concreto, este estudio tiene como base comparar tres escenarios distintos de escritura en IFA donde se desarrollaron técnicas de ABD (Aprendizaje basado en datos) con los alumnos. Los discentes eran miembros del

profesorado universitario (N=20, con nivel B1 de idioma en su mayoría), otros 15 alumnos provenientes de posgrado (con B2 la mayor parte), y otros 15 profesores y alumnos de posgrado (con B2). Se exploró el método de ABD con los tres grupos, y se contrastaron aspectos lingüístico-discursivos concretos (uso de primera persona, concienciación de autoría en el escrito e importancia de la voz activa / pasiva en los textos). Además, con el uso de cuestionarios y entrevistas con los estudiantes, se recogieron diferentes reflexiones en torno a la escritura académica en Inglés. En general, la mayoría de los discentes respondieron de forma positiva al reconocer las oportunidades de aprendizaje ofrecidas para la mejora del Inglés académico escrito en sus respectivas áreas, aunque se registraron variaciones dentro de y entre los grupos en cuanto a esas posibilidades y sus resultados de aprendizaje.
Palabras clave: IFA, escritura, autoría, ABD, corpora

1. INTRODUCTION

Writing in academic contexts of English as a foreign (EFL) or additional language (EAL) has been approached by a myriad of studies from different angles (e.g., corpus-based, social rhetoric, genre analysis, life-history, ethnographic, etc). Such L2 academic communities must often adapt to writing conventions outside their own in L1, especially in the Hard and Social Sciences (cf. Gea-Valor, Rey-Rocha and Moreno 2014), whereas in the Humanities, there is still a certain degree of resistance and skepticism within some disciplines and subject niches (e.g., History, literary studies, linguistics,cf. Burgess 2017). Nonetheless, mainly because of academic recognition and quality criteria pressure from assessment agencies (e.g., ANECA in Spain), the acceptance among higher education communities that they must either publish in English or perish becomes forefront, leading to an abundance of EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and ERPP (English for Research Publication Purposes) materials and courses where language and rhetorical strategies are mainly treated, but not so much “the practices surrounding the route to publication” (Hyland 2016: 190).

In current university settings of Spain, this phenomenon is evident, and one way by which it stands out is the increasing number of faculty members enrolled in EAP / ERPP courses and workshops at tertiary education over the past 8-10 years. All four communicative macro-skills are usually integrated in course / material design, and although our university colleagues tend to emphasize the importance of speaking, writing skills are underlined as intricately needed and fundamental. In general, EAP learners notice the importance of lexical / grammatical issues (e.g., verb tense, voice, article usage, hedging, and so forth) expected for clearer and more concise writing. Parallel to linguistic problems, however, it seems that an appropriate knowledge of text macro-structure and discipline-related rhetorical strategies (i.e., academic and disciplinary literacies) is not seen as important, even if it may work as an advantage prior to paper submission in a given journal (Paltridge 2015). An example is analyzed by Martín and León Pérez (2017) in Medicine, where the importance of rhetorical variation awareness is described for “immunity and allergy” research articles.

In our own courses, over the past decade, and probably going hand-in-hand with and related to higher language levels (from B1 to B2 / C1) over the years, both tenured faculty and fledgling researchers at university tend to recognize the significance of concrete linguistic features (grammatical, mainly) for writing style. In contrast, stylistic pointers such as structural / rhetorical devices along the text / genre, are, generally, less significantly followed, unless such items are explicitly stated during the reviewing / editing process. This gap in their realization of structures and moves / sub-moves taps into language variation awareness needs across disciplines. For writing tasks in ESP / EAP courses, the integration of Data-driven Learning [DDL], e.g., use of on-line corpora and software tools for writing corrections, can help learners to examine target linguistic / rhetorical issues related to their own specialized contexts of research writing (cf. Tribble 2001; Boulton 2012; Anthony 2016). This type of specialized writing approach via authentic electronic corpora has emerged strong over the past decade as a significant instrument for the construction, analysis, and management of written data from L2 learners either by using existing academic material or having learners build their own corpora of target writing in their fields (cf. Charles 2015; Anthony 2016).

Our study takes place in an EAP type of scenario, where the DDL approach may range from more general academic concordances (e.g., COCA, Corpus of Contemporary American English) to the interaction with corpus data in a given field or genre. The language level (and age) also varies. Over the past decade, our courses have mainly aimed to focus on general academic English skills (EGAP, English for General Academic Purposes). However, during the writing sessions (devoted to general issues such as lexis, grammar, and rhetorical phraseology), a more specific approach is included with the application of DDL after the examination of students' written output via a specific type of task (ESAP, i.e., English for Specific Academic Purposes). These tasks demand their use of identity and authorship stance pointers. The university semesters when these micro-sessions took place were: Fall of 2010, Spring of 2013, and Fall 2017.

This paper thus aims to first describe the common as well as distinctive academic phraseological findings derived from the work with DDL during those three ESAP sessions. Secondly, it attempts to evaluate the students' gained knowledge from DDL by observing pre- and post-tests (via reversed translations of key phraseology) as well as post-task questionnaires and discussions. In the theoretical section below, the literature review examines why this approach is taken in the courses (i.e., DDL for writing and academic skills analysis); then, the Methods will present the instruments for data collection in our case studies. In the Results and discussion, classroom-based observations and data are provided in terms of language awareness and linguistic findings from the students' use of the corpora. In the Conclusions section, we will derive key issues from our context analysis as well as from the current higher-education EAP scenario.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Two main lines of corpus-driven work tend to be applied to EAL / EFL written performance: 1) Learner corpora, where learners' use of linguistic items can be studied for different purposes (e.g., Error analysis), and 2) Native corpora for reference and use (i.e., DDL). Corpus linguistics and language learning seem to have merged naturally over the years due to the authenticity conveyed by corpora either as a reference tool for error / inter-language analysis (e.g., Granger 1998) or as key resources for linguistic exploitation (e.g., Johns 1990). In the second approach, the term DDL, automatically coming to mind, was coined by Johns (1990) and expanded and reformulated by several others (e.g., Sinclair 1991; O'Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter 2007; Boulton 2011).

Corpus-based approaches prove to be significant for the construction, analysis, and management of L2 materials and learners' data (cf. Boulton 2012). This method has been considered and often successfully applied to academic skills over the years, with different interests and focuses as classroom situations have varied (Boulton and Cobb 2017: 350-352). In the case of writing, this approach seems suitable because more positive results tend to be found with this academic skill when students use DDL (Boulton and Cobb 2017: 379), especially with learners' uses of corpora for the correction and / or evaluation of linguistic items (Boulton and Cobb 2017: 380).

Most LSP students realize the potential benefits derived from corpora for specialized writing (Boulton 2012; Anthony 2018), and in the case of advanced EAP learners, the tools seem appropriate for the students' own reflections on their discipline-oriented text types, styles, and forms (Charles 2015). In specialized writing and translation, learners also deem both on-line monolingual and parallel corpora as effective tools for writing for specific purposes (cf. Moon and Oh 2018; Ruivivar and Lapierre 2018). Integrating DDL approaches in the EAP classroom for the benefit of our colleagues and graduate students seems like a convenient strategy to follow. As Mizomuto and Chujo (2016: 62) put it, "guided DDL induction (…) has the potential to be employed more proactively as a teaching methodology with the understanding that (a) it may be better than conventional teaching approaches and (b) it does not favor learners with specific learning styles (i.e., inductive or deductive)."

DDL can thus focus effectively on the connections between words, grammar and discourse (cf. Smart 2014; Mizomuto and Chujo 2015). Among the discursive features regarded as important for academic writing across disciplines, meta-linguistic use, identity and authorship stance stand as objects of analysis (cf. Hyland 2002a). They can be defined within "interpersonal meaning" (cf. Hood 2010; Cheung and Low 2017), a phenomenon by which the writer's voice (i.e., attitude and position) can be conveyed in relation to the reading audience, writing conventions, and / or expectations in that specific discourse community. Hyland (1999) defines this as academic stance, associated to a great extent with the writer's interaction with his/her readers. In this respect, ESAP intricately relates to the specific requirements of, among other aspects, identity usage in the written texts.

In Spain, the importance of academic / professional writing and stance, meta-discourse, and identity is clear by just taking *Ibérica*, the journal of the European Association of Languages for Specific Purposes (AELFE, AsociaciónEuropea de Lenguas para Fines Específicos), as an example to observe that more than a dozen papers have been published over the past decade. The actual perceptions, attitudes, and ideas across different academic communities in Spain as regards writing differences, needs, and problems has been examined (e.g., Gil-Salom and Soler-Monreal 2014; Gea-valor, Rey-Rocha and Moreno 2014). Remedial suggestions include not only the attention to key verb tenses, hedges, and article usage in the texts / subtexts, ever important in our EAP writing courses, but also working with explicit discourse and genre features in L2 to which learners may not entirely relate or be familiar with (e.g., using first person pronouns across research sections, cf. Sheldon 2009).

An on-going pursuit in the DDL integration within academic writing courses is the notion of disciplinary / sub-disciplinary focuses. There are not only critical content-based differences among students (e.g., non-Philology versus Linguistics-knowledgeable students in the classroom) but also writing competence level variations (e.g., academic stance is not usually embedded yet in younger researchers, even if their language levels are high). Even if the literature tells us that DDL can adapt to different learning styles (cf. Mizomuto and Chujo 2016; Boulton 2009), the issue here is whether EAP students can effectively integrate their roles as "detectives of language use" (cf. Johns 1990) in order to become effective ESAP practitioners, communicating for specific academic purposes (e.g., chart explanations, cf. Sancho-Guinda 2012) or within a specific genre (e.g., argumentative essays, cf. Schneer 2013).

Another important issue is the notion of L1 transfer in academic literacies. L2 students may concentrate on certain lexical bundles and un-notice or underestimate others, in agreement with Pérez-Llantada's (2014: 88) observation that "few non-native learners ever fully accumulate the native repertoire of formulaic sequences". Yet, a good deal of L1 and L2 convergence exists, and when insufficient, the repertoire of lexical bundles and resources can result in an unsuccessful alignment or ''frustrated proximity'' (Sancho-Guinda 2012: 166). This reinforcement need for lexical / grammatical competence tends to recur as one of the main issues related to L2 academic writing.

3. METHODS

The three cases described in this study are examples of engagement with DDL for written academic language revision / improvement. The type of analysis presented is concrete and qualitative, as it was the only common approach in all three groups. All the EAP students dealt with academic evaluation in their writing when using personal and meta-textual references (i.e., expressing authorship and stance). The three groups of students were: 1) 20 students (mostly faculty at B1 levels) taking four hours of academic writing (in an intensive 20-hour EAP course) during the Fall semester of 2010. 2) 15 graduate students (from Philology and Education degrees) being exposed to 30 hours of corpus work in a 60-hour course for the Master of Education (most students at the B2 level) during the Spring semester of 2013, and 3) 15 (mostly graduate) students but also faculty at B2 levels taking 2 hours of DDL within a 12-hour EAP module (Fall of 2017).

The corpus tools used varied from course to course. Since more corpus interfaces, big data, and faster internet access have made on-line corpora easier and probably friendlier to use, our courses tend to have also integrated them more effectively in the classroom. Smaller corpora are also equally accessible, and better software tools enable the building of ad-hoc resources for specialized text type classifications and analyses (cf. Heuboeck, Holmes and Nesi 2010).

The corpora used in the courses were: 1) For 2010, the Hong Kong Polytechnic Corpus of Engineering (HKPCE) (more faculty came from Science) and a home-made corpus of academic blogs compiled by the teacher in 2009 and processed via WordSmith Tools (2004). 2) For 2013, many different corpus resources were used, but for the evaluation of authorial identity in the texts, three on-line resources were important: MICUSP (The Michigan Corpus of Upper-level Student Papers), the academic section of COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English), and BAWE (British

Academic Written English corpus). 3) In 2017, BAWE and COCA were selected to showcase some academic language usage of verbs and nouns from the students' compositions.

The writing tasks assigned to the students were the following:

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

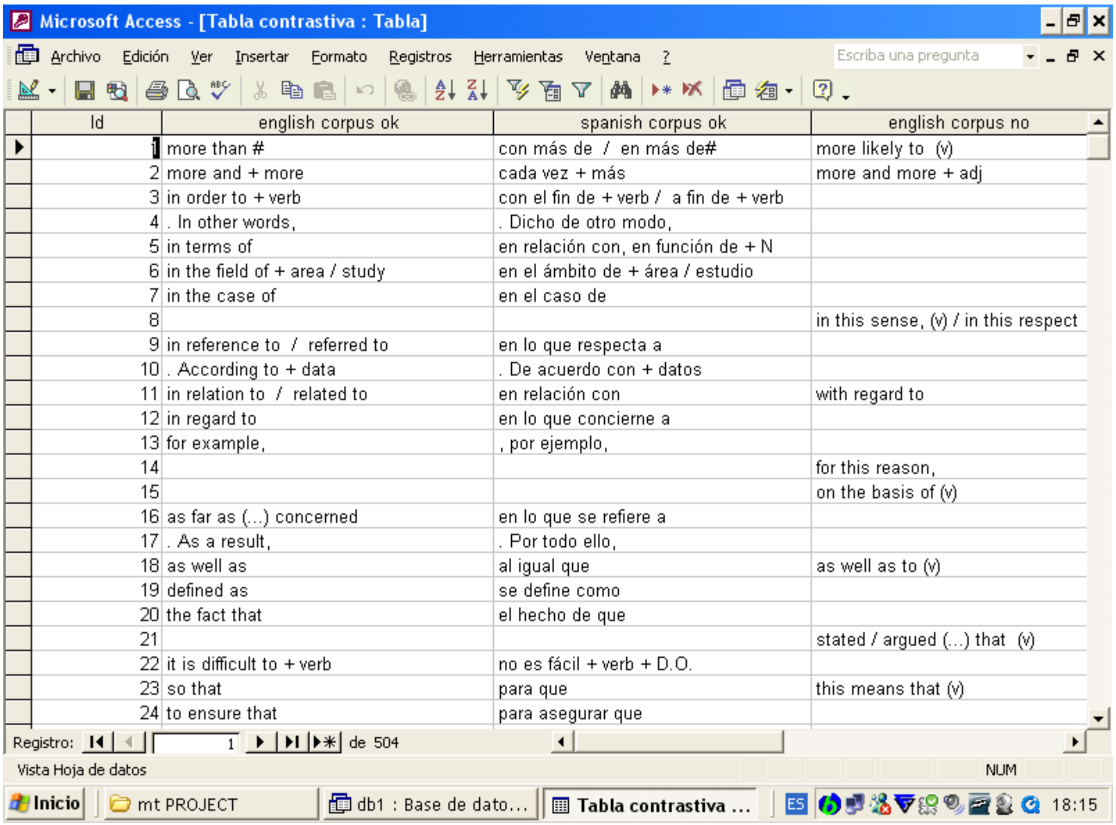
In the following section, Results and Discussion, the precise instructions and details of the tasks will be described, with the observation of specific linguistic devices that may have gone either unnoticed or overused in the L2 writings. For the evaluation of their potential improvement with the recognition and production of such items, after the DDL sessions, in 2010 and 2013, a pre-test was handed out to the students, followed by a post-test on the same content on the following day (2010), and further apart in 2013 (more than two weeks). In 2010, the teacher conducted the DDL revision between tests by showing the data on-line on the screen, while in 2013, the students themselves made note of the possible linguistic improvements by using the resources available on-line. In 2017, there was no evaluation, as corpus use was restricted to illustrating some linguistic items that those volunteering to read their texts unveiled (the teacher took note of some verbs and nouns and compared them with corpus-driven examples).

3.1 Data collection

How the data was collected varied across the groups. In 2010, the students submitted their written texts in paper form and then, the possible changes to be made were underlined by the teacher and returned to them on the following day. The pre- and post-tests in 2010 included a list of frequent academic expressions to be translated. In 2013, the same thing was done as in 2010, but a questionnaire on students' impressions and reactions to corpora was also included at the end of the sessions. In 2017, as mentioned above, there was no data collection. In all three cases, discussions and some interviews with the students were made via classroom talks. In addition, institutional on-line course questionnaires were obligatory for students to complete in 2010 and 2017.

The data collection derived from this study was compared under the hypothesis that "an increase in the accuracy with which partially acquired features are used" is actually made after DDL work (Ellis 2010: 344). The writing assignments were timed and constrained within classroom situations for the purpose of language revision via DDL. There was no post-writing task as a follow-up exercise, nor other mechanisms for progress surveying. Therefore, the increase in accuracy to be observed, if any, would be relegated to specific academic phraseology evaluation by means of reversed translation (see Appendix, Table 1). Thus, academic writing proficiency would not be an objective in this evaluation (as mentioned, writing post-tasks were not administered to any of the groups). Yet, examining their improvement in the translations might lead to, at least partially, observations that DDL may effectively foster intake for written academic language usage.

Furthermore, academic expressions can be influenced by the L1-related language (cf. Sancho-Guinda 2012). Reversed translation may become an important instrument for linguistic revision / reinforcement. One way of redressing such deficiencies may be found in the explicit marking of L1 and L2 correspondences not only via existing academic parallel corpora, but also home-made collections of academic writing in L1. Figure 1 presents the most frequent alignments from an ad-hoc corpus of English and Spanish journals in the fields of Computer Science and Education (cf. Curado-Fuentes 2010). These expressions were used as linguistic reference for the translation exercise in the pre- and post-tests. The labels “English corpus ok” and “Spanish corpus ok” refer to the existence of such items as highly frequent in the two corpora, while the “English corpus no” means that those items were not frequent in the English journals, and yet overused in an L2 corpus.



Id	english corpus ok	spanish corpus ok	english corpus no
1	more than #	con más de / en más de#	more likely to (v)
2	more and + more	cada vez + más	more and more + adj
3	in order to + verb	con el fin de + verb / a fin de + verb	
4	. In other words,	. Dicho de otro modo,	
5	in terms of	en relación con, en función de + N	
6	in the field of + area / study	en el ámbito de + área / estudio	
7	in the case of	en el caso de	
8			in this sense, (v) / in this respect
9	in reference to / referred to	en lo que respecta a	
10	. According to + data	. De acuerdo con + datos	
11	in relation to / related to	en relación con	with regard to
12	in regard to	en lo que concierne a	
13	for example,	, por ejemplo,	
14			for this reason,
15			on the basis of (v)
16	as far as (...) concerned	en lo que se refiere a	
17	. As a result,	. Por todo ello,	
18	as well as	al igual que	as well as to (v)
19	defined as	se define como	
20	the fact that	el hecho de que	
21			stated / argued (...) that (v)
22	it is difficult to + verb	no es fácil + verb + D.O.	
23	so that	para que	this means that (v)
24	to ensure that	para asegurar que	

Figure 1.Top lexical bundles in an ad-hoc corpus (L1 / L2).

Finally, the type of writing explored in our courses was not research-based, as above-mentioned, but chiefly dealt with academic writing related to description and argumentation. No discourse structure model regarding any of the text types treated was considered (e.g., Hyland, 2004; Schneer, 2013), although it may be observed that various texts (especially argumentative essays in 2013) followed the thesis statement / argument / conclusion form. In all three cases, for the evaluation of their writing, three linguistic elements were considered: 1) Using personal pronouns (mainly first person); 2) Using impersonal statements (mainly *it is* + adjectival / participle forms); 3) Using modality in the passive versus active voice. All these elements could point at how identity formulation and reflection might be made in the texts (cf. Hyland, 1994; Hyland, 2002a).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 The 2010 group

After the essays were returned to the students in class, we focused on the use of the first person pronoun, passive versus active voice, and impersonal statements. In contrast with other groups (see Table 1), these students' texts presented simpler constructions for argumentation (e.g., *I think that*, *I believe that*, *I am in favor of…*). Active statements outnumbered passive constructions by far (an average of one passive sentence per 300 words). Impersonal statements with the use of *it is* + adjective / participle were a bit more noticeable in argumentation, but not to describe interests or hobbies (e.g., *it is possible that*, *it is good that*, *it is considered that…*).

Year	Students' overused constructions	Corpus-informed constructions noticed / exploited by the students
2010	*I think that* / *I believe that* *It is possible that* *Is possible* + subject	*I* + many verbs (state / others) (no *that*) *We* + involving verbs (e.g., take / see) *It* / *This* +could / may / can + *be* + past participle
2013	*I think* / *I prefer* / *I would choose* *This can happen* / *This can be* + adj. *If you take / consider…*	*I* + many verbs (other verb tenses / engagement with the reader) *We / I* + modal + *argue* (active) *It* + modal + *be* (passive statements) *It is* + possible / important + *to…*
2017	*I find* + concept + adjective *I predict that…* *It is* + adjective + *that*	*it* + *can / may* + *be* + past participle + *that*

Table 1. Contrastive examples from the linguistic aspects examined in the courses

The information contrasted with the on-line HKPCE revealed that no use was made of the first person singular pronoun in HKPCE, as the texts in this corpus were research papers and written projects. In contrast, the students realized how the use of *we* could be made in active statements throughout the corpus. Less clear was their realization of how some verbs, usually activated with personal pronouns in their minds (e.g., *observe*, *predict*, *consider*), could be re-written in the passive voice with modals (e.g., *it could be predicted that…*) to confer a more detached academic stance (perhaps, this awareness difficulty was due to their lower language levels, the fact that all the students were non-Humanities / non-Linguistics experts, or both factors).

In turn, from the corpus of blogs, a wealth of choices was induced with the use of *I* with other verbs. A common structure, unused by the students, was the omission of *that* in *I believe / think* clauses. In addition, the possible use of *we* to involve the reader was shown and understood as a form of interpersonal meaning with the community of readers (a strategy that is also common in academic Spanish). Finally, they could double-check in their compositions that impersonal passive statements might be preferred "for better English", as some learners claimed in the classroom discussions. Some structures reviewed with these corpora included some items from the pre- and post-tests (e.g., *this could be defined as…*).

For the pre- and post-tests, the lexical content (see Table 2 in the Appendix) was derived from a corpus, but none used in the courses. As mentioned above, this corpus was a home-made collection (239,000 tokens) of academic papers from the areas of Computer Science and Education (cf. Curado-Fuentes 2010). The aim of this corpus was the provision of highly frequent academic expressions. The 20 items were the most frequent academic lexical bundles found in that corpus, coinciding in part with other academic writing corpora (e.g., BAWE and Academic Word List by Coxhead2000). The translation to be made was reversed translation (Spanish to English), but four items were in English (deemed as more difficult for this B1 level) for direct translation in the tests.

The calculation of the scores was made with a non-parametric measurement (Sign test calculator 2018), since the number of students was below 30 and a kurtosis test in Excel revealed negative scores (-0.7 and -0.4) deviating from 1.0. The z-value from the pre- and post-test score comparison yielded 4.47214, the p-value <.00001, and the result was significant at $p<0.05$. Therefore, an obvious lexical recognition and gain could be deduced from the score comparisons, at least in the short term, since the post-test followed the DDL treatment and pre-tests within a very short time (one day later). In post-course questionnaires, some students referred to this particular DDL activity as positive, albeit more requests pointed to other needs in the courses (e.g., more hours for writing, speaking).

4.2 The 2013 group

The 15 students in the graduate course of the Master of Education wrote longer compositions as an average (a mean of 423 words) and submitted their writings on the virtual university platform. This facility (together with more time afforded for the activities) allowed for their own management of the corpus resources and tools. They also had access to concordance software (WordSmith) with which to examine their own word usage and frequencies. Overall, they could check how, in their descriptions of favorite teaching methods, their own use of first person pronouns was frequent with opinion and state verbs (e.g., *I think that*, *I prefer*, *I will choose…*). However, they made almost no use of the plural form *we*, and only some use of the second person *you* as an impersonal statement for activity description (e.g., *if you take…*). The most common verb tense used with pronouns was the present simple, followed by the future.

Impersonal statements were not frequent, but appeared in an average rate of 1.25 per composition. The passive voice was used in a 2.2-to-15 sentence ratio, but rarely used with modality (only three statements in total in arguments with *can* and *may*). Impersonal clauses were chiefly integrated in the explanation of concepts and observations of teaching practices. Most modal verbs appeared in the active voice in the compositions (e.g., *this can happen*, *this can / may be…*).

When we used on-line corpora for language revision, MICUSP provided a wide range of verbs and tenses as options with first person pronouns (e.g., *I* + continuous forms in the future and past, and *we* + modals engaging the reader). The students made notes of these differences and submitted them as a final exercise for the activities. The results were quite satisfactory as a whole. One student even wrote her final project for the course on linguistic differences noticed and exploited with the on-line tools. Here is an excerpt of the conclusions in her project:

> *I consider that the corpus instruments that we have used are very positive for our language learning competence. The other tools that improved this learning approach can include the use of translation and vocabulary applications, but the best for positive reinforcement of language use is the corpus tool, undoubtedly.*

The use of BAWE also led to important discoveries of academic verb use. The case of frequent verbs used with modality and in passive statements in argumentative texts was realized. For example, with the verb *argue*, 88 percent of its use was in the form *it* + modal + *be argued*). Another issue was the different choices of verb tenses available. COCA unveiled this for our graduate students: the future tense with personal pronouns in essays, where up to 50 percent of the items occurred in the future continuous tense (e.g., *I will be arguing / I will be referring to…*). Regarding impersonal statements, our students were able to observe some of their linguistic choices reflected in COCA, but important differences emerged in terms of collocations and structure usage (e.g., *it is possible* was followed by *to* more frequently than by *that*, and the use of *that* was often omitted in the corpus).

The scores from pre- and post-tests were noticeably higher than in the 2010 group, but the number of students (N=15) made the application of parametric statistics dubious (with kurtosis values for their scores of -0.2 and -0.5). The sign test was performed, and the z-value yielded 3.87298, the p-value <.00011, and the result was significant at p<0.05.

The production of lexical bundles in their writing was not measured in a longitudinal study that might have added more reference data. Yet, all the learners' improved test results correlated with their recognition of corpus work as a good approach to academic language gain (in agreement with Curado-Fuentes 2014). In Table 3 (Appendix), the high means resulting from scores on a likert scale (1-5), especially the first five items, may point to such positive reactions to corpora for L2 learning among students. In contrast, Table 3 (Appendix) identifies lower means for negative statements on corpus use. From classroom discussions, some positive and negative comments were:

> *MICUSP and BAWE are so cool, they give you the actual use in academic writing, and you can see in which areas of study.*
> *I prefer to use the concordances if we choose fewer texts, because they clarify things better.*
> *The best thing is that I learned to use them for my own courses of English writing. I can now check my vocabulary in context.*
> *COCA fails too much. I lose the information and I have to start again.*
> *I don't like these electronic tools. They are confusing. Grammar is not explained well.*
> *I just don't like computers, and less for language learning.*

4.3 The 2017 group

Some examples in this group were related to usage of frequent academic verbs in the compositions. A salient contrast with the corpus information was the use of such verbs in passive statements with modality. Such constructions tend to be underused by L2 learners, and in our case, the students felt that they were important constructions to know. For instance, the verbs *find*, *predict*, *generalize*, and *observe* could be often located in BAWE and COCA within the impersonal statement pattern *it* + modal + *be* + past participle.

A different but also interesting discussion was motivated with the use of COCA for the examination of CAN and MAY, the two most frequent modals occurring in the passive voice in the academic section of the corpus. Most students could see the differences in stance when using this construction, e.g., they thought that epistemic and evaluative purposes were achieved better (i.e., distancing one's voice from the data to substantiate the evidence). A student reported that even though he felt that first person pronouns in L2 research writing make him feel "uneasy" and "uncertain", he could not really "muster enough courage" to widen the scope with different structures and be equally clear at certain points in the text, especially at discussing results. This observation parallels Hyland's (2002b: 1108) in that

> academic literacy is a 'foreign culture' to students of all backgrounds, where they find their previous understandings of the world challenged, their old confidences questioned, and their ways of talking modified. For students struggling to gain control of their discipline and master its content, this can lead to a sense of powerlessness and uncertainty.

This type of *it + can /may*+ passive constructions was regarded as "insipid" and "less direct" by some students, who wondered "why not construct more active personal references" in the research process narrative. In Spanish, in fact, a frequent parallel device is the inclusive (author + readership) *we* + modal + infinitive, in accordance, at least partially, with Sheldon's (2009: 254) "typological variation of six possible identities realized by first-person pronouns". Our graduate learners were somehow referring, in their classroom talks, to their own writing practices in the L1 and interlanguages.

4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Some ideas about DDL integration in EAP courses may be discussed, based on our own findings and other authors' results:

1. A higher language command and better and more widespread use of technologies may play in our favor. As demonstrated by the 2017 group, more faculty and graduate students tend to have a B2 level nowadays. This variable is important because the students at B2 were able to more easily reflect on the corpus-driven information, connecting linguistic items to authorial stance. The 2013 group understood that native-like writing could serve as a good example for their examination of language choices, and this comparative knowledge could benefit their own academic writing. In 2010 and 2017, all the students came from areas in Hard and Social Sciences. Thus, no bias could be alleged in 2017 in

terms of their being language-focused learners. Easier corpora interfaces and clearer / more abundant results also favored the 2013 group's understanding and identification of data for their academic aims.

The question is that those students with lower language levels may not become attracted to the DDL resources as the more advanced learners do. DDL seems to work better if there is a language background that underscores lexico-grammatical items. Thus, offered to the academic community are simplified interfaces and concordance displays—cf. Chujo et al. 2015—but for EAP, when those students are starting at A2 or B1, in the case of making the connections between lexis and grammar in specialized discourses, much more attention and effort is needed. Such efforts may not only be devoted to language, but also disciplines / sub-disciplines.

2. The specific text type. EAP courses usually include the study of academic genres and sub-genres. An example is the research paper introduction. However, for the writing assignments described, other (less structurally rigid) types were chosen so that the students could be given more freedom in their writing style. Thus, a text-based variation of linguistic choices (e.g., usage of I-pronouns in argumentative essays) could be explored in the DDL activities. The wide array of linguistic items that emerged in the DDL sessions belonged to the so-called lexico-grammatical aspect of language learning (e.g., a key verb is frequently used in a given tense and voice within a given text type). This correlation was less easily comprehended by most learners, and only in 2013, and partially, the graduate students coming from Philology and Education majors could really make the connections and reproduce such insights onto their own dissertation papers.

The exploration of Philology versus non-Philology students' reactions to DDL for academic writing is also key. Perhaps, one way of examining such variations (if there are any) is the approach to more current and updated resources where the learners may make the connections better. Indeed, it seems that corpora such as HKCPE have become outdated, and others like BAWE and COCA may not disclose the association of crucial linguistic items within specific text types (as specialized ad-hoc corpora may achieve). More recent discipline-based corpora (e.g., the Elsevier corpus of research—Kwary, 2018) may be a good alternative.

3. The "detective" work. Except for the 2017 group (who did not undergo any direct evaluations), the case studies seem to demonstrate that both inductive and deductive strategies are well developed to correct or clarify lexico-grammatical items (e.g., searching for alternative verbs within a given structure, or the opposite, identifying a grammatical pattern and then the verbs in it). For the discovery of more optional linguistic items and frequent native-like expressions, the students have always indeed valued the tools as positive (explicitly in 2013 with the questionnaires, but also implicitly in discussions and after-the-course surveys in 2010 and 2017).

It seems that more research is needed in the form of longitudinal studies that focus on post-evaluation over a one-year course or, even more, over a whole study program / degree, and / or professional career. For example, an optimal scenario in bilingual programs could be that the faculty /

instructors' academic competences in L2 be evaluated every x number of months for an x-year period. The long-time effect of DDL on their linguistic progress may thus be effectively assessed.

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APPENDIX

Translate the following into English (or Spanish):

Más de X
Cada vez más
Con el fin de + verbo
Dicho de otro modo,
In terms of + concept
En el ámbito de + área de estudio
En el caso de
En lo que respecta a
De acuerdo con los datos
En relación con
En lo concerniente a
Por todo ello,
As far as X is concerned…
As well as...
Se podría definir como
El hecho de que
Es difícil + verbo
This is found to be…
Parece que
Se observa que

Table 2. Academic lexical bundles / items for pre- and post-tests.

Survey Questions	Mean
11. Using corpora for language exploration is a good way to learn more about that language	4,4889
2. Learning how to use corpora tools is important for my career as teacher	4,4444
10. I would like to use corpora in the future and learn more about their use	4,2955
8. Corpora are good to improve my writing knowledge	4,2444
9. Corpora are good for error correction	4,1778
7. Google can also work as a positive corpus tool	4,1111
1. I enjoy using the computer for L2 improvement	4,0889
4. Using corpora gives me more chances to approach authentic English	4,0667
14. Using small corpora is better for academic purposes	4,0444
5. Free on-line corpora are more convenient and useful	4,0000

Table 2. Items from the 2013 group's questionnaire ranked in order of means (high values)

Survey Questions	Mean
3) I am intimidated by computers	2,0889
6) Corpora confuse me and I don't see the point	2,3556
13) Using corpora is not worth the time and effort.	2,6136
12) Corpora are frustrating to work with.	2,8444

Table 3.Items from the 2013 group's questionnaire ranked in order of means (low values)

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GUIDELINES FOR THE DESIGN AND GENERATION OF CORPUS-BASED TERMINOLOGY-ORIENTED INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

DIRECTRICES PARA EL DISEÑO Y LA GENERACIÓN DE MATERIAL DIDÁCTICO BASADO EN CORPUS PARA EL APRENDIZAJE DE TERMINOLOGÍA

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Abstract

A great deal of research has been conducted to exploit linguistic corpus data for language learning and teaching use. In the integrative corpora and language pedagogy stream of research diverse practical purposes coexist at the front and have presently become consolidated practice -learner corpora, ELT dictionary-making corpora, learner dictionary corpora, EAP corpora, specialised domain corpora, English-taught programmes corpora such as Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) or English-medium Instruction (EMI). This paper outlines a framework for corpus exploitation process towards the design of instructional material for the learning of terminology of a specialised domain which is applicable to ESP courses. Our proposal advocates for a protocolised use of written corpora to devise a resource for teaching terminology and, accordingly, suggests guidelines to ESP teachers/ practitioners who undertake the tasks of extracting corpus data and adopt the role of material designers and, occasionally, of computer programme developers. To accomplish this, in the first place, specialised corpus compilation and design criteria have been customised to guarantee consistency across the pedagogic ends, the functional language needs of the ESP user and the specific learning objects within the DDL approach framework. In the second place, search strings used for semi-automatic text mining actions are illustrated as well as samples of terminology-oriented activities that can be automatically generated using concordancers and annotating computational tools. Future research might apply our proposal to further language contexts.

Key Words: Didactic exploitation of specialised corpora, ESP innovative educational instruction, Natural Language Processing, automatised generation of terminology-oriented learning material, Language Learning and Technology

Resumen

Numerosas investigaciones se han llevado a cabo para explotar los datos de los corpus lingüísticos con fines de enseñanza y aprendizaje. En las líneas de investigación sobre la integración del corpus en la didáctica de la lengua inglesa, son varias las parcelas que coexisten en posiciones destacadas y que, con la práctica, han terminado consolidándose –corpus lingüísticos de estudiantes, corpus de enseñanza de lenguas para la elaboración de diccionarios, corpus para diccionarios de estudiantes, corpus de inglés para fines académicos, corpus de inglés para fines específicos, corpus para aprendizaje de contenidos a través del inglés como el Aprendizaje Integrado

de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) o la Enseñanza por medio del Inglés (EMI)-. En este artículo se delinea un marco desde el que desarrollar el proceso de explotación de corpus para diseñar material didáctico orientado al aprendizaje de la terminología de un dominio especializado y aplicable a cursos de IFE. La presente propuesta aboga por un uso protocolizado de los corpus escritos para desarrollar un recurso de enseñanza de la terminología y, por consiguiente, sugiere un conjunto de directrices a los profesores de IFE que acometen las tareas de extracción de datos del corpus y adoptan el rol de diseñadores e, incluso, de desarrolladores de programas informáticos. Para ello, en primer lugar, este estudio plantea un ajuste de los criterios básicos de compilación y diseño de corpus especializados a los fines pedagógicos, a las necesidades funcionales y lingüísticas del usuario de IFE y a los objetivos específicos de aprendizaje, entre otros, dentro del marco del enfoque de aprendizaje basado en datos. En segundo lugar, se ilustran las opciones de búsqueda empleadas en las acciones de minería de textos así como muestras de actividades orientadas a la terminología que pueden ser generadas automáticamente a partir de las herramientas de concordancia y los anotadores. Futuras investigaciones podrían extender esta propuesta a otros contextos del lenguaje.
Palabras clave: Explotación didáctica de corpus especializados, innovación educativa en IFE, Procesamiento de Lenguaje Natural, generación automatizada de material didáctico para el aprendizaje de la terminología, Tecnología para el Aprendizaje de Idiomas

1. INTRODUCTION

Direct and indirect uses of specialised language corpora for language/content instruction have opened up new strands of linguistic inquiry and have boosted empirical investigations in a tradition which is now firmly established in the LSP context. Specialised language corpora have been dramatically exploited in the last 30 years for an extensive variety of descriptive and applied purposes and across theoretical areas of all kinds. Owing to the corpus interplay, it is usual to find hybrid approaches to Terminology, Translation, ELT, Lexicography and ESP studies, to name but a few. Another proof if the corpus evolution is its omnipresence. Corpus use is no longer confined to the fields of Language and Humanities but it is extensive to non-linguistic disciplines (Pharmacology, Law, Engineering, Maritime Navigation…).

Looking back, one of the earliest corpus-based English language instructional materials was Willis & Willis's Collins COBUILD English Course (1988), which was based on the same corpus research that produced the Sinclair's pioneering *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* in 1987. While educational technology continued its progress, corpus management tools kept at pace and gradually entered into further fields, finally widening its scope to ESP. The corpus paradigm, as Laviosa (1988) referred to, is embedded in educational technology and Terminology is one of the disciplines which have benefited the most from its potential in the research and teaching duality. On the one hand, corpus prevails as a methodological tool to empirically uncover the term's communicative, conceptual and linguistic dimensions. On the other hand, corpus invigorated vocabulary teaching and hence its pedagogical value. As Boulton & Pérez-Paredes (2014) put forward the interest relies now on how to integrate corpus linguistics tools and techniques in language pedagogy.

In this regard, we can cite preceding scholarly work addressing this issue. Among them, we can mention Luzón-Marco (2000), in the Medical English field, Curado-Fuentes (2002), in the Business

English field, Marinov (2013), in an undergraduate course of English for Tourism, Wu (2014), who proposed direct use of corpus to ESP students of Technical College in Taiwan, and Marzá (2014) who developed corpus-based DDL research in English for Tourism field. Further insights transferred the corpus use to genre-based writing pedagogy (Mizumoto, Hamatani & Imao 2017; Chang 2014).

Even though advantages of applying corpora to ESP pedagogy have been heavily discussed some issues remain to be addressed. In this vein, Chirobocea (2017, 364) explains that devising corpus-based ESP instructional material method "is still largely either misapplied or misunderstood by teachers and, apart from its obvious advantages, it has some important disadvantages which make it harder to use". In our view, the development of corpora for materials of an ESP programme ought to be regulated to ensure better learning of the targeted specific vocabulary.

The present work intends to contribute to ease the corpus applicability to ESP by following a protocolised use of corpus and tailored guidelines for compilation criteria and design adapted to ESP aims and user ends. To this end, the study is structured as follows. Firstly, it shall be provided a full account of corpus design criteria for specialised domain and a compilation methodology aimed to serve as a guide for ESP teachers. Secondly, we will move on to illustrate how to exploit the corpus bearing in mind the terminology instructional goal. Thirdly, a workflow of actions for the corpus processing by basic computational tools is proposed. Fourthly, samples of automatic generation of terminology oriented activities shall be presented. To finish with, we shall present the advantages and drawbacks that have been encountered along the research.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The advent of corpora and educational technology has paved the way to unfold, to discover, to describe, to verify and to evaluate language uses in particular domains, introducing new empirical ways to the qualitative and quantitative studies of language, its structure and patterns. Basically, our study is primarily confined to extract the corpus data containing the terms that, included in the content of a teaching lesson, the learner is to practise. Certain pedagogical approaches have found their way into the corpus-based studies. One of them is the implementation of the lexical approach (Lewis 1997) where the instruction content is designed around frequent vocabulary and uses the findings in a corpus. Data Driven Learning or DDL (Johns 1991) is another corpus-based approach characterised by conferring the corpus direct contact to the learner either as a user (receptive role) or as a compiler and analyst (producer role). Our pedagogical assumptions rely on the potentialities of learning through a term's contextual environment, on the DDL approach as facilitator and on Corpus Linguistics as the purposeful textual inputs to study language using computer processing tools and a set of quantitative and qualitative procedural means and methods, to put it simply. We can also say that a context-based learning approach (CBL) is at the core of our proposal. The sound role of contextual information that a corpus provides is essential to grasp the conceptual and linguistic information of a terminological unit. A term environment can help to identify its meaning when seen in relation to others. In addition, ESP learners can access and learn through samples and models of real language within an authentic specialised communicative setting. The typical learning tasks and activities associated to CBL are scanning, exploring, selecting, assembling, constructing, mapping, and sequencing. On the other hand, CBL foremost intends to generate positive effect on attitudinal and cognitive aspects of learning. The former one is achieved in terms of learner's sustained motivation, autonomy and engagement with authentic texts in an educational and technological setting and the latter one enables the upgrade of the learner's term conceptualization as well as memory enhancement.

Furthermore, all these views are in balance with the linguistic approach to terminology represented by the Communicative Theory of Terminology (Cabré 1999), probably the most currently backed up approach and adopted in this study. It puts emphasis on the communicative aspects of the use of the terms, takes cognitive and discursive aspects into account and the object of study are terms conceived in the context of specialised discourse that are actually used in LSP corpora. Thus, this theoretical framework goes along with the learning object of the corpus-based instructional material that we seek to develop.

We present one way of exploring corpus possibilities for teaching but there are others. Our proposal encompasses mixed functional and content-based syllabi where corpus-based terminology instructional material is to be used as sequential part of a didactic unit or as the source for addressing further (extra-) language and discursive features

3. DATA DRIVEN LEARNING AND ESP CORPUS-INFORMED INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

The data-driven learning is an inductive learning that helps the learners to uncover the language behaviour on their own. Previous studies in the language teaching tradition have addressed this issue and have illustrated its applicability (Leech 1997, Gabrielatos 2005, Scott & Tribble 2006, Campoy, Gea-valor & Belles-Fortuno 2010, Flowerdew 2012, to name but a few). In this section, the material developmental stages are described together with the DDL facets which were applied. The ESP teacher/practitioner prevailing requirements for monitoring all the process are outlined as well.

3.1. DDL modes

A bottom up approach shall be conducted to exploit the corpus because corpus data are our starting point to build up learning material. Terms will not be extracted according to prior inductive proposal but the learners undertake (semi-) guided (un-) controlled discovery tasks to get to the term keyness. According to Leech (1997) there are different modes of approaching Data Driven Learning. Two of the most typically used in tertiary education are:

-A 'teaching to exploit' DDL approach: In this mode, the ESP learners compile the corpus and work 'hands-on' being semi-guided by the teacher. We refer to this mode as 'open DDL'.

-A 'exploiting to teach' DDL approach: the ESP learners handle the corpus under the ESP teacher controlled actions, that is, the ESP teacher is previously trained in corpus compilation and processing, devises corpus-based tasks and presents them to the learner in a printed format or embedded in the corpus text. We refer to this mode as "controlled DDL".

What we adopt is a data-driven approach where both of them, the open and the controlled modes, can be applicable though dependant on the learners' age, level and the time constraints. We set out to develop instructional material driven by data obtained from a specialised corpus which has been particularly compiled to this end by the teacher who presents the material to the learner.

The learning activity proposed consists of two parts that shall be sampled in section 4.3, a data-driven learning action (pre-warm corpus-based activity oriented to the learner's observation and awareness of the term behaviour) and a data-driven activity (a specific corpus-based task on terminology learning aimed at term-identifying and usage tasks).

Nevertheless, we are aware of the fact that the controlled DDL approach is easier to be organised and performed during ESP lessons. The learners would then manage a corpus that has been previously compiled and designed by the teacher and search the query on his/her own following the ESP teacher's instructions. They work either on a corpus building/ processing tool. The resulting activity is learner-centered as well and, according to Bernardini (2000), it can enhance memory retention and recall because learning through data involves a high degree of task involvement.

3.2. The ESP Teacher engaged in corpus-informed DDL

Even though there are corpora available on the web, we propose that ESP teachers build their own corpus to ensure that the corpus-based learning activities meet the pedagogical needs and are suitable for the final aims and learning objectives. Some preliminary actions are expected to be carried out by the ESP teacher involved in the design and development of a corpus-informed DDL instructional material, namely:

(1) The ESP teacher should, alone or in collaboration with field's experts, make some decisions on the corpus domain under study. Its selection has to be relevant to the specialised language needs of the ESP learner. It entails a thorough revision of the topic contents of non-linguistic courses and consultation with experts on the conceptual fields and the terminology typically associated before determining which terms to be learnt.

(2) ESP teacher's role as a corpus-based learning material designer requires the acquisition of corpus computer management skills.

(3) ESP teacher's role as researcher to distil the key terms (monolexematic and polylexematic units) in context.

(4) ESP teacher should be advised by the field's experts on the document text types which are prototypical in the domain and useful for specialised communication as well as on the validation of terms' process.

(5) The ESP teacher should also make decisions on the scope and range of the corpus size.

(6) The ESP teacher also needs necessary skills to interpret quantitative data, especially evidence obtained from computer tools such as Wordsmiths tools or AntConc.

(7) The ESP teacher has to check access to technical resources (corpus processing tools).

(8) The ESP teacher may provide the learners with further samples of lexicogrammar patterns, despite the focus is on terminology, so that they can perceive that the terms are not seen in isolation but in context.

(9) The ESP teacher is recommended not to strive for overly ambitious targets but for a balanced and rational scope in the learning object.

Despite the fact that most teachers seem to be resistant to integrating corpus in their syllabi, the ESP teacher tends to be particularly engaged in creating material, especially in those fields with a scarcity of pedagogically oriented materials.

3.3. Instructional material devise: stages and follow-up

The first stage in the material design consists of the documentary selection planning before corpus compilation takes place in a second stage. The corpus processing operations are performed at a third stage. Next, once the term candidates' extraction and the term validation have been executed, the learning activity is generated and fulfilled by the learner at a fourth stage. The full process ends up with the fifth stage focused on assessing the learner's performance, reviewing, filtering and, if necessary, refining the learning activity. Table 1 below shows the working stages and the follow-up.

Stages	Actions proposed to be developed in the open DDL approach	Actions proposed to be developed in the controlled DDL approach
FIRS STAGE: PLANNING AND TIMING	-Setting the learning objective and assessment scale. -Topic selection. -Timing of sequences of actions. -Verifying availability of computer tools. -Creation of a term validation template. -Development of instructions for learners on corpus compilation and on corpus processing. -Guiding the learners to the terms in focus. -Development of a post-activity survey.	-Setting the learning objective and assessment scale. -Topic selection. -Timing of sequences of actions. -Verifying availability of computer tools. -Creation of a term validation template. -Development of a post-activity survey.
SECOND STAGE: CORPUS BUILDING (Using dedicated guidelines)	- The ESP teacher and the ESP learner select electronic documentary sources in English. -Compilation of an ad hoc specialised English corpus by the learners.	-The ESP teacher selects electronic documentary sources in English (monographs, textbooks, research articles, handbooks, manuals, press articles, regulations on the field …). -Compilation of an ad hoc specialised English corpus by the ESP teacher.

THIRD STAGE: PROCESSING (Using dedicated guidelines)	-Using computational tools to analyse texts. -The learner uses the instructions for corpus processing which have been developed in the first stage. -The learners follow the instructions on the terms to be extracted. -Term candidates' extraction is made by the learner. -Term validation by the learners (field's semi-experts) under the guidance of the ESP teacher using the validation table designed in the first stage.	-The ESP teacher is trained on managing software tools. -The ESP teacher designs the corpus. -The ESP teacher compiles the corpus. -The ESP teacher processes the corpus. -The ESP teacher extracts the candidate terms -The ESP teacher validates the terms in cooperation with the subject-matter expert. -The ESP teacher extracts the data and transforms them into information that will be shaped as instructional material oriented to terminology learning.
FOURTH STAGE: Performance	-The learner stores the data for glossary development. -The learner fulfils the tasks.	-The ESP teacher presents the corpus preview to the learners. -The ESP teacher presents the activities which have been designed using the data extracted from the corpus. The learning activities/ tasks can be hosted in a programme (Microsoft Access…) or presented on a printed format. -The learner fulfils the tasks.
FIFTH STAGE: Analysis, evaluation and refinement	-The learner's tasks are evaluated. -The learner completes the post-activity survey. -The ESP teacher analyses the results obtained.	-The learner's tasks are evaluated. -The learner completes the post-activity survey. -The ESP teacher analyses the results obtained.

Table 1. Stages in the production and follow-up of the corpus-based ESP instructional material

It is worth mentioning that the key terms are based on the criteria of frequency measurement so that we start from the assumption that term frequency is an indicator of its relevance and outstanding role in a field of knowledge. It is usual to resort to frequency for justifying the introduction of these key terms also known as KWIC (key word in context) in the teaching and learning lesson plan.

4. GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN AD HOC WRITTEN SPECIALISED LANGUAGE CORPUS

Even though corpus building criteria are seemingly applicable to language teaching, we advocate for particular criteria for dealing with ESP teaching material. ESP requires the application of specialised language criteria for corpus compilation in consonance with the ESP learners' needs. The specialised teaching material should primarily feature ways to promote the learners' communicative competence and the ESP teacher should ascertain and control that the material is pedagogically relevant to fit the real specific terminological needs of the learner.

Building a written/oral corpus requires the use of guidelines since a corpus is not a simple gathering of texts. Selecting, discarding, filtering, structuring, classifying and categorizing are essential activities to prepare a corpus and recall its data at will before the processing comes into play. In this section we are concerned with providing simple guidelines to teachers who have not already attempted to manage corpus and wish to do so in order to transfer the data as pedagogical resources into their courses. Although our study corpus belongs to the domain of Science & Technology, the orientations are not confined to but extensive to any area in the Humanities and Social Sciences' disciplines, among others. The general schemata for corpus building are presented below. All of them are external criteria following those proposed by Atkins, Clear and Ostler (1992), Bowker and Pearson (2000), Corpas (2001), Losey-León (2015) and Seghiri (2017).

4.1. Design criteria

a. Specifying the aim: Clarifying the objective of the text compilation is at the core of corpus design. It can be oriented to a product, namely:

-terminographic product: glossary, thesaurus, (term-)ontology,…

-translation memory,

-knowledge data bases,

-language instruction material (for translation training, ESP teaching, CLIL/EMI teaching).

or centered on extracting data to analyse the common pattern and vocabulary and draw conclusions other than those derived from a terminographic product:

-Language analysis and description to gain knowledge about specialised language: typical activities are describing and comparing the language of the domains and subdomains, contrasting terminology and uses, discovering neologisms, analysing phraseology, extracting terminological collocations (Costa & Silva 2004), analysing pattern frequencies, identifying variation cases, (post-) editing and annotating,

-Error detection and analysis.

b. Clear target-user: It involves guessing about the tasks the user has to tackle successfully (ESP language learner, specialised translator, researcher,…)

c. Deciding on the time period coverage: the corpus can be synchronic (providing data from one point in time) or diachronic (dealing with the way language develops over time). So, the choice depends on whether the compiling user is interested in language across the years or at a definite time. Both of them are useful to study language variations and neology.

d. Selecting the language and the number of languages: corpus can include texts in one language (monolingual corpus), two languages (bilingual corpora), or more (multilingual corpora).

e. Degree of relationship between the languages: parallel corpora (segments of source texts that have been aligned with their equivalent segments in the target language) or comparable corpora (when the documents are compiled in two or more languages but there is no exact equivalence between them).

f. Organising the corpus samples into different conceptual fields. It is advisable to make further subdivision in genres.

g. Degree of specialisation of the documents contained in the corpus. A research article provides specialised information of a domain and is expected to be read by (semi-) experts in the field. For instance, a leaflet on instructions to evacuate a site is expected to be read by laymen, in broad terms. It is crucial to make decisions on this feature which is determined by the learners' mastery of English and the suitability of the text type. A corpus may contain a single text type or a combination of different text types. They should be stored in separate files as it enlarges the scope and range of future analysis. This feature has a direct influence on corpus balance issues.

h. Establishing modularity capacity (Losey-León 2015): It depends on whether your aim is to collect information on a broad domain or on partitions (subdomains, text types, …). It allows you to study the corpus as a whole or in sections being a fertile land for contrastive analysis.

i. Authenticity: This is a thorny issue and there are conflicting views. Some studies argue that authenticity in language pedagogy should be relatively aimed and texts should be adapted, if necessary. However, in our view, texts should reflect real unabridged language when dealing with specialised domains. In this line, Wu (2014, 123) pointed out that re-writing techniques such as paraphrasing might obscure and alter the integral essence of the text so he concluded that one solution to guide the readers through a text could be the use of various devices, without making drastic changes to the content.

j. Sample size: There is not an absolute criterion on corpus size but general language corpora are, by far, of larger size than specialised language corpora. On the other hand, as regards specialised corpora, vast amount of texts do not necessarily correspond to a substantial body of expertise (Losey-León 2015, 296).

k. Balance: It features the amount of information provided for corpora containing a wide heterogeneity of text types which poses the problem of achieving accurate terminological portray of the domain. If the dataset is biased, when submitted to quantitative and qualitative study, the results are not reliable.

l. Representativeness: As Biber (2003, 256) stated, the design of a representative corpus is not really finalised until the corpus is completed and the parameters of variation are obtained and analysed. As a matter of fact, a corpus can be deemed representative as far as it allows completeness according to the learning objectives in an educational context. This issue has been dealt with extensively by Corpas and Seghiri (2007).

4.2. Workflow of corpus compilation, term extraction and processing

Once the corpus design has been completed, the empirical study begins. Figure 1 synthesizes all the central tasks ranging from data gathering to corpus processing and results.

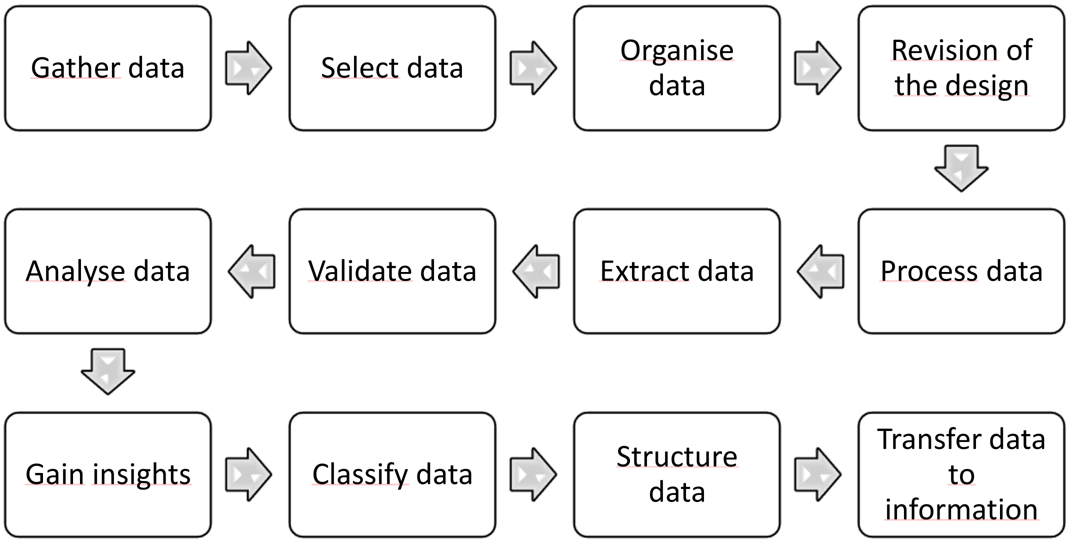


Figure 1. Workflow diagram of specialised corpus management tasks from data to information transfer

1) Data gathering. This is the compilation and documentary stage. It consists of the following set of actions:
    a. Consultation of specialised sources (electronic or printed format):
        i. Company organisations dealing with the (sub)domain.
        ii. Documentation from related institutions and organisations (standards, technical documentation, …)
        iii. Subject-matter textbooks
        iv. Subject-matter research articles, periodicals, reports…
    b. Consultation of terminographic sources
    c. Consultation of databases, termbases, …
2) Data selection. This is the set of documents that will be included in the corpus. Decisions on the text type, level of specialisation and time span have already been made.
3) Data organisation. Its classification arrangement is essential for the accessibility of the specific documents when queried. At this point, it may be necessary to check the files and convert them into txt format which is the most extensively required by computer processing tools. Apart from this, the files in the original format should be kept and stored. The files should be categorised

according to text type and then subcategorised according to the language, conceptual field, period or the other way around. Expert advice is recommended. Tags or codes accompanying the files should contain distinguishable features to ease the location. Further actions at this time are the storage of the corpus in a single file and tag it as reference corpus; then, select one of the folders as the study corpus. This action will allow the ESP teacher to compare and refine results if the aim is to get the finest specific terms of a (sub) domain.

4) Revision. This is the moment to check the adequacy of the corpus compiled, of its content, of its languages and of its size to our aims.
5) Process data. It requires a previous preparation of a stopword list in the language concerned to filter and discard unwanted signs, symbols and noise. This is stored in a separate file. It will be available for filtering the preliminary results. As regards the data processing, reliable software is available on the web and provided with tools (wordlist, concordance, keyword, clusters, N-grams…) that shall be used according to the ESP teacher inquiries. The processing method is frequency based. Some well-known programmes are:
    a. Wordsmith's tools 7.0 (Scott, 2019 - late version)
    b. AntConc (Anthony, 2017 - late version)
    c. Sketch Engine
6) Extract data. It is recommended to start using the wordlist tool. It will provide the teacher with the first quantitative data of the corpus such as nº of tokens, nº of types and the tokens/type ratio. This indicator gives the ESP teacher information about the lexical density of the corpus. Most tools allow uploading of a stopword file. This action is recommended to obtain finer results. Since the interest relies on terms, we can then apply the concordance tool so that we can obtain all the instances in which a word co-occurs with others. The results will yield collocational and lexicogrammar patterns. We can now apply the keyword list tool that will provide us with a term candidate list according to statistical criteria and parameters provided by the programme. It is essential to be aware of the fact that these lists contain candidates to terms because their validity has to be tested. The user can also ask the computer to search the corpus for strings of words. This technique is associated to Biber et al. (1998).
7) Validate data. At this stage the cooperation with the subject-matter expert's opinion is essential. We can have a template ready to facilitate them the task. The final list will contain the terms. The qualitative results obtained complement the quantitative results yielded in previous stages.
8) Analyse data. The terms can be now displayed in context and analyse in terms of relevance.
9) Gain insights. The ESP teacher can evaluate which terms in context can be practised from the corpus preview.
10) Classify data. From the data obtained it is possible to categorise, make generalisations, and group data. At this point, it is usual to distinguish special features and envisage the design of an activity.
11) Structure data. The data obtained should be structured according to the parameters chosen by the ESP teacher such as grade levels.
12) Transfer data to information. This stage consists on the design of the learning activity headings, the type of activity. The corpus data have been transformed into information which is exploited for pedagogical purposes.

4.3. MARNAV Corpus-based instructional material.

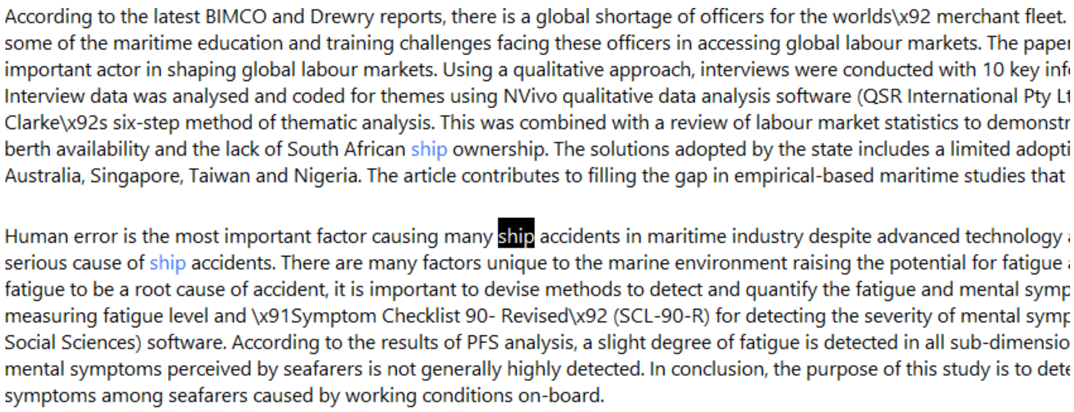
A specialised corpus on Maritime Navigation was compiled ad hoc. It consists of 131 texts and 11558 tokens from specialisation level 1. It can be described as a specialised written monolingual English corpus, modular and untagged. The corpus will be hosted by a web application specifically developed to transfer corpus analysis to the context of specialised language learning and teaching. The tool is tailored to specific needs in the LSP setting of the domain of maritime navigation, seafaring, naval architecture, engineering and applied sciences but it can be expanded to any other domain. However, it has not been fully implemented yet. Although the automatically generated activities cannot be displayed at present, figures 2, 3 and 4 below are sample models of how the learning activities are envisaged and can be projected onto the programme. Part 1 illustrates the pre-warm corpus-based data driven learning activity aimed at learner's observation and awareness of the term behaviour, followed by another task that requires the learner's interaction with the processing tool to obtain results.

1. Part 1 (DDL):
   2. Upload the file named "Marine navigation", click on the "word list" tab and observe the most frequent words in the document. Then, click on concordance tab and write the word "ship" in the search box. You will see a list of sentences containing the word ship.

. Cox proportional hazard models are applied to	ship accident data from 1996 to 2015, and the resu
is the most important factor causing many	ship accidents in maritime industry despite advanc
-known problem and a serious cause of	ship accidents. There are many factors unique to
on on container terminal activities, structure of	ship, and characteristics of containers is distrib
the port, and load factor of the	ship and estimates the possible container flows un
of a complete loop of a container	ship and of a chain that uses that
, but cannot explain the observed pattern. Future	ship and trade-specific studies on physical and
purpose, real data of a bulk carrier	ship are used to determine the unit energy
high risk of recurrent accidents, based on	ship attributes, ship supply and market conditions
might be hybrid intermediaries, selling their own	ship-based products and services, while offering a
any delay in the arrival of a	ship can impose extra handlings and reshuffling of
rt rotation changes, allowable port handlings and	ship capacity. A case study of a deep
tring sequence with \x91uniformly\x92 distributed	ship capacity is more likely to accommodate a
into the management strategies of two major	ship crewing agencies in China, which have been
ner stacking and reshuffling operations can cause	ship delays and additional risk. In deep-sea
lines often encounter situations, such as serious	ship delays, that require adjustments of shipping
tribute decisively towards price discovery in the	ship-demolition industry. Our finding is explained
models of Southeast Asian countries, where the	ship-demolition market is primarily located, rely
use it for price prediction in the	ship-demolition market. We establish that it provi
to minimize the total deviation, given the	ship-dependent target times preferred by the shipp
, a problem which belongs to the large	ship-deployment class. A string sequence with \x91
and use it to elucidate the optimal	ship-deployment sequence. The objective is to mini
to Europe. It turns out that changing	ship does indeed lead to economies of scale,

Figure 2. The resulting concordance search for the word 'ship' using AntConc (2017)

   a. Highlighted in red colour you will see the words that usually accompany 'ship'. Click on the "accident" hit in the second line and read the full paragraph. Then, work with your class mate and explain what the paragraph is about.


According to the latest BIMCO and Drewry reports, there is a global shortage of officers for the worlds\x92 merchant fleet.
some of the maritime education and training challenges facing these officers in accessing global labour markets. The paper
important actor in shaping global labour markets. Using a qualitative approach, interviews were conducted with 10 key inf
Interview data was analysed and coded for themes using NVivo qualitative data analysis software (QSR International Pty Lt
Clarke\x92s six-step method of thematic analysis. This was combined with a review of labour market statistics to demonstr
berth availability and the lack of South African ship ownership. The solutions adopted by the state includes a limited adopti
Australia, Singapore, Taiwan and Nigeria. The article contributes to filling the gap in empirical-based maritime studies that

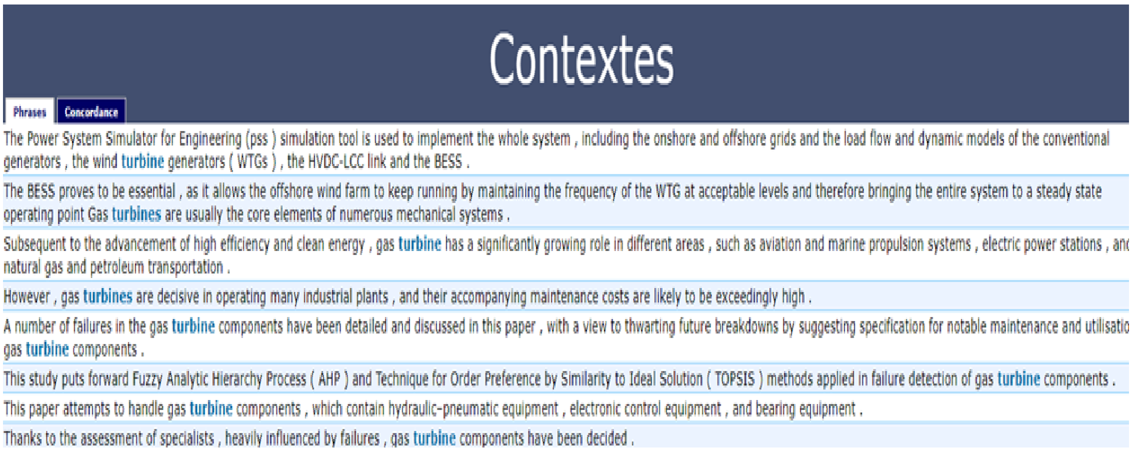
Human error is the most important factor causing many ship accidents in maritime industry despite advanced technology
serious cause of ship accidents. There are many factors unique to the marine environment raising the potential for fatigue
fatigue to be a root cause of accident, it is important to devise methods to detect and quantify the fatigue and mental symp
measuring fatigue level and \x91Symptom Checklist 90- Revised\x92 (SCL-90-R) for detecting the severity of mental symp
Social Sciences) software. According to the results of PFS analysis, a slight degree of fatigue is detected in all sub-dimensio
mental symptoms perceived by seafarers is not generally highly detected. In conclusion, the purpose of this study is to dete
symptoms among seafarers caused by working conditions on-board.

Figure 3. Sample text extracted from the corpus showing occurrences for the word 'ship'

3. Part 2 (DDL):

   Answer the following questions:

   - How many types of turbines can you locate in the text? how many types of generators?
   - Match the following terms with the corresponding abbreviation that appears in the text:
     a. Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution
     b. wind turbine generators
     c. fuzzy analytic hierarchy process
     d. power system simulator for engineering


Contextes

Phrases | Concordance

The Power System Simulator for Engineering (pss) simulation tool is used to implement the whole system , including the onshore and offshore grids and the load flow and dynamic models of the conventional generators , the wind turbine generators (WTGs) , the HVDC-LCC link and the BESS .

The BESS proves to be essential , as it allows the offshore wind farm to keep running by maintaining the frequency of the WTG at acceptable levels and therefore bringing the entire system to a steady state operating point Gas turbines are usually the core elements of numerous mechanical systems .

Subsequent to the advancement of high efficiency and clean energy , gas turbine has a significantly growing role in different areas , such as aviation and marine propulsion systems , electric power stations , and natural gas and petroleum transportation .

However , gas turbines are decisive in operating many industrial plants , and their accompanying maintenance costs are likely to be exceedingly high .

A number of failures in the gas turbine components have been detailed and discussed in this paper , with a view to thwarting future breakdowns by suggesting specification for notable maintenance and utilisatio gas turbine components .

This study puts forward Fuzzy Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) and Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS) methods applied in failure detection of gas turbine components .

This paper attempts to handle gas turbine components , which contain hydraulic-pneumatic equipment , electronic control equipment , and bearing equipment .

Thanks to the assessment of specialists , heavily influenced by failures , gas turbine components have been decided .

Figure 4. The resulting search for the word 'turbine' using *TermStat* context tool

The second part above delineates a basic corpus-based task on terminology learning consisting on locating, identifying and matching abbreviations to terms.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Specialised language corpora contain data to inform ESP instructional material on the key terminological units whose frequency and co-occurrence deserve special attention as their specificity degree is clearly identifiable in a given (sub) domain. The dataset yielded by a corpus provides the ESP teacher with sufficient input to develop purposeful corpus-based tasks. Corpus exploitation for pedagogical ends is empirically grounded and, therefore, entirely appropriate to be performed within a sustainable greater pedagogical framework such as Data Driven Learning (Johns 1991), as it has been demonstrated by previous research tradition. To our knowledge, few studies have focused on providing guidelines to build up corpus particularly tailored to the ESP pedagogical needs and backed up by a detailed workflow from the envisage of the corpus design to its final learning/teaching material, that is from grasping corpus data to its actual exploitation. This paper provides the ESP teacher/practitioner with guidelines to control the quality of the corpus compilation and a workflow of actions from the documentary stage to corpus processing and data extraction, and intercepted by a series of actions before the transfer of corpus data to information takes place. Our main contribution can be summarised as the importance of establishing a general quality protocol in which a specialised corpus can be developed. What seems clear from this study is that despite Corpus Linguistics gives us the keys to obtain quantitative and qualitative data empirically demonstrated, pedagogical applications also involves the frame of a methodological approach. In this vein, corpus-informed Data Driven Learning modes entail both intentional and accidental discovery of terminological information. Among the main advantages it is worth mentioning the great deal of information that corpus can provide.

Even if the designer focuses attention on terms, new data are continuously retrieved through co-occurrence patterns so that lexico-grammar, semantic and extralinguistic information can be drawn. The ESP learner can benefit from the visualisation of the term environment enhancing memory performance through contextual information. Written samples of corpora also help students focus on patterns for improving writing skills. The learner’s sustained interest and strong motivation are also fostered through the use of technological tools and hands-on training. On the other hand, this learner-centred approach may also contribute to enhance the learner’s language awareness in the professional field. As regards the ESP teachers, corpus-informed DDL contributes to teacher development, enhancing the language awareness and research skills. It also provides them with self-assurance and autonomy as material developers and controllers of a pedagogically oriented process and of its final product.

The main drawbacks that should be mentioned are the lack of availability of resources, the restricted access to documentary sources, the dependency on the subject-matter expert to validate terms and elucidate prototypical genres and text types of the (sub) domain, the necessary skills to interpret the quantitative data provided by the computational tools and the time constraints.

In our view, it could be an interesting topic for future research to detect and analyse the errors that emerged during the learner’s performance and review the instructional material looking for inconsistencies as well. On the other hand, expectations on the full implementation of the programme to automatically generate corpus-informed learning activities will allow piloting studies and practical cases for further discussions. Future investigations that stem from experimental uses of our proposal are necessary to validate and confirm these initial findings.

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Encuentro Revista del Departamento de Filología Moderna

RECHERCHEKOMPETENZ DURCH SELBSTKORREKTUR IN DER TRANSLATIONSORIENTIERTEN FREMDSPRACHENAUSBILDUNG (TOSA)

EL DESARROLLO DE LA COMPETENCIA DOCUMENTAL MEDIANTE LA AUTOCORRECCIÓN EN LA FORMACIÓN DE LENGUAS PARA TRADUCTORES

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Universität Innsbruck

Abstrakt
Die Ausbildung für Übersetzer an translationswissenschaftlichen Instituten umfasst am Beginn des Studienganges oft eine Phase der Sprachausbildung. Damit diese die Studierenden zielgerichtet auf das Übersetzen vorbereitet, muss sie sich am Gesamtziel der Ausbildung (der übersetzerischen Kompetenz) orientieren. In diesem Beitrag wird analysiert, inwieweit sich eine translationsorientierte Sprachausbildung von einer kommunikativen Sprachausbildung im Allgemeinen und in Bezug auf Recherchekompetenz im Besonderen unterscheidet. Dazu wird ein Unterrichtsprojekt vorgestellt, dessen Zielsetzung darin bestand, die Recherchekompetenz durch Selbstkorrektur im translationsorientierten DaF-Unterricht zu fördern.
Schlüsselwörter: translationsorientierter Sprachunterricht, Übersetzerausbildung, Translationsdidaktik, Recherchekompetenz, DaF-Unterricht

Resumen
A menudo, la formación universitaria de traductores comprende, en las primeras fases de la carrera, asignaturas dedicadas a las lenguas de trabajo. Para poder preparar a los estudiantes de forma específica a su futura labor traductora, es necesario que estas clases estén orientadas hacia el objetivo global de la carrera, que es la competencia traductora. En este artículo analizaremos en qué medida se diferencia una formación de lenguas orientadas hacia la traducción de una formación comunicativa tanto en términos generales como en relación con la competencia en el uso de fuentes de documentación. Para ello, presentaremos un proyecto realizado en una clase de Alemán como Lengua Extranjera cuyo objetivo consistía en fomentar la competencia en el uso de fuentes de documentación a través de la autocorrección guiada.
Palabras clave: enseñanza de lenguas orientada hacia la traducción, formación de traductores, didáctica de la traducción, competencia en el uso de fuentes de documentación, Alemán como Lengua Extranjera
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1. Einleitung

Aus der zentralen Anforderung des Übersetzerstudiums, nämlich der Entwicklung einer übersetzerischen Kompetenz (vgl. bspw. die Modelle von PACTE 2005 oder EMT 2009), ergibt sich die Notwendigkeit eines zielgerichteten Sprachunterrichts an den Universitäten, der den Studierenden eine Betrachtung von Sprache aus der Übersetzerperspektive zugänglich macht und ihnen jene Techniken des Spracherwerbs vermittelt, die es ihnen ermöglichen, sich spezifisch auf ihre spätere übersetzerische Tätigkeit vorzubereiten.

Die Zielsetzungen einer solch translationsorientierten Sprachausbildung (TOSA) habe ich in meinem Beitrag zum Konferenzband der Translata II (Schmidhofer 2017a: 329-335) wie folgt skizziert (verkürzte Darstellung):

Kompetenzen

Kommunikative Kompetenz

Die im Rahmen des GERS definierte kommunikative Kompetenz ist zweifelsohne auch für die Übersetzerausbildung von hoher Relevanz, sind doch die darin definierten Kompetenzen, sowohl die allgemeinen als auch die Sprachkompetenzen, Teil des übersetzerischen Werkzeugs.

Metasprachliche Kompetenz

Ein Übersetzer muss zur Rechtfertigung seiner Entscheidungen, sei es in der Ausbildung gegenüber Lehrpersonen und Kollegen oder später im Beruf gegenüber Kunden oder Korrekturlesern, über ein metasprachliches Inventarium verfügen, um Entscheidungen beschreiben und verteidigen zu können, damit der in der Übersetzerwelt oft gestellten Forderung nach *intersubjektiver Nachvollziehbarkeit* (Reiß 1989) Rechnung getragen werden kann.

Haltungen und Arbeitsweisen

Sprache als Arbeitsmittel

Das übergeordnete Ziel der translationsorientierten Sprachausbildung besteht darin, eine Haltung zum Fremdsprachenerwerb zu vermitteln, die über die kommunikative Nutzung hinausgeht und eine akribische, nahezu perfektionistische Beschäftigung mit Sprache in den Mittelpunkt rückt.

Sprache als Teil des Lebens

Für das nachhaltige Erlernen einer Fremdsprache ist es unabdingbar, dass diese nicht auf einen Lerngegenstand beschränkt wird, sondern Teil des gesamten Lebens wird.

Fremdsprachliche und übersetzerische Identität
In der Sprachausbildung für angehende Übersetzer sollten die Studierenden auf die Rolle des Übersetzers hingewiesen werden und dadurch die Fähigkeit entwickeln können, passende sprachliche Mittel für verschiedenste Sprachhandlungen unter Einbezug soziokultureller Gegebenheiten zu finden.

Kritische Betrachtung von Texten

Im Rahmen des Sprachunterrichts sollten zukünftige Übersetzer auch zu einer kritischen Betrachtung von fremdsprachlichen Texten angeleitet werden. Da der fremdsprachliche Text den Ausgangspunkt für die Handlung als Sprachmittler darstellt, erschweren Mängel in Texten dem Übersetzer seine vermittelnde Rolle und müssen mitunter durch Rücksprache mit dem Auftraggeber/Sender aufgeklärt werden.

Bewusster Umgang mit Nachschlagewerken

Der Übersetzer muss in der Lage sein, durch verschiedene Instrumente Lücken in seinem Kenntnisstand zu schließen. Des Weiteren muss er die Fähigkeit entwickeln, das vorhandene Angebot kritisch zu analysieren und die einzelnen Quellen auf ihre Verlässlichkeit zu überprüfen.

Kritische Betrachtung der eigenen Leistung

Für einen (angehenden) Übersetzer ist es unumgänglich, sich die eigenen Stärken und Grenzen bewusst zu machen, um seine Arbeit erfolgreich ausführen und seine eigene Leistung ständig verbessern zu können.

Eigenständiges Arbeiten

In wenigen anderen Berufsfeldern gibt es einen derart hohen Prozentsatz an Freiberuflern wie unter Übersetzern, weshalb die Fähigkeit, eigenständig und lösungsorientiert zu arbeiten für einen Übersetzer von besonderer Bedeutung ist.

Aus diesen Zielsetzungen ergeben sich Unterschiede zum kommunikativen Sprachunterricht – der am weitesten verbreiteten Form des Sprachunterrichts in Europa –, die vor allem dadurch bedingt sind, dass im kommunikativen Sprachunterricht der Lerner vorrangig zu einer kompetenten Fremdsprachennutzung befähigt werden soll. Ein kompetenter Fremdsprachennutzer ist jemand, „der eine Fremdsprache in persönlichen und beruflichen Situationen effektiv und adäquat zur Erreichung bestimmter Ziele oder zur sozialen Interaktion einsetzen kann“ (Schmidhofer 2017a: 331). Der Kontext der Fremdsprachennutzung ist dabei meist einsprachig und die Kommunikation zwischen den beiden Gesprächspartnern erfolgt auf direktem Wege. Im Gegensatz dazu nimmt der Übersetzer eine Mittlerfunktion zwischen zwei Kommunikationspartnern ein, die indirekt, also über einen Übersetzer, kommunizieren. Der Übersetzer sieht sich dabei mit zwei verschiedenen Sprachsystemen konfrontiert und muss seine Rolle den Kommunikationsbedürfnissen anderer unterordnen (Schmidhofer 2017a: 331).

Daraus ergibt sich die Notwendigkeit eines reflektierten und bewussten Spracherwerbs, der über die Entwicklung kommunikativer Fertigkeiten und deren unbewussten Einsatz hinausgeht. Eine zentrale Rolle spielt dabei das Erkennen eigener Wissenslücken und die Entwicklung von Strategien, um selbige durch zielgerichtete Recherche auszugleichen oder zu eliminieren.

2. Sprachrecherche im kommunikativen Sprachunterricht

Im kommunikativen Sprachunterricht ist die eigenständige Recherche zu sprachlichen Lücken ein kontroverses Thema. In den ersten Phasen des Einsatzes der kommunikativen Methode, also in den 70er und 80er Jahren, ging die Tendenz eher dahin, im Leseprozess Wörterbücher nur in letzter Instanz einzusetzen und vorwiegend auf Erschließungsprozesse zu setzen: „Inferencing or guessing the meaning of the unfamiliar words on the basis of the text context was seen to be a more efficient and effective lexical processing strategy for dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary.“ (Fraser 1999: 74, vgl. auch Alcaraz Mármol/Almela Sánchez-Lafuente, 2013: 90) Studien zur Wörterbuchbenutzung haben teils sich widersprechende Resultate in Bezug auf deren Effizienz gebracht, doch zeigen die meisten, dass Lerner mit Zugang zu Wörterbüchern bei Leseverständnisaufgaben besser abschnitten (Prichard, 2008: 217).

In der heutigen Praxis hängt die Aufforderung und Anleitung zur Benutzung von Konsultationsmaterialien meist von der Lehrperson ab. Im Allgemeinen kann man beobachten, dass Wörterbuchnutzung im kommunikativen Unterricht kaum bzw. sehr oberflächlich betrieben wird. (cf. Alcaraz Mármol/Almela Sánchez-Lafuente 2013: 90 und Świątkiewicz-Siklucka 2008: 28, letztere bezieht sich spezifisch auf die Situation in Polen)

Auch heute werden Lerner meist dazu angeleitet, in der Rezeption die Bedeutung aus dem Kontext abzuleiten und in der Produktion Vermeidungsstrategien anzuwenden, d. h. andere sprachliche (lexikalische oder grammatikalische) Mittel einzusetzen, um die gestellte kommunikative Aufgabe zu lösen. Dies ergibt sich in der Produktion meist aus der direkten unmittelbaren Interaktion, die lange Sprachrecherchen nicht zulässt. Zur Durchsetzung dieser Strategien wird des Öfteren vom Gebrauch zweisprachiger Wörterbücher im Unterricht und bei Hausaufgaben abgeraten bzw. dieser direkt untersagt (vgl. Świątkiewicz-Siklucka, 2008: 30).

Befürworter der Nutzung von Wörterbüchern, wie Świątkiewicz-Siklucka (2008: 28-29), weisen darauf hin, dass auf diese Weise versäumt wird, den Einsatz von Wörterbüchern in den Unterricht zu integrieren. Die gute Kenntnis von Wörterbüchern und der darin erhaltenen Informationen würde auch die Autonomie der Lernenden erhöhen, da sie dadurch das Potenzial, das Wörterbücher bieten, besser ausschöpfen könnten.

3. Recherchekompetenz

3.1. Recherchekompetenz im GERS

Der GERS (Gemeinsamer europäischer Referenzrahmen für Sprachen) umfasst ein System zur Beschreibung von kommunikativen Aktivitäten und Sprachkompetenzniveaus, das sich in sechs Stufen untergliedert. „Erfasst werden darin jenes Wissen und jene Fertigkeiten, mit denen Sprachenlernende im öffentlichen, beruflichen und privaten Bereich sprachlich handlungsfähig werden" (Europarat 2011: 3). Obwohl der GERS keine konkrete Vermittlungsmethode empfiehlt, sind schon allein durch den sprachhandlungsorientierten Ansatz Parallelen zum kommunikativen Sprachunterricht zu erkennen.

Im GERS finden sich nur wenige explizite Erwähnungen zur Nutzung von Nachschlagewerken. Unter den heuristischen Fertigkeiten werden „die Fähigkeit der Lernenden, neue Information zu finden, zu verstehen und weiterzugeben (besonders bei der Verwendung von Nachschlagewerken in der Zielsprache)" und „die Fähigkeit, neue Technologien zu benutzen (z. B. indem man Informationen in Datenbanken, Hypertexten usw. sucht)" genannt (Europarat 2013: 109). Des Weiteren findet sich unter den Produktionsstrategien die Strategie „Hilfsmittel finden und bereitstellen" (Europarat 2013: 68) und unter den Strategien der Sprachmittlung das „Verfeinern durch das Nachschlagen in Wörterbüchern, in einem Thesaurus, durch Expertenbefragung, durch das Heranziehen anderer Quellen" (Europarat 2013: 90). Spezielle Deskriptoren für eine Kompetenzbeschreibung der Nutzung von Quellen für die sprachliche Recherche finden sich hingegen nicht.

3.2. Recherchekompetenz in Modellen der Übersetzungskompetenz

In der Übersetzungswissenschaft wurde bis dato eine Vielzahl an Modellen zur übersetzerischen Kompetenz entwickelt, von denen zahlreiche diese komplexe Kompetenz wieder in Subkompetenzen aufgliedern (PACTE 2005, Göpferich 2008, EMT 2009). Eine dieser Subkompetenzen hat meist mit Sprach- und Terminologierecherche zu tun. Im Modell von PACTE (2005) findet sich die „instrumental sub-competence". Diese „is made up of knowledge related to the use of documentation sources and information technologies applied to translation" (PACTE 2005: 610). Göpferich (2008: 156) bezeichnet diese als „Hilfsmittelbenutzungs- und Recherchierkompetenz".

Das Modell EMT (2009: 7) umfasst u. a. die „Recherchenkompetenz" mit folgenden Merkmalen:

– Den eigenen Informations- und Dokumentationsbedarf ermitteln können;
– Strategien für die Dokumenten- und Terminologierecherche (auch im Kontakt mit Fachleuten) entwickeln;
– in der Lage sein, sich die für die Erledigung der jeweiligen Aufgabe relevanten Informationen (Dokumentation, Terminologie, Phraseologie) zu beschaffen;
– Kriterien für die Bewertung der Zuverlässigkeit von Informationen aus dem Internet oder aus anderen Quellen aufstellen, d. h. Informationen kritisch hinterfragen können;
– die elektronischen Werkzeuge und Suchmaschinen effizient nutzen können (zum Beispiel Terminografie-Software, elektronische Korpora und Wörterbücher);
– die Archivierung eigener Dokumente beherrschen.

In der Übersetzungswissenschaft finden sich inzwischen zahlreiche Beiträge zur Erforschung der Hilfsmittelnutzung. Beispiele dafür sind die Studien von B. Nord (2002), die das Verhalten von 15 Berufsübersetzern bei der Nutzung von Hilfsmitteln untersucht, oder die Masterarbeit von Maizner (2017), die die Möglichkeiten einer Effizienzsteigerung bei der Nutzung von Recherchemitteln analysiert.

Auch in der Übersetzerdidaktik wächst das Interesse an der didaktischen Nutzung von Hilfsmitteln. Schüßler (2012) untersucht beispielsweise in einer empirischen Studie die Internetrecherchekompetenz in der Übersetzerausbildung. Kußmaul (2015: 77-88) erörtert das Potenzial der Wörterbuchnutzung in seinem Buch über Verstehensprozesse beim Übersetzen und auch in dem von Hurtado Albir (1999) herausgegebenen Sammelband *La enseñanza de la traducción* findet man eine didaktische Anleitung zur Entwicklung der Recherchekompetenz (bspw. Civera García/Oster/Hurtado Albir 1999: 75-81).

4. Entwicklung der Recherchekompetenz in der TOSA

4.1. Unterschiede zum kommunikativen Sprachunterricht

Wie aus der oben angeführten Liste von Zielsetzungen der translationsorientierten Sprachausbildung hervorgeht, gibt es Gemeinsamkeiten und Überschneidungen zwischen einem translationsorientierten und einem kommunikativen Sprachunterricht, ist doch die Entwicklung der kommunikativen Kompetenz ein wichtiger Teil der Sprachausbildung für Übersetzer.

Auch die von vielen Vertretern des kommunikativen Ansatzes verfochtene Strategie des Erschließens unbekannter Wörtern aus dem Kontext kann eine für Übersetzer zielführende Strategie sein. Die Erschließung der Bedeutung eines unbekannten Wortes bei der Rezeption erhöht die Aufmerksamkeit für den Kontext und die Intention des Autors, sie birgt jedoch auch Fehlerquellen (vgl. Świątkiewicz-Siklucka, 2008: 29), die einem präzisen Umgang mit Sprache entgegenstehen. Zum einen kann man bei der Erschließung auch falsche Schlüsse aus dem Kontext ziehen, zum anderen kann man auf diese Weise in vielen Fällen nur eine grobe Annäherung erreichen. Will man präzise Informationen, benötigt man auf alle Fälle Recherchequellen.

Bei der Produktion zwingt die Suche nach sprachlichen Alternativen ohne Wörterbücher den Lernenden zu einer flexibleren Sprachnutzung. Gleichzeitig führt sie jedoch zu einer verstärkten Nutzung bestimmter bereits assimilierter Strukturen und vermeidet somit die Erweiterung des aktiven Wort- und Strukturschatzes.

Wie oben erwähnt, ist das übergeordnete Ziel der translationswissenschaftlichen Ausbildung die übersetzerische Kompetenz, die auch die Recherchekompetenz umfasst. Damit deren Entwicklung sich nicht nur auf die ohnehin schon überfrachteten Übersetzungsübungen beschränkt, kann damit schon im translationsorientierten Fremdsprachenunterricht begonnen werden, da dieser viele Möglichkeiten zur Recherche über Sprache bietet. Des Weiteren würden dadurch einige der oben genannten Zielsetzungen gefördert werden wie die metasprachliche Kompetenz, die Betrachtung von Sprache als Arbeitsmittel, die kritische Betrachtung von Texten und der bewusste Umgang mit Nachschlagewerken.

Studierende, die mit dem Übersetzerstudium beginnen und bis dahin nur einen kommunikativ ausgerichteten Sprachunterricht erfahren haben, sind meistens im Umgang mit Nachschlagewerken nicht nur ungeschult, sondern erkennen auch deren Wert und Nutzen für den Spracherwerb nicht. Es dauert oft mehrere Semester, bis sie eine positive Haltung zu Nachschlagewerken entwickeln und diese effizient nutzen können. Aus diesem Grund ist anzuraten, die sprachliche Recherche schon von Beginn an in den Sprachunterricht einzubinden, insbesondere wenn dieser auf einem mittleren oder hohen sprachlichen Niveau angesiedelt ist. Dazu ist auch noch anzumerken, dass das Nachschlagen einen nachhaltigen Wortschatzerwerb fördert (Fraser 1999: 82-83).

4.2. Möglichkeiten der Entwicklung der Recherchekompetenz in der TOSA

Aus den oben genannten Ausführungen lassen sich zwei Gründe für die Integration von Recherchequellen in die translationsorientierte Sprachausbildung ableiten:

1. Die Recherchekompetenz ist Teil der übersetzerischen Kompetenz. Wenn mit ihrer Entwicklung schon ansatzweise im translationsorientierten Sprachunterricht begonnen wird, besitzen die Studierenden zu Beginn der Übersetzungsübungen bereits Vorkenntnisse, die den Einstieg ins Übersetzen erleichtern.
2. Eine akribische und genaue Beschäftigung mit Sprache ist unabdinglich für die Entwicklung des sprachlichen „Werkzeugkastens" des Übersetzers. Eine solche genaue Beschäftigung ist ohne die Einbindung von Nachschlagewerken nicht möglich.

Die Entwicklung dieser Kompetenz in der translationsorientierten Sprachausbildung könnte mithilfe der Strategien erfolgen, die in den folgenden Absätzen beschrieben werden.

1) Erkennen des Nachschlagebedarfs

Der erste Schritt für die Entwicklung der Recherchekompetenz ist die Sensibilisierung der Studierenden dafür, wann Nachschlagebedarf besteht.

Bei Übungen zur Sprachrezeption, vor allem bei der Lektüre von Texten, kann die Lehrperson gemeinsam mit den Studierenden erörtern, welche Wörter recherchiert werden müssen, falls nur ein allgemeines Verständnis des Texts Ziel der Leseübung ist, und welche weiteren nachgeschlagen werden müssen, falls ein detailliertes Verständnis des Texts gefordert wird.
Wichtig ist dabei vor allem, das Interesse der Studierenden an der Sprachrecherche zu entwickeln und etwaige vorhandene Trägheit zu überwinden.

Bei der Sprachproduktion kann den Studierenden über die Analyse von Fehlern in ihren selbst verfassten Texten vor Augen geführt werden, wo sie beim Einsatz ihres vorhandenen Sprachwissens an Grenzen stoßen und wo eine Überprüfung in Recherchequellen zu einer korrekteren Sprachproduktion führen würde.

Bei der Produktion sollten die Studierenden außerdem darauf hingewiesen werden, dass sie fremdsprachige Wörter, die sie in einem zweisprachigen Wörterbuch finden, ohne diese wirklich zu kennen, nicht einfach übernehmen dürfen, ohne zunächst zu überprüfen, ob sie in den Kontext passen. Das kann über Kontextbeispiele in ein- oder zweisprachigen Wörterbüchern, verlässliche Internetquellen oder die Konsultation von kompetenten Muttersprachlern geschehen.

2) Evaluierung des vorhandenen Angebots

Nach Feststellung des Recherchebedarfs ist der nächste Schritt die Auswahl verlässlicher Quellen. Heute ist gerade das online verfügbare Angebot sehr groß und teilweise unübersichtlich. Aus diesem Grund ist es empfehlenswert, gemeinsam mit den Studierenden verschiedene Quellen zu analysieren, eine Liste von nützlichen Quellen zu erstellen und dabei zu vermerken, welche Informationen diese bieten. Insbesondere bei Wörterbüchern gibt es große Unterschiede hinsichtlich der Kontextinformationen und der Informationen zur syntaktischen Nutzung eines Eintrags (vgl. Civera García/Oster/Hurtado Albir 1999: 75-81).

3) Auffinden der gewünschten Informationen

Grammatiken, ein- und zweisprachige Wörterbücher, Sprachforen etc. bieten eine Vielzahl an Informationen, die für die Sprachrecherche genutzt werden können. Sehr oft ist den Studierenden nicht bewusst, welche Informationen vor allem Wörterbucheinträge bieten. Besonders in herkömmlichen Papierwörterbüchern sind die Einträge aus Platzgründen oft unübersichtlich und voller Abkürzungen. Studierende bleiben deshalb oft bei den ersten Entsprechungen hängen und lesen Einträge nicht in ihrer Gänze. Einträge in Internetwörterbüchern sind erfahrungsgemäß visuell besser aufbereitet.

Für eine effiziente Wörterbuchnutzung ist es aber wichtig, dass die Studierenden Wörterbucheinträge in ihrer Gänze lesen und verstehen (vgl. Świątkiewicz-Siklucka, 2008: 29). Das kann durch eine gemeinsame Analyse solcher Einträge im Unterricht erreicht werden. Dafür können z. B. folgende Leitfragen dienen: Wie viele (deutsche) Entsprechungen werden für den (englischen) Eintrag angegeben? Wie werden diese untereinander differenziert? Welche Angaben finde ich zum Kontext? Welche Informationen finden sich für einen korrekten Gebrauch in der Produktion (syntaktische Angaben)? Wie viele und welche Beispiele bietet der Eintrag? Sind die Beispiele hilfreich für die Rezeption/Produktion? Bietet der Eintrag Informationen zur Phraseologie?

Diese Leitfragen können auch zum Vergleich verschiedener Nachschlagewerke dienen. Nach Analyse eines Eintrags könnte die Lehrperson eventuell testen, inwieweit die Studierenden das nachgeschlagene Wort rezeptiv/produktiv nutzen können.
Neben gezielten vorbereiteten Wörterbuchübungen bietet es sich auch an, im Unterricht Wörter, für die unter den Studierenden Nachschlagebedarf besteht, spontan gemeinsam zu suchen und zu analysieren, wo hilfreiche Informationen gefunden werden können. Dabei dürfen auch Informationen aus Sprachforen und Suchmaschinen genutzt werden.

4) Empfehlungen für den selbständigen Spracherwerb

Aufgrund der zeitlichen Begrenzung (15 Semesterwochen pro Stufe) kann der universitäre Sprachunterricht natürlich nicht alles leisten und sollte die Studierenden vorrangig zu einem andauernden selbständigen Spracherwerb motivieren. Einen wichtigen Beitrag dazu leistet die Anleitung zur selbständigen Sprachrecherche.

Damit diese auch zu einem nachhaltigen Spracherwerb führt, könnte man den Studierenden beispielsweise folgende Techniken vorstellen (vgl. Schmidhofer 2017b):

- persönliche Glossare mit den Wörtern, die sie nachgeschlagen haben (Anleitung zur Glossarerstellung im Unterricht)

- Dokumentation von erkannten Lücken in einem Heft oder einer Datei für sprachliche Zweifelsfälle, die man durchaus auch auf einer Tablet oder einem Smartphone anlegen kann.

5. Verbesserte Recherchekompetenz durch Selbstkorrektur in der TOSA

5.1. Beschreibung der Fallstudie

In meinem Deutsch-als-Fremdsprache-Unterricht, den ich im Rahmen des Studiums der Translationswissenschaft[1] an der Universität Innsbruck anbiete, setze ich immer wieder Selbstkorrektur als Mittel zur Erreichung eines präziseren und bewussteren Umgangs mit Sprache ein. Durch den Prozess der selbständigen Überarbeitung sollen die Studierenden auch zu einer zielgerichteten Nutzung von Recherchematerialien motiviert werden.

Die vorliegende Studie zur Nutzung von Recherchemitteln ist eine Folgestudie zu meiner im Rahmen des Zertifikats Lehrkompetenz an der Universität Innsbruck erstellten Fallstudie (Schmidhofer, 2016) zum Einsatz von Selbstkorrektur in der translationsorientierten Sprachausbildung.

Zum besseren Verständnis möchte ich die eben genannte Fallstudie kurz vorstellen:

Die Studierenden des Bachelorstudiums am Institut für Translationswissenschaft der Universität Innsbruck müssen zu Beginn ihres Studiums drei aufeinanderfolgende Module in ihren Fremdsprachen von je 10 ECTS belegen. Das gilt auch für Studierende mit nicht-deutscher Mutter- oder Bildungssprache, die als erste Fremdsprache verpflichtend Deutsch als Fremdsprache belegen. Für diese Studierenden ist das Studium eine besondere Herausforderung, da sie später aus ihrer Muttersprache und gegebenenfalls aus ihrer zweiten Fremdsprache ins Deutsche übersetzen und dabei (fast) die gleichen Anforderungen erfüllen müssen wie ihre deutschsprachigen Kommilitonen. Die Module der Sprachausbildung umfassen drei Teile, die nach dem Studienplan 2009 in die Bereiche Textverständnis, Textproduktion und Grammatik aufgegliedert waren.[2] In Deutsch als Fremdsprache liegt das Einstiegsniveau auf B2 nach dem GERS; am Ende der Sprachausbildung sollten die Studierenden das Niveau C1+ erreicht haben.

Die Fallstudie (sowie auch die Folgestudie) wurden im Kurs Textproduktion III, also dem letzten und höchsten Kurs der Sprachausbildung, durchgeführt. Ziel der Fallstudie war es herauszufinden, ob durch gesteuerte Textüberarbeitung und Selbstkorrektur eine Reduktion von Fehlern und damit eine erhöhte Präzision in der Schreibkompetenz erreicht werden kann. Als Hauptinstrument wurden dafür Hausarbeiten mit Feedbackschleife eingesetzt. Dabei mussten die Studierenden insgesamt vier Texte zu den im Unterricht besprochenen Textsorten im Umfang von je ca. 500 Wörtern verfassen. Die Hausarbeiten wurden von der Kursleiterin gelesen und mit Randkommentaren und

[1] https://www.uibk.ac.at/fakultaeten-servicestelle/pruefungsreferate/gesamtfassung/ba-translationswissenschaft_stand-01.10.2016.pdf [29.06.2017]
[2] Nach der Studienplanänderung im Jahr 2016 (siehe Fußnote 1) heißen die Teile nun Sprachkompetenz, Textkompetenz und Strukturelle Kompetenz.

Korrektursymbolen versehen. Bei der Korrektur wurden Fehler formaler Art (Rechtschreibung, Grammatik, Zeichensetzung), die sich auf bereits bekannte Aspekte bezogen, markiert und waren von den Studierenden zu korrigieren. In Einzelfällen wurden Kommentare eingefügt. Bei Fehlern im Bereich Lexik wurde je nach Schwierigkeit entweder nur ein Korrektursymbol benutzt oder es wurden zusätzlich Hinweise für die Korrektur gegeben. Bei Kohäsions- und Kohärenzfehlern wurden Korrekturhinweise gegeben. Fehler, die über den Kenntnisstand der Studierenden hinausgingen, wurden direkt korrigiert.

Die Studie ergab, dass die Kursteilnehmer bei 82,7 % der markierten Fehler fähig waren, eine richtige Lösung zu finden. In 8,7 % der Fälle nahmen sie keine Änderungen vor und in 8,6 % der Fälle waren die Änderungen nicht erfolgreich. Diese Resultate lassen den Schluss zu, dass das Hauptproblem der Studierenden nicht in der Korrektur der Fehler liegt, sondern in deren Lokalisierung. Des Weiteren war zu beobachten, dass die Studierenden auf manche Fehlermarkierungen gar nicht reagierten, dieser Anteil über das Semester jedoch kontinuierlich abnahm. Daraus lässt sich schließen, dass das Bewusstsein für die Wichtigkeit einer gründlichen Überarbeitung während des Semesters stieg.[3]

Des Weiteren ist zu erwähnen, dass die Studierenden selbst die Methode als nützlich für ihren Lernfortschritt erachteten. 80 % gaben bei der Befragung am Semesterende an, sie hielten die Methode für sehr sinnvoll (20 % für sinnvoll), 60 % hielten die Korrektursymbole für verständlich (40 % für sehr verständlich) und 67 % erachteten die gemeinsame Analyse von Fehler im Unterricht als sehr hilfreich (33 % als hilfreich). Das ist insofern von Bedeutung, da die Studierenden eher bereit sind, Zeit und Energie in eine Unterrichtstechnik zu investieren, wenn sie diese als sinnvoll und hilfreich erachten.

Die Folgestudie, die ich in diesem Artikel präsentieren möchte, sollte zur Klärung der Frage dienen, ob durch die Technik der Selbstkorrektur die Studierenden dazu motiviert werden können, ihr Rechercheverhalten zu verändern, d. h. sprachliche Zweifelsfälle mithilfe von Konsultationsmaterialien zu klären und nicht mehr nach dem Trial-and-Error-Prinzip zu handeln. Die Fallstudie wurde in zwei aufeinanderfolgenden Semestern mit Gruppen des Kurses Textproduktion III durchgeführt. Insgesamt nahmen 23 Studierende an der Studie teil.

Am Beginn des Semesters wurden die Studierenden gebeten, einen Fragebogen bezüglich ihrer Überarbeitungsstrategien zu beantworten sowie einen kurzen Text zu verfassen.

Welche Strategien zur Überarbeitung/Korrektur eigener Texte wenden Sie an?

	Immer	**Oft**	**Selten**	**Nie**
Ich lese mir meinen Text vor Abgabe mehrmals durch.				
Ich überprüfe den Aufbau/die innere Logik des Texts.				

[3] Für eine umfassende Auswertung siehe Schmidhofer (2016).

Ich überprüfe grammatikalische Strukturen nach meinem eigenen Wissen.				
Ich überprüfe grammatikalische Strukturen in Grammatiken.				
Ich benutze zweisprachige Wörterbücher.				
Ich benutze einsprachige Wörterbücher.				
Ich ersetze Konstruktionen, bei denen ich nicht sicher bin, durch einfachere.				
Ich überprüfe die Zeichensetzung.				
Ich frage fremdsprachige Kollegen.				
Ich frage Muttersprachler.				

Fragebogen am Semesterbeginn

Während des Semesters mussten die Studierenden wie schon bei der vorangegangenen Fallstudie vier Hausarbeiten zu je 500 Wörtern verfassen und diese nach einer Feedbackschleife und einer Analyse von Auszügen im Unterricht selbst korrigieren. Bei der Besprechung im Unterricht wurde auch auf Recherchemöglichkeiten wie die Nutzung von ein- und zweisprachigen Onlinewörterbüchern oder deutschsprachigen Texten zur Thematik eingegangen. Am Ende des Semesters wurden den Studierenden die gleichen Fragen noch einmal gestellt. Zusätzlich wurde gefragt, ob sich ihre Überarbeitungsstrategien geändert hätten und ob sie die Technik der Selbstkorrektur für sinnvoll und hilfreich hielten.

Frage 1: In diesem Kurs wurden Sie gebeten, Ihre eigenen Texte zu überarbeiten.

Diese Vorgehensweise halte ich für ....

sehr sinnvoll	ziemlich sinnvoll	wenig sinnvoll	nicht sinnvoll

weil ...

Kommentare:

Frage 2: Die Korrektursymbole und -kommentare waren für mich...

sehr verständlich	ziemlich verständlich	wenig verständlich	kaum verständlich

weil...

Kommentare:

Frage 3: Die Besprechung einzelner Fehler im Unterricht war für mich...

sehr hilfreich	ziemlich hilfreich	wenig hilfreich	kaum hilfreich

weil...

Kommentare:

Welche Strategien zur Überarbeitung/Korrektur eigener Texte haben Sie bei der Korrektur der Texte in diesem Kurs angewandt?

	Immer	**Oft**	**Selten**	**Nie**
Ich lese mir meinen Text vor Abgabe mehrmals durch.				
Ich überprüfe den Aufbau/die innere Logik des Texts.				
Ich überprüfe grammatikalische Strukturen nach meinem eigenen Wissen.				
Ich überprüfe grammatikalische Strukturen in Grammatiken.				
Ich benutze zweisprachige Wörterbücher.				
Ich benutze einsprachige Wörterbücher.				
Ich ersetze Konstruktionen, bei denen ich nicht sicher bin, durch einfachere.				
Ich überprüfe die Zeichensetzung.				
Ich frage fremdsprachige Kollegen.				
Ich frage Muttersprachler.				

Haben sich während dieses Kurses Ihre Textüberarbeitungsstrategien geändert?

Fragebogen zu Semesterende

6. Resultate

6.1. Korrekturverhalten

Bei der Auswertung der Fragebögen ist in manchen Bereichen eine Verbesserung des Korrekturverhaltens zu erkennen. Zum Zeitpunkt der Messung am Kursende (KE) war die Zahl derjenigen Studierenden, die sich ihren Text vor Abgabe immer mehrmals durchlasen, deutlich höher als noch bei der Befragung am Kursanfang (KA) (KE 82, 6 % oder 19 von 23, KA 69,6 % oder 16 von 23). Kein einziger Teilnehmer gab am Kursende an, das „selten“ (am Beginn noch 13 % oder 3 von 23) oder „nie“ zu tun.

Auch bei der Überprüfung des Aufbaus bzw. der inneren Logik des Texts ließ sich eine Zunahme verzeichnen. Am Kursende taten das immerhin 14 der 23 Teilnehmer (60,9 %) „immer“, während das zu Kursbeginn nur 10 von 23 (43,5 %)„immer“ getan hatten.

Bei der Überprüfung von grammatikalischen Strukturen ist ein leichter Rückgang der Überprüfung nach eigenen Kenntnissen (KA 65,2 % oder 15 von 23, KE 56,5 % oder 13 von 23 „immer“) zugunsten eines Anstiegs der Nutzung von Nachschlagewerken zu erkennen (KA 17,4 % oder 4 von 23, KE 30,4 % oder 7 von 23 „immer“). Bemerkenswert ist in dieser Kategorie auch, dass noch zu Kursanfang 3 Teilnehmer (13 %) angaben, „nie“ grammatikalische Hilfswerke zu Rate zu ziehen.

Am Kursende war es hingegen kein einziger mehr, obwohl mit 7 (30,4 %) die Anzahl der Studierenden, die das auch bei Kursende „selten" taten, noch immer relativ hoch ist.

Bei der Nutzung von zweisprachigen Wörterbüchern wurde eine deutliche Verschiebung zwischen der Nutzung von „oft" zu „immer" verzeichnet. Am Kursende gaben 13 Studierende (56,5 %) an, diese Art von Wörterbüchern „immer" zu nutzen (KA 7 von 23 oder 30,4 %). Noch stärker ist der Anstieg bei einsprachigen Wörterbüchern. Während bei Kursbeginn nur 1 Studierende/r angab, diese „immer" zu nutzen (4,3 %), waren es zu Kursende immerhin schon 7 (30,4 %).

Bei der Frage nach Vermeidungsstrategien sind kaum Änderungen zu bemerken. Bei der Überprüfung der Zeichensetzung und der Konsultation von fremdsprachigen Kollegen und Muttersprachlern sind leichte Fluktuationen, jedoch keine klaren Tendenzen zu erkennen. Auffallend ist nur, dass gegen Kursende mehr Studierende angaben, andere Personen „nie" zu Rate zu ziehen.

Tabelle 1: Korrekturverhalten am Kursanfang (KA) und Kursende (KE)

	Immer		**Oft**		**Selten**		**Nie**	
	KA	KE	KA	KE	KA	KE	KA	KE
Ich lese mir meinen Text vor Abgabe mehrmals durch.	16	19	4	4	3	0	0	0
Ich überprüfe den Aufbau/die innere Logik des Texts.	10	14	9	8	4	1	0	0
Ich überprüfe grammatikalische Strukturen nach meinem eigenen Wissen.	15	13	8	9	0	1	0	0
Ich überprüfe grammatikalische Strukturen in Grammatiken.	4	7	11	9	5	7	3	0
Ich benutze zweisprachige Wörterbücher.	7	13	13	7	3	2	0	1
Ich benutze einsprachige Wörterbücher.	1	7	8	8	13	8	1	0
Ich ersetze Konstruktionen, bei denen ich nicht sicher bin, durch einfachere.	2	3	18	17	3	3	0	0
Ich überprüfe die Zeichensetzung.	6	4	9	11	6	8	2	0
Ich frage fremdsprachige Kollegen.	0	1	11	9	9	7	3	6
Ich frage Muttersprachler.	2	3	8	7	12	9	1	4

Auf die Frage, ob sich während des Kurses ihre Textüberarbeitungsstrategien geändert hätten, antworteten 18 Studierende (78,3 %) mit „ja" und 5 Studierende (21,7 %) mit „nein".

Unter den zustimmenden Kommentaren finden sich folgende Aussagen:

Ich überprüfe die Grammatik besser. (7)

Ich weiß jetzt, an welchen Bereichen ich noch arbeiten muss. (4)

Ich lese jetzt meine Texte mehrmals durch. (3)

Meine Texte sind jetzt strukturierter und logischer. (2)

Ich frage muttersprachliche Kollegen.

Ich benutze jetzt verschiedene Wörterbücher.
Meine Strategien sind jetzt gezielter und spezifischer.
Ich suche Synonyme und andere Formulierungen.
Ich benutze mehr einsprachige Wörterbücher.

6.2. Einschätzung der Technik der Selbstkorrektur durch die Studierenden

Wie schon in der ersten Fallstudie äußerten sich die Studierenden vorwiegend positiv zur eingesetzten Technik. 82,6 % (19 von 23) hielten diese für sehr „sehr sinnvoll“, die restlichen 17,4 % (4 von 23) für „ziemlich sinnvoll“. Für 56,5 % (13 von 23) waren die Korrektursymbole „sehr verständlich“, für die restlichen 43,5 % (10 von 23) „ziemlich verständlich“. 78,3 % (18 von 23) erachteten die gemeinsame Analyse von Fehlern im Unterricht als „sehr hilfreich“, die restlichen 21,7 % (5 von 23) als „hilfreich“. Auch die freien Kommentare der Studierenden auf den Fragebögen bestätigten diese positive Einschätzung.

7. Schlussbemerkungen

Die Resultate der Umfragen haben gezeigt, dass durch die Technik der Selbstkorrektur die eigenständige Recherche von sprachlichen Zweifelsfällen gefördert wird. Natürlich wäre es wünschenswert, dass bei der zweiten Umfrage noch viel mehr Studierende die von uns erwünschten Strategien „immer“ anwenden, doch ist für die Änderung von vielleicht lange bestehenden Gewohnheiten ein längerer Zeitraum erforderlich.

Positiv festgehalten werden kann auf alle Fälle, dass durch gezielte Strategien im Unterricht und bei der Bearbeitung der Hausarbeiten die Studierenden dazu motiviert werden können, sprachliche Zweifelsfälle zu recherchieren. Diese erhöhte Bereitschaft ist die Grundlage für die Entwicklung einer akribischen Haltung zu Sprache, auf die in den späteren Übersetzungsübungen aufgebaut werden kann und die für eine erfolgreiche übersetzerische Tätigkeit unumgänglich ist.

Des Weiteren ist positiv anzumerken, dass die eigenständige Beschäftigung mit sprachlichen Zweifelsfällen und die Nutzung von vorhandenen Quellen die Lernerautonomie erhöht, was die Lerner dazu befähigt, ihren Spracherwerb selbständig zu betreiben. Dies ist unumgänglich beim Erwerb der nötigen sprachlichen Kenntnisse für das Übersetzerstudium.

Was die Studie nicht zeigt, ist, in welchen Fällen Studierende zu Recherchequellen greifen, wie intensiv sie recherchieren und wann sie sich mit dem Ergebnis zufrieden geben. Es wäre sicher ein interessantes Thema für eine Folgestudie, um das Rechercheverhalten qualitativ zu erforschen.

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THE OFFTATLED PROJECT: OFFensive and TAboo Exchanges SubtiTLED BY ONLINE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

EL PROYECTO OFFTATLED: DIÁLOGOS OFENSIVOS Y TABÚ SUBTITULADOS POR ESTUDIANTES UNIVERSITARIOS A DISTANCIA

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Abstract

The OFFTATLED Project: OFFensive and TAboo Exchanges SubtiTLED by Online University Students. Every culture has its own idiosyncrasies when it comes to what is considered to be taboo language. For this reason these terms are some of the most difficult to translate from the source language into the target language in audiovisual translation. This study aims to report on how a group of university students dealt with this issue when given the task of subtitling clips from several films, both from English into Spanish as well as from Spanish into English. The participants pertained to the Degree in English Studies at the UNED (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia) and were taking a course on English-Spanish translation. The researchers later analysed whether the end results displayed a faithful rendering of the original strength of meaning or if, on the contrary, they reflected any softening of intent and effect. The research also sought confirmation as to whether the students were more daring than the source text itself when subtitling into the foreign language.

Key Words: Audiovisual Translation, Offensive and taboo terms, Culture-Bound Linguistic Elements, Faithfulness, Manipulation.

Resumen

El proyecto OffTATLED: expresiones ofensivas y tabú subtituladas por alumnos universitarios a distancia. Cada cultura tiene su propia idiosincrasia con respecto a lo que considera expresiones tabú, por lo que estos términos pueden llegar a ser de los más arduos de transformar de la lengua origen a la lengua meta en la traducción audiovisual. Este estudio tiene como objeto el analizar cómo un grupo de estudiantes universitarios abordaron este tema cuando se les asignó la tarea de subtitular algunos clips de varias películas de inglés a español y de español a inglés. Los participantes pertenecían al Grado de Estudios Ingleses de la UNED (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia) y estaban cursando la asignatura de Traducción Literaria Inglés-Español. Los investigadores analizaron si los resultados finales mostraban una representación fiel de la carga significativa original o si, por el contrario, reflejaban algún tipo de estrategia de suavización de dichos elementos. Además, se trataba de confirmar si los estudiantes eran más atrevidos que el propio texto origen al subtitular al idioma extranjero.

Palabras clave: Traducción Audiovisual, términos ofensivos y tabú, elementos lingüísticos ligados a la cultura, fidelidad, manipulación.

1. INTRODUCTION

The use of swearwords is a fascinating topic. It has even been suggested that swearing may be a beneficial contributing factor in reducing stress and pain (Crystal, 2004). Although generally society condemns offensive and taboo terms, their inclusion in communication is undoubtedly one of the most efficient ways to deal with extra frustration or anger in difficult situations, or when the speaker is suffering from emotional distress, thereby the use of these terms can become a relief vehicle. Swearing can be said to be a universal phenomenon (Pinker, 2007), nevertheless, its use and abuse is not homogeneous across cultures.

McEnery (2009) explains that offensive and taboo language has gained its power through a process of stigmatisation and the development of attitudes that lead to a specific society making inferences about the users of such language. Moreover, Andersson and Trudgill (1992) also add that although sometimes people swear because they want to be offensive, the reception and implications of the terms used vary according to contexts, cultures and ideologies. Thus, as every culture has its own position when it comes to what is considered offensive and taboo language, these terms become some of the most arduous tasks in the rendition of audiovisual (AV) materials from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL). They represent a real challenge for translators, professional or otherwise, as mediators between diverse ways of thinking.

This study was established in order to analyse the translation techniques applied by a group of university students employed in rendering the offensive and taboo load from English to Spanish and vice-versa when given the task of subtitling clips from 6 films, namely *Pulp Fiction* (Quentin Tarantino, 1994), *The Departed* (Martin Scorsese, 2006), *Django Unchained* (Quentin Tarantino, 2012), *Airbag* (Juanma Bajo Ulloa, 1997), *La comunidad* (Álex de la Iglesia, 2000) and *Torrente, el brazo tonto de la ley* (Santiago Segura, 1998). The students were unaware of the intentions behind the research and were, therefore, free to create their own versions of the subtitles with the only objective of transferring spoken messages between languages rather than focussing on any specific terms. As students of English-Spanish Translation, they only had some extra indications about the general technical constraints of subtitling as one of the modes of Audiovisual Translation (AVT), mainly temporal and spatial, which narrow the possible translation choices, apart from the translation knowledge they had already gathered in the subject in which they were enrolled. In addition, the improvement of linguistic and translation skills was expected and intended by this extra activity, although it was only observed through their responses in the form of qualitative data.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Culture and Taboo

Language is intrinsically linked to culture as it constitutes a "socially acquired knowledge" (Yule, 2009, p. 216). Moreover, as House (2009) explains, culture represents a continuum of conventions and values which are shared through every speech community, while, at the same time, this collective programming of the mind differentiates groups of people (Hofstede, 2001). Therefore, taboos, which can be considered as inseparable parts of every language, and hence its culture (Hashemian, Mirzaei &

Hosseini, 2014, p. 23), are not perceived in the same way by different groups of people, although, as stated earlier, offensive and taboo language exists in all of them to some degree or another (Pinker, 2007).

As Ljung (2011) highlights, from a sociolinguistic perspective, the use of utterances that contain taboo words is seen as a type of linguistic behaviour that society regards as disrespectful, vulgar, and even offensive. Nevertheless, the degree of offensiveness that the terms carry is not always related to the perceived strength of the particular taboo term, which cannot be replaced with its literal synonyms, and this load can even change over time. An example of this is the fact that some taboo words can be used simply to add emphasis to the message the speaker wishes to convey and the same set of words can carry different meanings on different occasions (Ljung, 2009). Some words can have a widespread cultural acceptance in everyday language while in other parts of the same country are perceived as an insult.

Swearing is formulaic as the meaning of the entire sequence cannot be understood from the words it contains or from its grammatical configuration (Ljung, 2011). Thus, the use of offensive and taboo language is a linguistic phenomenon worthy of investigation, particularly in AVT, as there are decisions that must be made in order to render meanings between two different languages and cultures. This process is not a mere act of translating words from SL to TL or searching for a synonym, but it also involves achieving a transfer of the offensive load present in the specific use of the term(s) in a particular context at a particular time.

2.2. Offensive and taboo words.

As previously explained, offensive and taboo exchanges present AV translators with the task of making controversial decisions when they have to deal with certain expressions. This can be an even more delicate matter when the referents vilify religious figures such as 'Jesus Christ' or 'Allah' among the Christian and Muslim communities, for example. Are faithful renderings legitimate in every instance? This is a challenge where the answer does not always depend on the individual AV translators but on their clients or even the film studios for whom they work, who provide the professional with a series of instructions on how to deal with certain controversial words and swearwords.

In order to make a linguistic distinction and in an attempt to avoid disparity in the terminology, in this paper while offensive words refer to swearwords, insults and expletives, taboo words can be defined as those which, depending on the medium, speakers' culture and age, may be more or less (un)welcome, although different scholars resort to a variety of terms to define what can be considered dirty language (Jay, 1980), strong language (Scandura, 2004), taboo language (Allan & Burridge, 2006), or offensive language (Díaz Cintas, 2012). Some terms can be categorised as offensive, as in the case of the derogatory adjective 'fucking', while the verb 'fuck' could be used as a sexual term and, therefore, as a taboo word. All in all, for the purposes of this paper, we will resort to 'offensive and taboo terms'.

2.3. Offensive and taboo language in AVT

The field of offensive and taboo language has not been as widely researched as other areas of AVT, however some of the studies conducted are worthy of mention. Díaz Cintas (2001) delves into sexual expressions subtitled from Spanish to English in the film *La flor de mi secreto* [The Flower of my Secret] (Pedro Almodóvar, 1995), where a number of interesting findings are brought to the fore regarding the differences between the VHS version and the one broadcast by Channel 4 on British television. Acclaimed American director Quentin Tarantino's films have been the object of study by diverse scholars conducting research on both dubbing (Fernández Dobao, 2006; Soler Pardo, 2015) and subtitling from English into Spanish (Martínez-Sierra, 2015; Ávila-Cabrera, 2015a, 2015b, 2016a, 2016b). In all that research the focus has been on the different approaches to describing the way in which taboo words, insults, swearwords and the like have been dubbed or subtitled.

Moving on to this specific study, an interesting question may arise when it comes to dealing with this type of language within a university context: what happens when the decisions on how to deal with offensive and taboo words in AVT are taken by students? This research avenue opens out to innovative and pioneering studies in this field. Valdeón (2015) presents the results of a piece of research in which university students have to dub some episodes of a series from English to Spanish and whose results are compared with the way professional AV translators coped with such taboo elements. The present paper also deals with university students from the UNED (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia, the Spanish Open University) who have to produce interlingual subtitles of film scenes (from English to Spanish and Spanish to English) in which there are offensive and taboo terms. Accordingly, attention is paid to the way in which they transferred those linguistic elements, that is, whether in a faithful manner to the source text (ST), or manipulating the script so as to tone down the load that these terms may have.

Another study worth of mention is that by Ávila-Cabrera (in press) in which there is an analysis based on a corpus composed of a number of Tarantino's films subtitled into European Spanish in which religious referents in the form of profanity and blasphemy are explored. It is significant to observe how direct blasphemies are avoided in the subtitles in favour of using some other offensive formulas, which in many occasions are not religion-related.

We sustain that the elimination of offensive and taboo terms in the target text (TT) entails the loss of the speakers' characterisation and that, consequently, the original function of that text can be affected by the use of formulas which tend to soften or eliminate the strength of this type of words.

3. THE EXPERIMENT

This study was conducted during the 2015-2016 academic year, starting on 16th March and finishing on 3rd May 2016. The participants were from the third year of the Degree in English Studies from the UNED and the course that they were taking was English-Spanish Translation during which they had been taught various translation skills and strategies. Thus, they could be said to be familiar with those strategies that were going to be necessary to complete the tasks in the project. This subject has some 400 students enrolled on average, out of which 41 participated.

The initial qualitative data was gathered via a pre-questionnaire. At the beginning of the project, the participants were asked to fill in a form and a pre-questionnaire so that the researchers could learn about their profile. In the first place, 41 participants signed up to join the project (78% females and 22% males). Their age ranged mainly between 22 and 56, with most of the participants aged 31-46 years old. 92% of the participants were Spanish and 3 students were from the UK, the US and Romania respectively. The majority of these students were native Spanish speakers with some exceptions: one was a native speaker of Romanian, two of English and two of Catalan. Amongst their qualifications, 34.1% were graduates and 12.2% post-graduates, with a larger percentage of participants being undergraduates (53.7%). As for their linguistic competence in English most of them positioned themselves at intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced levels. What is more, 48.8% said to have lived abroad in an English speaking country for some time.

The researchers offered the possibility of taking part in this activity entitled "Interlingual Subtitling Project"; this title aimed to hide the specific focus of research, so as not to influence the decisions that the students would have to make when dealing with the transfer of offensive and taboo terms from English to Spanish and vice-versa. However, the research project was actually called OffTaTled, which stands for OFFensive and TAboo Exchanges SubtiTLED by Online University Students. The final goal revolved around three main research questions:

- Are the offensive and taboo exchanges subtitled faithfully? The answer to this question will allow us to know if the students' renderings are faithful to the ST as far as offensive and taboo terms are concerned.
- Are the L2 subtitles (eng) more daring? An affirmative answer to this question could entail that participants use offensive and taboo terms in a foreign language more freely.
- Have the participants' linguistic skills been boosted after participating in this project? The answers provided by the participants in the post-questionnaire will be used to address this last question.

Those three questions were addressed by making use of a multi-strategy design (Robson & McCartan, 2015) in which quantitative data appears in the form of the results obtained from the analysis of the subtitled videos; and qualitative data is obtained from the information provided by the participants in pre- and post-questionnaires. The research obsjectives were:

- To observe whether the load of offensive/taboo terms in the ST was present in the TT or, by contrast, whether some sort of ideological manipulation (Díaz Cintas, 2012; Díaz Cintas, Parini & Ranzato, 2016) or self-censorship took place. To verify if the language involved in the TT, either the participants' native or foreign language, can be said to be a conditioning element when this type of language is transferred in subtitling.

3.1. Procedures and resources

The project was organised on the basis of a number of tasks, which were designed so that the students followed the activities within an online setting. The tasks that the students had to complete allowed the researchers to obtain qualitatitive data in the form of pre- and post-questionnaires for the study as well as quantatitive data, considering the analyses of the subtitling activities.

With the aim of rewarding the students' participation, 1 extra mark was given to those who finished all tasks presented to them to be added to their final mark in the Translation subject.

The time line of all the steps followed is shown below.

Tasks 1. 16th – 22nd March: Sign-up form & pre-questionnaire 2. 23rd March – 26th April: Subtitle six video clips (half from English to Spanish & the other half from Spanish to English) 2.1. Instructions: information on how to subtitle linguistically 2.2. Instructions: very basic conventions on subtitling 3. 27th April – 3rd May: post-questionnaire 4. Assessment by researchers

Table 1. General structure of the experiment.

As can be seen in Table 1, and previously explained, (1) the students signed up and filled in a pre-questionnaire in which they provided general information on their skills and profiles. (2) With the aim of guiding the students in the process of subtitling the videos, a series of very general instructions were given. Following Díaz Cintas & Remael (2007), the students were informed about some conventions such as the necessary length of exposure of subtitles on the screen and basic rules of segmentation and linguistic units in order to help them understand some basic standards followed in this AVT mode. (3) Once the students completed the subtitling tasks, they filled out the post-questionnaire which dealt with questions on the project as well as their perception on their improvement in diverse skills. (4) Finally, the researchers assessed the subtitling activities.

The corpus with which the students worked was composed of a total of three-minute-videos, half originally in English and half originally in Spanish; the former were: *Pulp Fiction* (Quentin Tarantino, 1994), *The Departed* (Martin Scorsese, 2006) and *Django Unchained* (Quentin Tarantino, 2012). The videos in Spanish were *Airbag* (Juanma Bajo Ulloa, 1997), *La comunidad* (Álex de la Iglesia, 2000) and *Torrente, el brazo tonto de la ley* (Santiago Segura, 1998). In both languages, the type of words/expressions used guaranteed we could delve into the manner of subtitling offensive and taboo terms to Spanish and English.

Regarding the software the students had the choice between Subtitle Workshop, DivXL and Media Subtitler, Aegisub and ClipFlair, and Virtual Dub for merging the subtitles. The reason behing offering the students these particular software programmes is that they are freeware and user-friendly.

3.2. Methodology

The analysis of the subtitles has been based on the treatment of offenisve and taboo exchanges into Spanish and English. In order to do so, we have followed the techniques proposed by Hurtado Albir (2001) which relate with the result of the translation, that is, the aim was to determine whether the offensive/taboo load of the original is transferred to the TT or not. However translation strategies (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000) which concern the translation process have not been considered for the purposes of this paper given that one of the final goals is to observe the degree of faithfulness that offensive and taboo elements have in the TT. There are a potential number of elements to consider here when talking about offensive and taboo load transfer, since the aforementioned force of such elements in the TT can be toned down (if it shows that an effort has been made to transfer some of the load from the original), maintained (if some form of compensation is used) and toned up (if the TT becomes even more abusive). On the other hand, we can also encounter non-transfer cases in which the subtitle shows the offensive and taboo load being neutralised (it gets nullified with the words used), or omitted (the offensive/taboo term is simply discarded), (Ávila-Cabrera, 2014). Table 2 summarises these concepts:

Technique	**Toned down**	**Maintained**	**Toned up**	**Neutralised**	**Omitted**
Transfer	x	x	x		
Non-transfer				x	x

Table 2. Observation on the offensive/taboo load in the TT.

As shown in the above table, we can pinpoint that the transfer of offensive and taboo terms materialises in cases in which the terms are toned down (as the subtitler makes an effort to transfer the load somehow), maintained or toned up. By contrast, when the load of the terms under study is neutralised or omitted, we can state that the the transfer has not taken place.

All in all, the analysis of the offensive and taboo exchanges allowed the authors to address the research questions by making use of triangulation (Robson & McCartan, 2015) of quantitative and qualitative data in the form of the subtitles analysed and the questionnaires answered by all participants; considering that this mixed method relates both types of data in order to observe the phenomenon under analysis in more detail and shed some light on it. A Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) approach has been followed (Toury, 2012) in an attempt to describe the resulting subtitling, rather than to "prescribe" the appropriate potential exchanges which could have been materialised.

Regarding the qualitative data, the pre-questionnaire deals with information on the participants about the linguistic skills in English and Spanish, their habits when consuming audiovisual products, etc. In the post-questionnaire the data obtained reflected the personal impressions of the participants regarding this pilot study and how it had affected their English skills. In this sense, the results obtained after the analysis of the subtitles are to be corrobarated or refuted by the answers provided by the participants in the post-questionnaire on how they aimed to subtitle the offenisve and taboo terms encountered. In addition, questions on the improvement of linguistic skills are also to be considered.

4. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This section deals with the analysis of all the data gathered, that is, the analysis of subtitles, the quantitative and qualitative data, as well as the discussion on the experiment.

4.1. Analysis of the subtitles

Some of the most representative samples subtitled by the students have been presented in tables in which elements such as the language direction involved, the ST and the TT with the back translation next to the Spanish exchanges, and the offensive or taboo category analysed (in bold type), with the corresponding technique employed, are included. It is of note to observe that in order to analyse the subtitles, we must consider whether the load present in the original dialogue is transferred or not; to this end special attention is paid to that load which may have been toned up, maintained or toned down. By contrast, the aforementioned load can also disappear since it can be neutralised or omitted, being then categorised as a non-transfer technique, as explained in the methodolgy section. All this analysis allows us to shed some light on the role these words play in the TT when being transferred by university students.

Some of these instances, subtitled by the students, are fully analysed in the following tables. On the left side, the ST whose offensive/taboo words are in bold type is illustrated. It is on the right side where we can observe the subtitles produced by the students, whose offensive/taboo terms also appear in bold type. At the bottom of the table, the type of offensive/taboo term analysed is presented as well as the technique used.

Example 1. Video 01 eng-spa. *Pulp Fiction*	
ST: Oh, **Jesus fucking Christ**!	TT: Oh, **mierda**… [Oh, shit…]
Taboo (blasphemous) > transfer (toned down)	

Table 3. Example 1, from *Pulp Fiction.*

The phrase ‘Jesus fucking Christ’ included in example 1 above can sound very aggressive to Christians and, if used in professional subtitling some viewers might feel offended. The student seems not to have dared to subtitle it in a closer way to the original by opting for the use of *mierda* [shit] as a form of compensation. This term shows a scatology-related taboo term which plays its role in the TT and the subtitle can therefore be considered to be a case of ideological manipulation, a strategy that can also be observed with professional subtitles which deal with religious referents and tend to tone down the load of the original.

Example 2. Video 03 eng-spa. *Django Unchained*	
ST: Just who **the hell** is this **nigger** you feel the need to entertain?	TT: Simplemente, ¿**quién cojones** es este **negro** que parece necesitar entretener? [Just who the fuck is this black that you seem to need to entertain?]
Offensive (derogatory) > transfer (toned up) Taboo (racial) > non-transfer (neutralised)	

Table 4. Example 2, from *Django Unchained.*

The derogatory formula recurrently used after wh-words, *the hell*, has been toned up in the TT as *quién cojones* [who the fuck]. Therefore we can perceive a strong effect in this part of the subtitle. However, when dealing with the highly offensive term 'nigger', the student was not faithful to the original as the result was *negro* [black], neutralising the power that this term can have in the dialogue. Even though it had been uttered by Stephen, a black servant in a plantation farm in 19th century Texas, the audience knows the term is used to offend as this character can be considered to be very fond of white people.

Example 3. Video 01 spa-eng. *Airbag*	
ST: Mirad **listillos** o sacáis los papeles del **puto** coche ahora mismo […] [Look, **smart asses** or you take the documents from the **fucking** car right now […]	TT: Look, you **smartasses**, give me right now the **fucking** car documents…
Offensive (insult) > transfer (maintained) Offensive (derogatory) > transfer (maintained)	

Table 5. Example 3, from *Airbag.*

There is a mild insult in the form of *listillos* [smart aleck] which gets subtitled as smartasses in the TT. The recurrent adjective *puto* [maintained] has also been transferred in faithful terms by using its equivalent in English, 'fucking'. In both cases, the technique employed gives place to a maintained taboo/offensive load of the terms in the TT.

Example 4. Video 02 spa-eng. *La comunidad*	
ST: Pareja de **momias lesbianas** buscan… para **hacer la tijera.** [Couple of lesbian mummies look for… for scissoring.]	TT: couple of old **lesbian fossils** are searching… a place where **scissoring**.
Offensive (insult) > transfer (maintained) Taboo (sexual) > transfer (maintained)	

Table 6. Example 4, from *La comunidad.*

Example 4 presents a series of offensive and sexually-related taboo terms whose effect is visibly maintained in the TT. Regarding *momias lesbianas* [lesbian mommies], the strategy used by the student has been to keep a similar rendering as 'lesbian fossils'. The verb phrase uttered in the dialogue refers to a sexual-related taboo term with offensive connotations to describe female lesbian intercourse, *hacer* *la tijera* [scissoring]. Albeit some viewers might feel offended by this expression, the student has been faithful to the original when subtitling it as 'scissoring'.

After this brief description of some illustrative samples, the results obtained from the exhaustive analysis are presented in the next section of this paper.

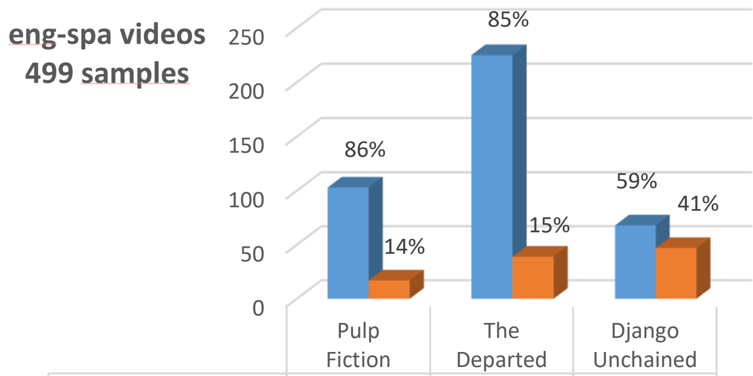
4.2. Quantitative data

The analysis of quantitative data has been conducted by observing the transfer or non-transfer of the offensive and taboo terms in the TT, as explained in the methodology section. Having dealt with the scrutiny of the transfer of the offensive/taboo terms subtitled into English and Spanish respectively, the interpretation of the results in the form of quantitative data as well as the qualitative data from the post-questionnaire are discussed below.

This experiment revolved around three research question, which are formulated and discussed in the ensuing sections.

1. Are the offensive and taboo exchanges subtitled faithfully?

In order to address this question, the analysis focused firstly on the subtitling of videos from English to Spanish as indicated in Figure 1, of which 499 instances have been analysed.



	Pulp Fiction	The Departed	Django Unchained
Transfer of offensive/taboo load	103	225	68
No transfer of offensive/taboo load	17	39	47

Figure 1. English-Spanish subtitling transfer analysis.

It can be observed that in the three films, the transfer of the offensive/taboo load in the TT was predominant in *Pulp Fiction* and *The Departed*, although in the case of *Django Unchained*, the difference was reduced. If all transfer cases are grouped, they account for 396 instances (79.35%) compared with 103 of non-transfer (20.65%). In this linguistic combination we can therefore assert that the participants aimed at providing faithful renderings. Thus, the tendency to subtitle from English to Spanish can be said to be faitful to the ST.

As regards the Spanish-English subtitling, of which 700 instances have been analysed, the data obtained is included in Figure 2 in order to address the first research question.

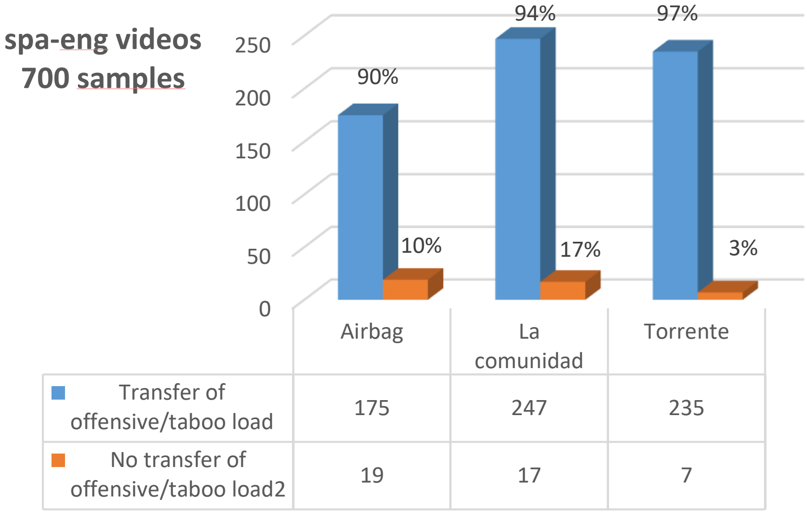


Figure 2. Spanish-English subtitling transfer analysis.

The figure above shows that the three films exhibit the transfer of offensive/taboo load almost to the full. If all results are taken into account together, we can see that the transfer of this type of terms has been made in 657 instances (93.85%) against 43 cases (6.15%) in which the transfer was not possible. Here, we can observe a clear tendency to subtitle the offensive/taboo terms in a close manner to the ST. Thus, this result leads us to assert that the transfer of this type of terms is more daring than the original when subtitling in the L2, probably because of the avoidance of cultural constraints, scarce knowldege of swearwords in English, or the inability to manage English conventions properly.

2. Are the L2 (English) subtitles more daring?

Comparing both results when dealing with the two linguistic combinations allowed us to shed some light on this research question as shown in Figure 3.

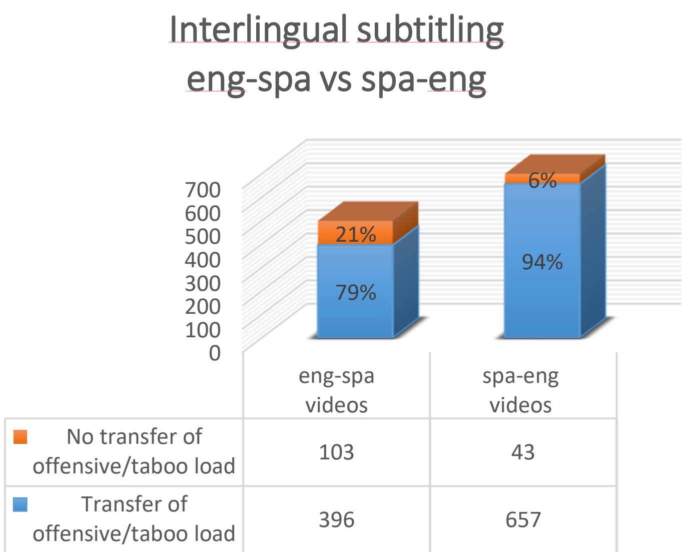


Figure 3. Both linguistic combinations subtitling.

As the graphs indicate, the L2 subtitling combination shows a greater number of faithful renderings with 94% of transfers in the case of the Spanish-English subtitling compared to 79% of transfers in the English-Spanish combination. This evidence leads us to confirm that the L2 subtitles have been more daring, for which reason we could conclude that when expressing themselves in an L2, speakers may feel freer to make use of taboo phrases and swearwords. In any case, these findings might lead to further research in the field.

4.2. Qualitative data

This type of data allows us to explore information on the students which will be used to triangulate the results along with the quantiative data.

In the pre-questionnaire, the participants were asked about their familiarity with audiovisual products and all of them said that they watched films, TV series, DVDs, YouTube videos, etc. When focusing on watching programmes with Spanish subtitles, 36.6% said they used them sometimes, 9.8% often, 26.8% hardly ever, and 26.8% never. In the case of English subtitles, 34.1% activated them often, 24.4% hardly ever, 4.9% always, and 9.8% never. We can therefore observe a tendency to use more subtitles in English within the population under analysis. Some questions were asked about the skills that they expected to be boosted by the experiment and the most significant findings were that: 61% of the participants expected to improve their written production in English, 43,9% their reading comprehension, 73.2% their listening comprehension and 61% to expand their vocabulary in this language.

Regarding the post-questionnaire, only 25 participants (68% females and 32% males) finished the project, which, in our experience, is common in the case of online university courses. When dealing with the use of subtitling as an amateur activity, only 12.2% had experienced subtitling at some point. The project also aimed at the improvement of different linguistic skills, although this data was only observed through the participants' perceptions. Thus, as for English skills, the students acknowledged an improvement, which is reflected by the results shown by the post-questionnaire. Finally, with the data obtained the third research question is answered below.

3. Have the participants' linguistic skills been boosted after participating in this project?

Based on the students' perceptions, we can observe that they stated some improvement in the following skills: oral comprehension (90.9%), reading comprehension (63.6%), writing production (95.4%), vocabulary enhancement (95.4%), and translation skills (95.5%). Another important feature was that they became more familiar with interlingual subtitling and also highlighted the improvement of their ICT skills, as they had to use subtitling in an active way (Talaván 2006; Talaván and Rodríguez-Arancón 2014).

In more specific terms, 95.5% asserted that they had learnt useful vocabulary and practical expressions in English, especially those including insults, swearwords, and taboo terms. When they were asked about how to subtitle offensive terms (insults, swearwords, swear phrases etc.), 90.9% said they had tried to balance the tone, 4.5% to tone it down and 4.5% to neutralise it. Regarding the manner of subtitling taboo terms (body parts, sex, religious referents, etc.), 95.5% aimed to balance the tone and 4.5% to neutralise it. Finally, 86.4% indicated that offensive and taboo terms should be transferred faithfully to the ST.

All these qualitative results corroborate the findings provided by the quantitative analysis. Consequently, we can conclude that all research questions have been addressed and confirmed via the triangulation of data, inasmuch as the results obtained after the analysis of data validate the participants' views on how to transfer offensive and taboo exchanges in the Spanish/English subtitles.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This project had the intention of shedding some light on the manner in which a group of university students would deal with the transfer of the load of offensive and taboo terms when creating interlingual subtitles for clips from six films from English into Spanish and Spanish into English. They had no information about the fact that the researchers were to analyse whether their renderings of these terms were faithful to the ST and more daring when the direction was from a Spanish source into English. The only purpose of the activities, as far as they knew, was to create adequate subtitles for the AV content provided by the teaching team.

The data was obtained through a process of triangulation with the help from pre- and post-questionnaires and the analysis of the texts produced by the participants. The results showed that the renderings were mostly faithful to the ST and the load maintained in those subtitles created by the students. Moving to the second research question, subtitles in the L2 proved to be more daring than in the L1 when the texts produced for both languages where analysed and compared. This could be due to the fact that there are fewer cultural constraints when swearing in an L2 and the terms do not seem to carry the same offensive load.

Nevertheless, an avoidance of subtitling blasphemies literally was detected and the presence of some ideological manipulation. This process of mediation between ST and TT might be a response from the creators of the subtitles in order to avoid the possibility of offending the audience. In order to do so, the tendency here has been to neutralise the impact of the blasphemy in the TT, or use some other offensive and/or taboo exchange instead which does not directly vilify God or Jesus Christ. That demonstrates a cultural awareness on the part of the students worthy of mention.

Apart from the fact that the work on the project made the students more familiar with subtitling and more competent with the use of ICTs; the participants mentioned several other aspects that they felt had improved as a result of their participation in the pilot study, such as an improvement in oral comprehension, an enrichment in vocabulary knowledge, and an enhancement in translation skills, in that order. Thus, the use of active subtitling, regardless of the purposes of the study, lead to the participant's improvement of diverse linguistic and translation skills.

As a limitation to the results it is worth noting that it was carried out by a small number of participants and that it would be interesting to increase the sample analysed and the number of students taking part in future projects.

As regards new research avenues, the comparison between the resulting texts produced when subtitling and dubbing the same clips would be a useful step forward, and even a comparison between the effects that the direction of both types of AV activities, L1 to L2 and vice-versa, have in the resulting TT. All in all, the data gathered in this study are expected to contribute to the literature of offensive and taboo language in AVT.

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DE LA AUTOMATIZACIÓN DE LA TRADUCCIÓN Y LOS LENGUAJES ESPECIALIZADOS. APUNTES

NOTES ON TECHNOLOGY, MACHINE TRANSLATION AND SPECIALIZED LANGUAGES

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

Abstract
Technology and translation are closely linked through the rapid development of CAT tools, machine translation (MT) and artificial intelligence (AI). These elements are undoubtedly leading to a redefinition of the traditional concept of "translation" and of the translator's role(s). Specialized languages are essential in this development as they that are the testing platform in its overwhelming expansion. Behind this process, there are translators, linguists, engineers, terminologists, web designers, programmers and so on. An endless list of professionals whose limits of their activity are no longer clear. Thus, new profiles or adaptations of the existing ones arise to cover the new demands and market needs. The aim of this article is to analyze some of these new challenges and their consequences on the basis of studies on the training of translators, expert reports on the development of MT and the results of market studies.
Keywords: Machine translation, specialized languages, market research, language service providers.

1. TRADUCCIÓN Y LENGUAJES ESPECIALIZADOS

La traducción forma parte de nuestras vidas. Qué razón tenía Umberto Eco cuando pronunció la famosa frase de que la lengua de la Unión Europea era la traducción. Con la automatización de la traducción tal frase es aún más real. Ya no son solo los traductores o los profesionales que conocen varias lenguas los que traducen; en realidad cualquier persona puede producir traducciones sirviéndose de la traducción automática. La tecnología está haciendo que los consumidores de traducción seamos también potenciales creadores de la misma. El objetivo de este artículo es precisamente hablar de las relaciones entre la traducción automática y las lenguas de especialidad y de las conexiones que puede haber entre ambos. Ello nos llevará a hablar de nuevos perfiles, nuevos nichos y nuevas tendencias.

El uso de la traducción en la vida profesional o privada ya sea como consumidor de productos traducidos o como productor de esos mismos materiales es una actividad cotidiana hoy en día. ¿Quién no ha utilizado *Google Translate* o algún traductor automático para pasar un texto de una lengua a otra, o simplemente para saber de qué va? Las posibilidades son cada vez más infinitas y el número de datos que obtenemos también.

Una muestra de la importancia de la traducción hoy en día es precisamente los datos que Google mismo nos da al realizar una búsqueda rápida de palabras clave como "traducción", "traducción automática", "traducción especializada", "terminología"; o sus equivalentes en inglés "*translation*" "*machine translation*", *o* "*specialised translation*" o *"terminology*". En una búsqueda realizada el 7 de diciembre de 2018 los resultados son los siguientes: En español "traducción" da como resultado 26.200.000 referencias; "traducción automática" cuenta con 2.170.000; "traducción especializada" con 700.000; y "terminología" con 22.500.000. En inglés los resultados son mucho más abultados. Así, "*translation"* acumula un total de 1.480.000.000; "*machine translation*": *1*5.100.000; "*specialised translation*": 1.260.000; "*terminology*"*:* 15.800.000. *(Google,* 7 diciembre 2018*).* Son resultados efímeros de una variación increíble. Sin embargo, estas cifras nos dan una idea de la cantidad de material disponible en Internet sobre la traducción en general o términos más específicos como son la traducción automática, la traducción especializada o la terminología.

Y ¿qué une la traducción con los lenguajes específicos? Sin duda mucho en la práctica puesto que éstos son el alimento de la traducción especializada, campo en el que se está produciendo la mayor automatización de la traducción (Arevalillo Doval 2010: 182). Sin embargo, en la investigación la mención a la traducción en relación con los lenguajes específicos no ofrece unos índices tan altos. Así, si realizamos una búsqueda similar en publicaciones de la asociación AELFE o de la revista IBERICA llama la atención el escaso número de estudios que incluyen el término "traducción" como palabra clave o que tratan específicamente de la traducción en sus congresos. Por ejemplo, el último congreso de AELFE celebrado el 28 y 29 de junio de 2018, el panel de traducción se redujo a 2 comunicaciones. Por el contrario, los congresos dedicados exclusivamente a la traducción han crecido de manera exponencial en los últimos años y en los cuales suelen incluirse menciones a las lenguas para fines específicos y lenguajes de especialidad.

Una de las razones de esta escasa representación de la traducción hay que buscarla quizá en el pasado y en el uso excesivo que se hizo de ella en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras hasta bien entrado el siglo XX, si bien en los últimos años se observa como la traducción ha vuelto con cierta fuerza a la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras. Pero hagamos un poco de historia.

Según Malmkjaer (1998: 2) “la validez del uso de la traducción para este propósito ya viene siendo seriamente cuestionada desde el siglo XIX y de manera particularmente insistente en los años 60 y 70”. Con la llegada del método comunicativo allá por 1980, el método de enseñanza basado en el dominio de la gramática y la traducción fue duramente criticado y desterrado de las aulas.

Ahora bien, como muchos investigadores coinciden en señalar (Malmkjaer 1998; Popovic 2001; Carreres 2006), las reiteradas críticas a las que estaba sujeto este uso de la traducción se referían no tanto a la traducción en general sino más bien al método específico de gramática y traducción utilizado basado en el traslado de frases o textos descontextualizados de una lengua a otra prestando especialmente atención a cuestiones gramaticales; a su vez, la aparición de determinados ataques hacia el uso exclusivo de método comunicativo (Duff 1998, Malmkjaer 1998 Johnson y Johnson 1998) también propicio el nuevo interés por la traducción. Autores como Carreres (2006) o Caballero (2009), entre otros, han defendido y defienden la necesidad de reevaluar el valor pedagógico de la traducción en el contexto de la enseñanza de lenguajes específicos y a la inversa, es decir, la necesidad de profundizar en el dominio de los lenguajes especializados como herramienta clave en la traducción especializada, tal y como indican estudios de mercado que veremos más adelante.

2. MARCO TEÓRICO. DE LA AUTOMATIZACIÓN DE LA TRADUCCIÓN

Tecnología, traducción y lenguajes especializados son buenos aliados a tenor del rápido desarrollo que está experimentado la traducción automática (TA) en el siglo XXI. Quedan ya lejos aquellos primeros ordenadores personales de la década de 1980 y los buscadores como Altavista y Google de finales de 199 ante la incesante aparición en el siglo XXI de herramientas para la traducción asistida por ordenador (o herramientas TAO) como, por ejemplo, Wordfast, Trados, Deja VU, MemoQ, Interbank o traductores automáticos como Google o más recientemente Deep L, a la vez que se intensifica el discurso sobre la inteligencia artificial (IA) o el desarrollo de programas de reconocimiento de voz.

La automatización de la práctica de la traducción - como de otras muchas actividades realizadas hace unos años por los humanos – es un hecho más que real. La última aparición en la familia de los paradigmas de traducción automática es la traducción neuronal (o NMT por sus siglas en inglés: *Neural Machine Translation*), (Bahdanau, Cho y Bengio 2014, Cho et al. 2014). Los sistemas basados en redes neuronales necesitan enormes corpus paralelos para su entrenamiento, mayores que en el caso de la TA estadística. Parra (2018) explica de modo sencillo su funcionamiento:

> Del mismo modo en que nuestras neuronas reciben información y realizan conexiones entre sí, los componentes del lenguaje se asocian con otra información subyacente para formar asociaciones y generar traducciones. Así, utilizando técnicas de aprendizaje automático, el ordenador aprende a traducir a partir de grandes cantidades de textos paralelos que además incluyen todo tipo de información lingüística y no lingüística.

Su potencial es tal que ya se están entrenando motores que, además de textos, incorporan imágenes o incluso archivos multimedia con resultados muy prometedores como lo demuestra la atención que tanto en la investigación como en el mercado se está prestando también a la multimodalidad en la traducción (Kress & van Leeuwen (2001, 67) o como lo demuestran los números especiales de *JosTrans* dedicados a la multimodalidad: *The Translation of Multimodal Texts* (2013); *Translation in the Creative Industries* (2018), y el tercero en progreso con el tema *Translation and Plurisemiotic Practices* (2021). Para entender este desarrollo tan rápido basta con que prestemos atención a algunas noticias aparecidas en los medios de comunicación a mediados de 2017. Así leemos:

"Algunas propuestas permiten establecer llamadas y videollamadas gratuitas para perfeccionar el conocimiento de una lengua extranjera desde el móvil" (disponible en https://elpais.com/tecnologia/2017/06/29/actualidad/1498752468_039580.htmlidiomas).

"La tecnología que puede sustituir a los idiomas. Los sistemas de traducción instantánea se empiezan a popularizar en reuniones de negocios y ONG, pero aún están lejos de sustituir a los humanos" **(**disponible en https://elpais.com/tecnologia/2017/10/16/actualidad/1508155136_770904.html).

O blogs de noticias anunciando competiciones entre traductores humanos y traductores automáticos y la poca distancia que hay ya entre la traducción humana y la TA (disponible en A Translation Showdown: Man vs Machine Translation (February 28, 2017, https://www.k-international.com/blog/human-translation-vs-machine-translation-contest/).

Surge, así, el gran debate sobre la inteligencia artificial (IA) y la traducción automática (TA): ya no se necesitan traductores ni profesionales de lenguajes específicos ni profesores de inglés o de otros idiomas. Traducción humana *versus* traducción automática.

Según los expertos (Quiñones et al 2018), hoy por hoy, es todavía una utopía el hecho de que la traducción automática iguale a la traducción humana. Para entender este debate recurren a la teoría del iceberg: Lo que el ciudadano / usuario ve es la punta del iceberg que sale a la superficie: la máquina puede traducir lo que necesito de forma instantánea y no hace falta la intervención humana. Sin embargo, debajo de esa punta hay un gran bloque de profesionales que la sujeta y hace posible que flote: ingenieros de la computación, analistas de datos, programadores, traductores, lingüistas, expertos en lenguajes específicos, terminólogos, lexicógrafos, etc. que gracias a ellos se avanza en la TA y la IA.

La situación actual puede ilustrarse con una pirámide (Figura 1): En la base se encuentra el usuario general- el público- o cada uno de nosotros que utilizamos la traducción o los dispositivos que tenemos de acuerdo con nuestra necesidades: es poner una dirección web en el ordenador, acceder a un traductor automático, copiar, cortar, pegar, pulsar la tecla de INTRO y repetir el proceso inverso: copiar la traducción y pegar el texto traducido en nuestro documento; o bien descargarse una aplicación en el móvil y seguir los paso que indica. En el gráfico viene indicado en inglés como "Most DIY" (*Do-it-yourself*) (Hazlo tú mismo)

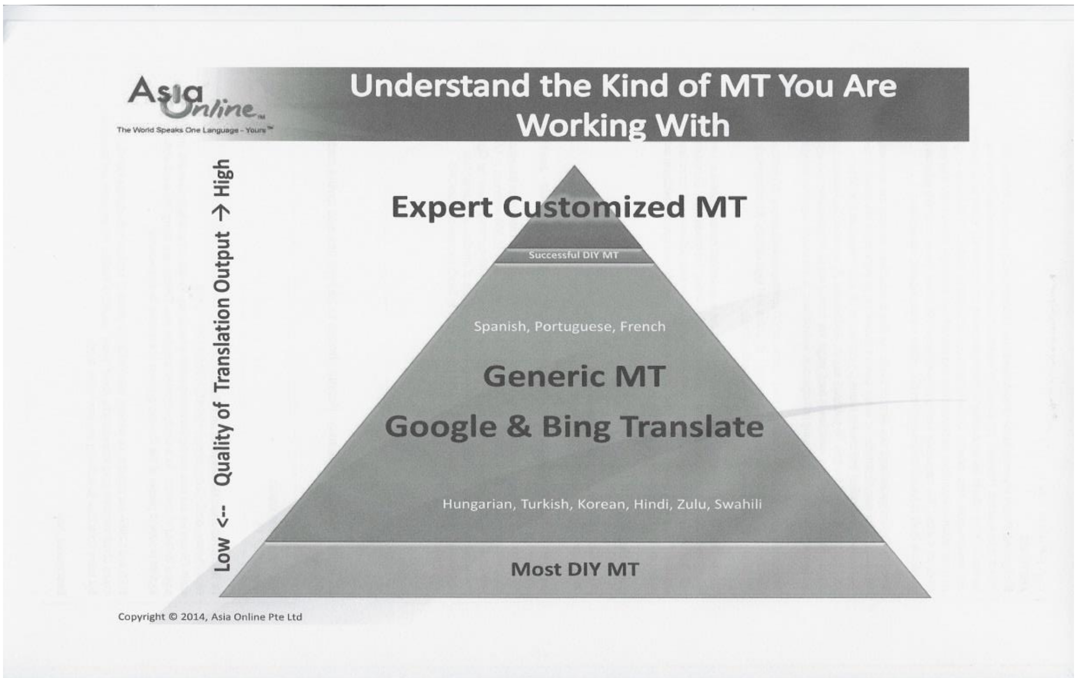

Figura 1. Asian Online TM Webinar

Por encima de esa capa inicial hay un segundo nivel que exige lenguajes específicos y un tratamiento con otros fines diferente y en el que se requieren lingüistas y especialistas del lenguaje y traducción para contribuir al desarrollo de potentes motores de búsqueda capaces de traducir al segundo o a la milésima de segundo textos para la gran comunidad de usuarios como es el caso de Facebook, Google, o Booking.com, por citar algunos (en el gráfico *Generic MT*). Son millones y millones de datos los que se necesitan y a lo que los usuarios también contribuimos cada vez que los utilizamos.

Por encima de este nivel hay un tercer nivel de expertos dedicados a diseñar nuevos programas, crear grandes bases de datos sobre áreas específicas que requieren una alta especialización en el uso del lenguaje, alimentar y entrenar motores especializados, analizar los posibles errores que cometen la TA o programas desarrollados con IA, (en el gráfico *Expert customized MT*). Todo ello está llevando a nuevos nichos de trabajo, nuevos perfiles y la exigencia de nuevas competencias para los profesionales de las lenguas.

En definitiva, la automatización de la traducción está sin duda llevando a nuevas profesiones y a nuevos perfiles. ¿Qué es lo que el mercado necesita? ¿Qué buscan los empleadores? ¿Cómo debemos formar a los futuros proveedores de servicios lingüísticos? ¿Qué competencias deben poseer los especialistas en lenguajes específicos para cubrir esos nuevos nichos?

3. MÉTODO Y CORPUS

Para dar respuesta a estas preguntas el método elegido es el descriptivo analítico basado en dos fuentes principales: 1. Estudios llevados a cabo por instituciones encargadas de la formación de los futuros profesionales. 2. Estudios de mercado llevados a cabo por empresas de proveedores de servicios lingüísticos (PSL). Las conclusiones derivadas de los mismos nos permitirán conocer la evolución del mercado de la traducción y las relaciones entre las instituciones encargadas de la formación de los futuros traductores y la industria de la lengua.

3.1. Estudios llevados a cabo por instituciones encargadas de la formación de los futuros profesionales.

Dos son los estudios que vamos a considerar: 1. *Optimale: Optimising Professional Translator Training in a Multilingual Europe* y 2. *Employment and the future of the profession.*

3.1.1. Estudio 1. Optimale: Optimising Professional Translator Training in a Multilingual Europe. (Optimización de la formación de traductores profesionales en una Europa multilingüe).

El primer estudio fue llevado a cabo dentro del proyecto financiado por la UE OPTIMALE: *Optimising Professional Translator Training in a Multilingual Europe* (2011- 2013) y recoge la opinión de empresas y agencias de traducción sobre el tipo de experiencia y competencias que exigen a sus empleados a la hora de ser contratados. Los resultados fueron presentados en Bruselas en la Comisión Europea a través de la Dirección General de Traducción (DGT) en diciembre de 2011. OPTIMALE trabajó en estrecha colaboración con la red de Másteres Europeos de Traducción (*European Masters in Translation*, *EMT Network*), con EUATC (*European Union of Association of Translation Companies*) y con otras asociaciones y cuerpos profesionales de las industrias de la lengua. El punto de partida fue investigar la evolución del mercado y sus nuevas exigencias para los traductores profesionales. No se buscaba conocer solo el domino de la competencia traductora y lingüística de los traductores, sino otras competencias que los empleadores valoraban o buscaban en sus empleados con el fin de adaptar en un futuro los planes de estudios a dichas competencias. Para conseguir datos se diseñó una encuesta dirigida a las empresas y agencias de traducción, a las que denominaremos proveedores de servicios lingüísticos (PSL) y que fue difundida por los miembros del Red OPTIMALE en sus países. Se excluyó la traducción institucional y a los traductores autónomos. La encuesta se puso en línea el 6 de abril de 2011 y estuvo abierta hasta el 31 de octubre de 2011. Se obtuvieron 685 encuestas. Para información más detallada ver los artículos Autor y Gambier (2014) y Autor y Toudic (2014).

Analizados los resultados, las competencias más valoradas por los PSL a la hora de contratar a los nuevos egresados fueron las siguientes:

- calidad 100% (97 %)
- identificar las necesidades del cliente (94 %)
- definir y/o aplicar controles de calidad (92 %)
- especialización en uno o más campos (89 %)
- experiencia en el campo de la traducción profesional (88%)
- conocimiento de la ética profesional (86%)
- identificación y uso adecuado de los recursos disponibles (85 %)
- capacidad para producir estimaciones (78%)
- poseer un título universitario (77%)
- consolidar relaciones con los clientes (76%)
- utilizar memorias de traducción (75 %)

Finalmente, la encuesta incluía una sección abierta de comentarios la cual aportaba información adicional valiosa sobre las cualidades y competencias que los empleadores creían que les faltaban a los nuevos graduados. Una de los comentarios más recurrente fue la necesidad de poseer buenos conocimientos de las lenguas de trabajo, particularmente de la lengua materna, conocimientos que, en principio, se debían de exigir antes de iniciar los estudios de traducción y por lo que se excluyeron de este estudio.

3.1.2. Estudio 2. Employment and the future of the profession (El empleo y el futuro de la profesión).

El segundo estudio, y una vez que se tenían datos sobre las expectativas de los PSL a través del proyecto de OPTIMALE, desde la dirección de la EMT se llevó a cabo un estudio denominado *Employment and the future of the profession.* Con este fin se elaboró una encuesta dirigida en esta ocasión a los egresados de la Red de Másteres Europeos de Traducción para el período 2010-2014. El estudio se llevó a cabo en 2015 y los datos preliminares fueron presentados en la jornada *Translating Europe Workshop 'Quality work placements for translation students - Expectations and practices'*, celebrada el 18 de febrero de 2016 en la sede de la DGT de Comisión Europea en Bruselas. El objetivo del estudio era conocer la situación real de los egresados, es decir, dónde trabajaban, cuáles eran sus tareas y de qué modo les había ayudado la formación recibida. Tales datos permitirían ajustar los programas y contribuir a llenar el vacío o distancia entre formación académica y mercado de trabajo Se obtuvieron 1519 respuestas de 46 universidades y 22 países. La encuesta constaba de 25 preguntas cerradas y 3 abiertas. De las preguntas cerradas, 17 tenían que ver con la formación recibida, y 5 sobre el empleo. Para información más detallada ver Autor 2017.

Los resultados más significativos para el presente estudio indicaron lo siguiente: En cuanto a la formación, la elección de las 17 competencias incluidas se basó en los resultados del estudio anterior mencionado (*Optimale*) sobre las competencias que los proveedores de servicios lingüísticos (PSL) más valoraban y en aquellas que los formadores consideraban esenciales o que formaban parte de sus programas. Estas fueron: Dominio de la lengua origen o L1; Dominio de la lengua meta o L2; Conocimiento de otras culturas; Cultura general; Dominio en programas de traducción asistida; Habilidades informáticas; Traducción general; Traducción especializada; Habilidad de gestión personal; Terminología; Extracción de información; Habilidad de revisión; Post-edición; Revisión electrónica; Gestión de proyectos; Habilidades de síntesis; Habilidad de redacción/técnica- Otras.

Los resultados indicaron que las más útiles fueron precisamente algunas que, sin duda, también compartían los profesionales de la lengua y no son exclusivas del perfil de un traductor. Estas fueron las siguientes:

Dominio de la L1: (68,12%);
Dominio de la L2 (66,73%);
Traducción general (54,02%);
Traducción especializada (43,28%);
Cultural general (42,09%);
Conocimiento de otras culturas (38,60%);

Dominio herramientas TAO (38,80%);
Terminología (35,18%).

El resto de las competencias alcanzaron niveles por debajo del 30%. Entre ellas se encontraba la postedición, lo cual sorprendía puesto que las empresas de servicios lingüísticos en ese momento (2014-2015) demandaban ya esta formación, tal y como se desprende del mensaje enviado por una de las representantes de GALA a los miembros de red EMT en la reunión de marzo de 2016 en la sede de la DGT de la Comisión Europea en Bruselas (comunicación personal). Era, sin duda un indicio, de una nueva competencia que habría que incluir en el curriculum de los alumnos, como se ha demostrado en estudios posteriores y veremos en las páginas que siguen.

Dentro del bloque de preguntas dedicadas al empleo, una de ellas iba dirigida a conocer las características de las prácticas en empresa y las tareas que los alumnos realizaron durante las mismas. Los datos indican que aparte de la traducción (55,99%) que ocupa el primer número, otras tareas realizadas eran la corrección de pruebas (38,74%), revisión (25,49%) y tareas relacionadas con terminología y lenguajes especializados (22,86%). Es decir, no se busca al traductor tradicional en el sentido del profesional que traslada un texto de una lengua a otra, sino que se le exigía ya una serie de competencias específicas en las que el uso de herramientas TAO y de actividades relacionadas con un conocimiento especializado de las lenguas era cada vez más necesario.

3.2. Estudios de mercado llevados a cabo por empresas de proveedores de servicios lingüísticos (PSL).

Dos son los estudios que vamos a considerar: Estudio de EUATC de 2016 (*EUATC Survey 2016*), y Estudio de EUATC 2018 (*EUATC Survey 2018*).

3.2.1. Estudio de EUATC de 2016

El tercer estudio fue llevado a cabo por las industrias de la lengua coordinadas por EUATC (*European Union of Associations of Translation Companies*), una organización que agrupa a las asociaciones nacionales de empresas de traducción de toda Europa, y en el que también participa GALA, (*Globalization and Localization Association*), ELIA que agrupa a varias empresas de servicios lingüísticos, y LIND Web, asociación patrocinada por la DGT de la Comisión Europea que reúne a las industrias de la lengua y a la red de Másteres de Traducción de la EMT con el fin aumentar la colaboración entre los centros de formación y los proveedores de SL.

Los resultados del estudio de 2016 (disponible en: https://www.euatc.org/industry surveys/item/396-the-2016-language-industry-survey) mostraban algunas tendencias claras, acordes con lo comentado en párrafos anteriores sobre el interés creciente en el mercado de la traducción por la tecnología:

La traducción automática era utilizada por 41% de los encuestados y además los PSL que la utilizaban solían ofrecer también a sus clientes postedición. Las herramientas TAO se habían convertido en una herramienta indispensable y sólo el 7% de los encuestados no utilizaba ningún tipo de herramienta TAO. Además, el 84% utilizaba algún tipo de sistema de gestión de la traducción o de flujo de trabajo.

Otras tecnologías que comenzaban a utilizarse eran la automatización del control de calidad (38%) y el reconocimiento de voz (30%). Se observaban además dos tendencias significativas que podrían tener consecuencias en el diseño de programas formativos. Una era la subcontratación o externalización de los SL (*outsourcing*) y la segunda era la tendencia a la traducción especializada. En cuanto a la externalización, estos consorcios de grandes empresas mostraban interés creciente por externalizar gran parte del trabajo y subcontratar profesionales a otras empresas más pequeñas para realizar tareas concretas (revisar, elaborar glosarios, gráficos, posteditar, adaptar textos, maquetar, etc.), lo cual daba posibilidades a otros profesionales de las lenguas. El trabajo en equipo y la especialización venia también marcado por los lógicos vaivenes del mercado.

En cuanto a la especialización, ésta depende en gran medida del tamaño de la empresa o del PSL. Los servicios jurídicos y financieros, así como el ámbito institucional están más representados en las pequeñas y medianas empresas mientras que los grandes proveedores de servicios lingüísticos parecen centrarse más en la automoción o manufacturas, las ciencias de la vida y las tecnologías de la información y las comunicaciones (TIC).

En definitiva, los lenguajes específicos son cada vez más necesarios tanto por el volumen de traducciones relacionadas con ese campo como por la necesidad de alimentar herramientas tecnológicas que se están creando para la automatización de la actividad. Para más información ver Krause 2017.

3.2.2. Estudio de EUATC de 2018

El cuarto estudio se refiere al último estudio de EUATC publicado en 2018 (disponible en https://www.euatc.org/images/2018_Language_Industry_Survey_Report.pdf).

Si comparamos estos resultados con los de 2018, los objetivos de la encuesta no han cambiado en comparación con ediciones anteriores: no se pretende recopilar datos cuantitativos exactos, sino más bien establecer el estado de ánimo de la industria. La encuesta es la misma. A continuación, comentamos aquellos datos que son relevantes para este estudio. Para más información consultar EUATC 2018.

Destaca el aumento considerable de la TA. Más del 50% de las empresas y de los profesionales de la lengua informaron de que están utilizando la TA de una forma u otra. Ello no significa necesariamente que se invierte en TA, puesto que el motor más popular sigue siendo *Google Translate* que es gratuito. Sin embargo, se observa una clara diferencia entre las distintas categorías de encuestados. Así, mientras que más del 70% de los encuestados en los centros formativos afirman que utilizan *Google Translate*, sólo el 49% de las empresas de traducción y el 52% de los traductores individuales afirman lo mismo.

Los motores que requieren inversión financiera o de tiempo ejercen una atracción menor para los PSL, sin embargo, van experimentando un aumento progresivo y suponen un nuevo nicho de trabajo para los profesionales de lenguajes especializados o en lenguaje natural, ingenieros de la computación, revisores o traductores entre otros. Este grupo de motores incluye principalmente motores de código abierto que son propuestos por compañías especializadas como Kantan, Tilde o y DeepL, que basados en la traducción neuronal están suponiendo un gran avance y cuyo impacto se verá, sin duda, en empresas o en los profesionales independientes en el próximo año.

Los resultados de 2018 también confirman que el uso de las herramientas TAO está claramente más extendido en las empresas SL que entre la comunidad de profesionales autónomos. Se indica que cada vez hay más productos o herramientas TAO si bien SDL/TRADOS todavía tiene una posición de liderazgo con un 67% de los encuestados usando una o más versiones del producto (que van desde el 56% de los centros de formación hasta el 79% de las empresas de traducción). Otras herramientas TAO con las que se suele combinar TRADOs son Multiterm (la herramienta de terminología vinculada a la suite SDL/Trados) MemoQ, Memsource, Wordfast y Across.

Outsourcing sigue siendo una práctica popular entre las empresas de servicios lingüísticos, con una tendencia al alza (un 40% indica que quieren aumentar esta práctica). Aún más popular es la post-edición de traducción automática (TA) con un 37% que informa de su aumento y un 17% adicional que indica que están iniciando esta práctica. Sin embargo, crowdsourcing y la deslocalización han aumentado en menor porcentaje en relación con el interés que despertó en 2016.

Las palabras de Rudy Tirry, presidente de EUATC son un claro resumen de las tendencias de mercado en 2018:

> 2018 is clearly the year of machine translation. This is the first year that more than half of the respondents declare that they are using the technology in one way or another. On the other hand, it is too soon to conclude that MT is now part of the translation reality, with only some 20% of the language service companies and independent language professionals reporting daily usage. Neural MT has clearly not yet brought the big change that the market is expecting.

Y continua diciendo:

> Changes to the technology questions are giving us a better view of the actual use of CAT, MT and other technologies by the various categories of respondents. New questions about internships have brought us additional insights in the way that the market is looking upon this important tool to bridge the gap between the universities and the professional world.

Con respecto a la evolución delas industrias de la lengua dice:

> Since its first edition in 2013, the survey is showing a remarkably stable picture of the challenges that the industry is reporting, both through the scores of the closed list of challenges and the open trend questions.

Y expresa también algunos temores:

> Price pressure, competition that is often perceived, as unfair and technological advances that are not initiated or controlled by the respondents remain the main concerns that the language industry – like so many others - is struggling with.

4. DISCUSIÓN Y CONCLUSIONES

¿Qué lecciones derivan de esta serie de estudios consecutivos tanto para los formadores y los directores de programas de traducción como para los proveedores de servicios lingüísticos?

Los resultados de las investigaciones presentadas parecen indicar que la educación y la formación del traductor es una responsabilidad compartida de las universidades y de las empresas.

Esta cooperación entre ambos parece esencial. Las universidades deben asegurar que los estudiantes que tienen la intención de trabajar en la industria de la traducción sepan cuáles son las necesidades actuales y futuras de sus potenciales empleadores, y que se les dé la oportunidad de adquirir una amplia gama de competencias, tanto lingüísticas como traductoras, pero también conocimientos de herramientas TAO, habilidades sobre gestión de proyectos y control de calidad, que les permita ocupar posiciones varias dentro de la industria de la traducción, donde cada vez más se pide un perfil multidisciplinar.

En la práctica, la automatización de la actividad traductora está abriendo nuevos campos de trabajo y exige nuevas competencias: creación y manejo de grandes volúmenes de datos *(Big data*) – generales o especializados- que luego son incorporados a bases de datos que alimentan enormes computadoras, entrenamiento de motores, revisión del producto de la TA (postedición), automatización de la evaluación de la calidad de la traducción, externacionalizacion y fragmentación de los procesos de traducción, producción de textos multimodales, o reconocimiento de voz entre otros.

Estas actividades indican que es necesaria variedad de perfiles y que dan pie a nuevos nichos de trabajo para los profesionales del lenguaje, con un amplio dominio del inglés erigido en *lingua franca*. Facebook, Twiter, Google, Booking.com son buenos ejemplos, pero también instituciones como la EU, la mayor empresa de traducción especializada. Todos están ahora mismo entrenando sus propios motores de traducción.

Desde el punto de vista académico los estudios presentados revelan la importancia de que el diseño de programas se adapte también a las necesidades del mercado. Ello supone trabajar en la actualización de dichos programas para aumentar el valor añadido de un título académico.

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