



# LSP Journal

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## Vol. 5 No. 1 (2014)

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## Editorial

Texts, terminology, language for special purposes, who cares?

Some modern students claim to be unable to digest more than a handful of pages from the textbook at a time. Short and punchy in 140 character tweets, politicians seem to love it! Simplified English to reduce translation costs. Emoticons to express our feelings.

Manuals for hardware and software with hundreds if not thousands of pages published on multiple platforms to comply with EU-directives .

Wordy and endlessly long terms and conditions that we all accept with a quick mouse-click without reading one single word because we are eager to launch an application.

Food labels with dozens of information elements that very few consumers care to study before making a purchase decision.

Blaise Pascal (French mathematician 1623-1662) who started a letter by saying "Je vous écris une longue lettre, parce que je n'ai pas le temps d'en écrire une courte" (I write you a long letter, I lack the time to make a short one).

Xu Bing (chinese artist born 1955 living in the US) who published "Book from the ground: From Point-to-Point," (2012) which is a pictogram-only narrative which can be read by anyone.

A MacBook Pro which now comes with a small 20 page easy-to-read leaflet.

These scattered examples of observations of various features related to text production are not meant to be judged as right or wrong, and certainly not an attempt to reduce the role of LSP. They are meant to illustrate how fascinating production and comprehension of texts and pictures are, and how challenging it is to get a message through in the best possible way in a multilingual, multicultural, and multimodal world, where the audience's attention, expectations and ability and preparedness to understand are never the same to-morrow as they were yesterday. Just in case somebody had forgotten.

So who cares? We do – and so do our contributors and our readers.

Henrik Selsøe Sørensen  
Editor in chief



# Formation of criminal law terms in English, Lithuanian and Norwegian

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**Keywords:** *comparative legal terminology, criminal law terms, formal structure of terms.*

## Abstract

The paper deals with a detailed analysis of 20 legal terms commonly used in different categories of criminal law in English and their equivalents in Lithuanian and Norwegian languages. The legal terms were selected from the Acts of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, the Penal Code of the Republic of Lithuania and the Criminal Law Acts of the Kingdom of Norway. In addition to those sources, several monolingual and bilingual dictionaries of legal terms were used. The investigated terms differ in two important aspects – they are formed in three different Indo-European languages (a West Germanic, a Baltic and a North Germanic) and they are used in three different legal systems with different law traditions. The research focuses on term formation models and seeks to reveal general tendencies and peculiarities of term formation in each of the investigated languages. The findings of the research are believed to be useful for formation of the new terms and correction/development of currently used ones, the latter being important for term formation in Lithuanian. Teaching/learning/translating legal Lithuanian, English and Norwegian are also the fields of practical application of the research findings.

## 1 Introduction

**1.1 Relevance of the issue and its coverage.** Terminologists constantly face the issue of what should be the most important aspect when a new term is being coined or formed – either its precision, accuracy and unambiguity or brevity and user-friendliness? The latter aspect of any term is defined as „easy to use, operate, understand“, and, what is no less important according to the latest tendencies in legal languages across Europe, it corresponds with a strive towards a jargon-free legal language which would make legal documents more approachable to the general public (Gadbin-George, 2010; Lemmens, 2011).

Comparative studies of term formation in several different European languages provide important insights on prevailing term formation traditions in different European countries and on the formation criteria preferred by term developers across Europe. The results of the



comparative studies enable to assess anew objectively already existing native language terms and ways to improve the status quo in problematic areas of terminology.

Legal terminology gets particular attention both from terminologists and general public as legal norms regulate national and international public and business communication and a lot of people of different professions and business fields have exposure to legal terms every day in various fields of life. Legal terms denote abstract concepts that can be expressed only by linguistic means. Therefore, it is important to choose appropriate linguistic means – enable a term to carry out its function to denote a particular concept and, at the same time, make it translatable and user-friendly.

So far, comparative legal terminology studies mainly tackle issues of the term semantics and translation strategies. The research carried out is a wealth of information for compilers of legal terms data bases, lexicographers, terminographers and translators (Sandrini, 1996, 1999; Šarčević, 1997; Harvey, 2002; Groot & Laer, 2007; Biel, 2008; Kocbek 2008; articles on issues of legal terminology at *TranslationDirectory.com*, in *Translation Journal*; *SKASE Journal of Translation and Interpretation*). In Lithuania, the comparative research on semantics of legal terms is currently getting its impetus (Kontutytė 2008; Rackevičienė, 2008; Janulevičienė, Rackevičienė, 2009; 2011).

However, comparative research on the formal structure of legal terms is scarce. More thorough research and findings could be found in the recently published works by Janulevičienė, Rackevičienė, 2009; 2010; Pogožilskaja, 2012 which deal with legal term formation models and their peculiarities in several languages. However, the research is usually limited to two languages compared. This paper is an attempt to contribute to the comparative research on the formal structure of legal terms and broaden its scope through the analysis of the three European languages from different Indo-European language groups.

**1.2 The aim and theoretical principles of the research.** The aim of the research is to systematize the ways of formation of legal terms, that denote criminal activities commonly occurring nowadays, in English, Lithuanian and Norwegian languages.

The terms under investigation are considered to present special interest to the research as they possess different characteristics of several aspects. Firstly, these legal terms represent different in origin and structure three distinct Indo-European language groups: Baltic (Lithuanian), West Germanic (English) and North Germanic (Norwegian). Secondly, these terms are used in countries with different legal systems and are closely related to the culture, values and law traditions of three different nations, as a legal language is „very much a system-bound language, i.e. a language related to a specific legal system“(Groot & Laer, 2007:173).

The research focused on the legal terms of Lithuanian, Norwegian and English-Welsh legal systems. The language of the latter system is just one variety of the many “legal Englishes” used in legal systems of England and Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Ireland, the United States, Australia, New Zealand and other Commonwealth countries. However, the English-Welsh legal terms were chosen as they represent the primary original Anglo-Saxon legal system.



The intake of the research were the terms of the four most common groups of offences: (1) offences against humanity, state and public security, (2) offences against person (3) offences against property, (4) offences against established economic and financial system, civil service and management procedures.

English legal terms denoting these offences were primarily sourced from the Acts of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, Lithuanian terms – from The Penal Code of the Republic of Lithuania, the Norwegian ones – from the Criminal Law Acts of the Kingdom of Norway. In addition, several dictionaries of legal terms were used – A Dictionary of Law, Aiškinamasis anglų-lietuvių kalbų teisės ir verslo žodynas and Norsk-engelsk juridisk ordbok. The full list of sources (with the descriptions and internet references) is provided in the References section of the paper.

The research is performed using the descriptive-comparative linguistic method which enables to unveil and present the peculiarities of term formation in different languages.

In choosing the Lithuanian and Norwegian equivalents to the English legal terms, P. Sandrini's comparative legal terminology principles are taken into account (Sandrini, 1996, 1999). These principles are based on the presumption that in different legal systems different legal concepts are used and the absolute equivalence between terms of different legal systems is non-existent. Only international law terms in different languages might denote the same concept, but national law terms would always present semantic differences. Thus, when choosing Lithuanian and Norwegian equivalents to the English terms, only the basic semantic features were taken into consideration by the authors.

The analysis of the formal structure of the terms is based on the works by K. Gaivenis, S. Keinys, E. Jakaitienė which discuss the formation principles of terms, their typology, sources and particular features (Gaivenis, 2002; Keinys, 2005; Jakaitienė, 2009). One-word word terms analysis is carried out along the general word formation analysis principles, whereas multi-word terms are analysed according to the principles of collocation analysis.

**1.3 The material of the study.** The following terms were selected for the detailed analysis presented in this paper:

1) legal terms denoting offences against humanity, state and public security:

- genocide* – LT *genocidas*; NO *folkemord*
- treason* – LT *išdavystė*; NO *landssvik*
- terrorism* – LT *teroro aktas*; NO *terrorhandling*
- hijacking* – LT *orlaivio užgrobimas*; NO *kapring av luftfartøy eller skip*
- hostage-taking* – LT *žmogaus pagrobimas įkaitu*; NO *gisseltaking i terrorøyemed*

2) legal terms, denoting criminal offences against person:

- murder* – LT *nužudymas*; NO *drap*
- manslaughter* – LT *neatsargus gyvybės atėmimas*; NO *uaktsom forvoldelse av død*
- rape* – LT *išžaginimas*; NO *voldtekt*
- false imprisonment* – LT *neteisėtas laisvės atėmimas*; NO *frihetsberøvelse*
- defamation* – LT *šmeižimas*; NO *ærekrenkelse*

3) legal terms denoting offences against property:

*theft – LT vagystė; NO tyveri*

*fraud – LT sukčiavimas; NO bedrageri*

*blackmail – LT turto prievartavimas; NO utpressing*

*criminal damage – LT turto sunaikinimas arba sugadinimas; NO skadeverk*

*handling stolen goods – LT nusikalstamu būdu gauto turto įgijimas arba realizavimas, NO heleri*

4) legal terms denoting offences against established economic and financial system, civil service and management procedures:

*corruption – LT kyšininkavimas; NO korrupsjon*

*misconduct in public office – LT piktnaudžiavimas; NO misbruk av offentlig myndighet*

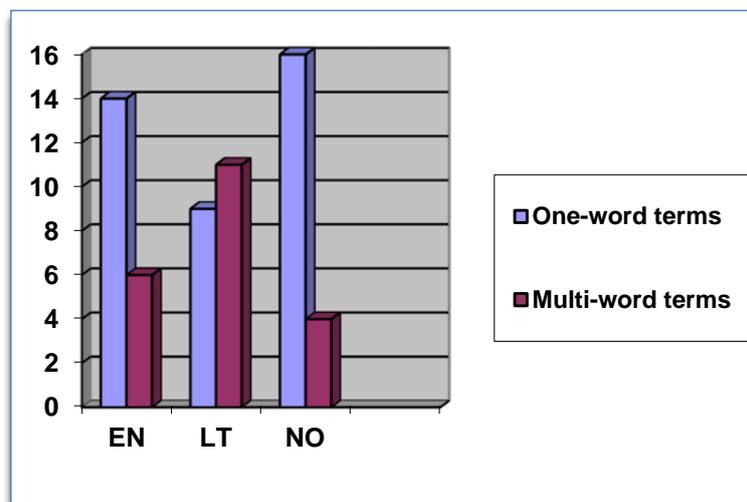
*money laundering – LT nusikalstamu būdu įgytų pinigų ar turto legalizavimas; NO hvitvasking*

*forgery – LT dokumento suklastojimas ar suklastoto dokumento panaudojimas arba realizavimas; NO dokumentfalsk*

*counterfeiting – LT netikrų pinigų ar vertybinių popierių pagaminimas, laikymas arba realizavimas; NO pengefalsk*

## 2 Analysis of the terminology and its results

In the languages investigated, criminal activities are denoted by one-word and multi-word terms. In the Lithuanian Penal Code, most criminal activities are denoted by multi-word terms, while in the English-Welsh and the Norwegian legal documents one-word terms of criminal activities prevail. The tendency to denote criminal activities by one-word terms is especially evident in the Norwegian legal documents (Figure1).

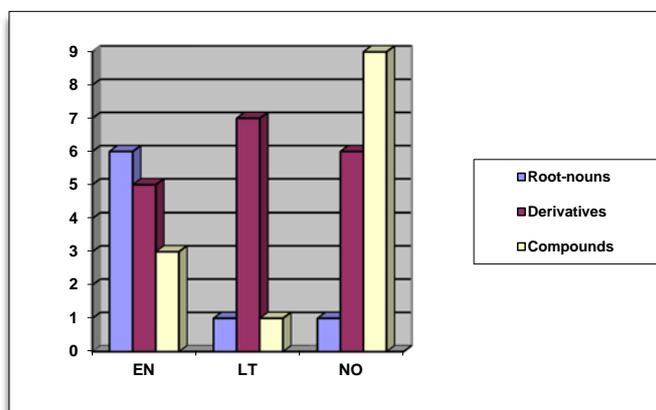


**Figure 1.** One-word and multi-word legal terms in the 3 languages

### 2.1 One-word terms

The investigated one-word terms are of three formal types: root-nouns, derivatives and compounds. In the given analysis, all one-word terms having more than one root (including derivatives made of compounds) are considered compounds.

In English, most one-word terms are derivatives or root-nouns, in Lithuanian – derivatives, while in Norwegian, one-word terms are mostly compounds (Figure 2).



**Figure 2.** Formal types of one-word terms

In the English material, there are 14 one-word terms. Table 1 presents the ways of their formation.

Formal type	Examples
<b>6 root-nouns</b>	<i>treason, murder, rape, theft, fraud</i>  <i>genocide</i> (historically it is a compound made of 2 words of different origin: the Greek <i>genos</i> (EN “family, kin”) and the Latin <i>caedere</i> (EN “to murder”) (q.v. OED dictionary entry “genocide”).
<b>5 derivatives made by suffixation</b>	<b><u>3 verbal derivatives:</u></b> <i>defamation</i> ← <i>defame</i> + <i>-ation</i> <i>forgery</i> ← <i>forge</i> + <i>-ery</i> <i>counterfeiting</i> ← <i>counterfeit</i> + <i>-ing</i>  <b><u>2 nominal derivatives:</u></b> <i>terrorism</i> ← <i>terror</i> + <i>-ism</i> <i>corruption</i> ← <i>corrupt</i> + <i>-ion</i>
<b>3 compounds</b>	<b><u>n + n</u></b> <i>manslaughter</i> ← <i>man</i> + <i>slaughter</i>  <b><u>adj + n</u></b> <i>blackmail</i> ← <i>black</i> + <i>mail</i>  <b><u>verbal derivative made of a compound verb</u></b> <i>hijacking</i> ← <i>hijack</i> ← <i>hi</i> + <i>Jack</i>

**Table 1.** Formation of the English one-word terms



In the Lithuanian material, there are 9 one-word terms. The ways of their formation are shown in Table 2.

Formal type	Examples
<b>1 root-noun</b>	<i>genocidas</i> “genocide”
<b>7 derivatives made by suffixation</b>	<p><b><u>6 verbal derivatives:</u></b>  <i>išdavystė</i> “treason” ← <i>išduoti</i> “to betray” (<i>išdavė</i> “betrayed”) + <i>-ystė</i>  <i>nužudymas</i> “murder” ← <i>nužudyti</i> “to murder” + <i>-ymas</i>  <i>išžaginimas</i> “rape” ← <i>išžaginti</i> “to rape” + <i>-imas</i>  <i>šmeižimas</i> “defamation” ← <i>šmeižti</i> “to defame” + <i>-imas</i>  <i>sukčiavimas</i> “fraud” ← <i>sukčiauti</i> “to defraud” + <i>-imas</i>  <i>kyšininkavimas</i> “corruption” ← <i>kyšininkauti</i> “to take bribes” (<i>kyšininkavo</i> “took bribes”) + <i>-imas</i></p> <p><b><u>1 nominal derivative:</u></b>  <i>vagystė</i> “theft” ← <i>vagis</i> “thief” + <i>-ystė</i></p>
<b>1 compound</b>	<p><b><u>verbal derivative made of a compound verb</u></b>  <i>piktnaudžiavimas</i> “misconduct in public office” ←  <i>piktnaudžiauti</i> “to abuse” ← <i>piktnauda</i> “abuse” ←  <i>piktas</i> “angry” + <i>nauda</i> “benefit”</p>

**Table 2.** Formation of the Lithuanian one-word terms

In the Norwegian material, there are 16 one-word terms. Their formation mode is presented in Table 3.

Formal type	Examples
<b>1 root-noun</b>	<i>drap</i> “murder”
<b>6 derivatives made by suffixation</b>	<p><b><u>3 verbal derivatives:</u></b>  <i>bedrageri</i> “fraud” ← <i>å bedra</i> “to defraud” + <i>-eri</i>  <i>heleri</i> “handling stolen goods” ← <i>å hele</i> “handle stolen goods” + <i>-eri</i>  <i>utpressing</i> “blackmail” ← <i>å utpresse</i> “to blackmail” + <i>-ing</i></p> <p><b><u>3 nominal derivatives:</u></b>  <i>tyveri</i> “theft” ← <i>tyv</i> “thief” + <i>-eri</i>  <i>korrupsjon</i> “corruption” ← <i>korrupt</i> “corrupt” + <i>-sjon</i>  <i>voldtekt</i> “rape” ← <i>vold</i> “violence” + <i>-tekt</i></p>
<b>9 compounds</b>	<b><u>n + n</u></b>

<p><i>folkemord</i> “genocide” ← <i>folk</i> “people” + <i>mord</i> “murder”</p> <p><i>landssvik</i> “treason” ← <i>land</i> “country” + <i>svik</i> “treason”</p> <p><i>terrorhandling</i> “terrorism” ← <i>terror</i> “terror” + <i>handling</i> “act”</p> <p><i>frihetsberøvelse</i> “false imprisonment” ← <i>frihet</i> “freedom” + <i>berøvelse</i> “deprivation”</p> <p><i>ærekrenkelse</i> “defamation” ← <i>ære</i> “honour” + <i>krenkelse</i> “insult”</p> <p><i>skadeverk</i> “criminal damage” ← <i>skade</i> “damage” + <i>verk</i> “act”</p> <p><i>dokumentfalsk</i> “forgery” ← <i>dokument</i> “document” + <i>falsk</i> “falsification”</p> <p><i>pengefalsk</i> “counterfeiting” ← <i>penge</i> “money” + <i>falsk</i> “falsification”</p> <p><b>adj + n</b></p> <p><i>hvitvasking</i> “money laundering” ← <i>hvit</i> “white” + <i>vasking</i> “washing”</p>
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**Table 3.** Formation of the Norwegian one-word terms

The analysis allows to conclude that the authors of the English terminology prefer root-nouns and derivatives for formation of one-word terms; the authors of the Lithuanian terminology – derivatives, while the authors of the Norwegian terminology give preference to compounds.

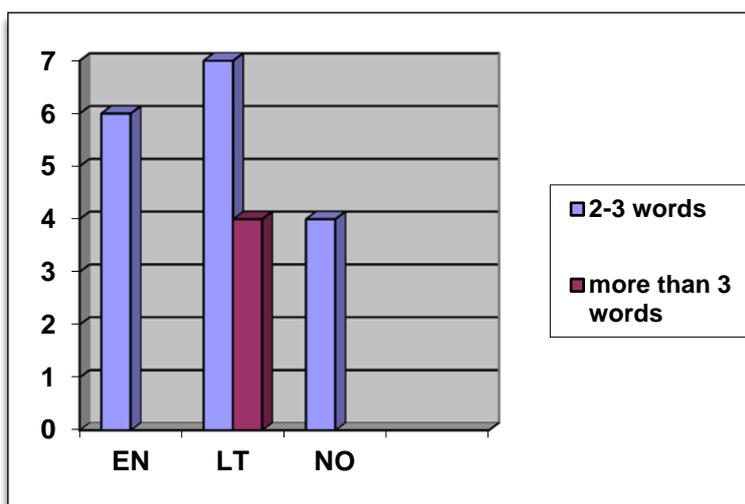
The derivatives are made of verbs or nouns using suffixation. In the English and Norwegian material, the number of verbal and nominal derivatives is almost the same, while in the Lithuanian material, verbal derivatives clearly prevail.

The compounds are of several formal models: 1) compound ‘noun+noun’, 2) compound ‘adjective+noun’ and 3) verbal derivative made of a compound verb. In the English material, 3 compounds are found, representing 3 different formal types: 1) ‘noun+noun’ *manslaughter*; 2) ‘adjective+noun’ *blackmail*; 3) ‘verbal derivative made of a compound verb’ *hijacking*. The only LT compound is a verbal derivative made of a compound verb (*piktnaudžiavimas*). Almost all NO compounds represent the formal model ‘noun+noun’ excluding one NO compound which is made according to the formal model ‘adjective+noun’ (*hvitvasking*). Most of the NO compounds are made especially for denotation of criminal activities and are not used in the everyday language. The authors of the NO terms do not avoid loan translations (linguistic calques) which are made according to the lexis formation models of other languages, e.g. *folkemord* is made according to the model of the EN noun *genocide* (q.v. BOB dictionary entry “folkemord”), *hvitvasking* – according to the model of the EN noun *whitewash* (q.v. BOB dictionary entry “whitewash”).

## 2.2 Multi-word terms

The investigated multi-word terms differ in their length and complexity. They may be divided into two groups – multi-word terms composed of 2-3 words (excluding prepositions and

conjunctions) and multi-word terms composed of more than 3 words. The latter terms are usually of complex syntactic structure with several syntactic government levels. Figure 3 shows which formal types of multi-word terms are predominant in the material of each of the investigated languages.



**Figure 3.** Formal types of multi-word terms

In the English material, there are 6 multi-word terms. None of them consists of more than 3 words excluding prepositions. 4 formation models are found in the investigated material. All of them are presented in Table 4.

Formal type	Formation models and examples
6 multi-word terms composed of 2-3 words	<b><u>n + n</u></b> <i>hostage-taking</i> <i>money laundering</i>
	<b><u>adj + n</u></b> <i>false imprisonment</i> <i>criminal damage</i>
	<b><u>n + nominal phrase (adj + n)</u></b> <i>handling stolen goods</i>
	<b><u>n + prepositional phrase (prep. in + (adj + n))</u></b> <i>misconduct in public office</i>

**Table 4.** Formation of the English multi-word terms



In the Lithuanian material, there are 11 multi-word terms. 7 of them consist of 2-3 words excluding conjunctions and 4 of them consist of more than 3 words. Table 5 presents their formation models.

Formal type	Formation models and examples
7 multi-word terms composed of 2-3 words	<p><b><u>n GEN + n NOM</u></b></p> <p><i>teroro aktas</i> “terror act” (EN equivalent <i>terrorism</i>) ← <i>teroro</i> “terror GEN” + <i>aktas</i> “act NOM”</p> <p><i>orlaivio užgrobimas</i> “hijacking of an aircraft” (EN equivalent <i>hijacking</i>) ← <i>orlaivio</i> “aircraft GEN” + <i>užgrobimas</i> “hijacking NOM”</p> <p><i>turto prievartavimas</i> “extortion of property” (EN equivalent <i>blackmail</i>) ← <i>turto</i> “property GEN” + <i>prievartavimas</i> “extortion NOM”</p> <p><i>turto sunaikinimas arba sugadinimas</i> “destruction or damage of property” (EN equivalent <i>criminal damage</i>) ← <i>turto</i> “property GEN” + <i>sunaikinimas</i> “destruction NOM” <i>arba</i> “or” <i>sugadinimas</i> “damage NOM”</p> <p><b><u>adj NOM + n GEN + n NOM</u></b></p> <p><i>neatsargus gyvybės atėmimas</i> “negligent deprivation of life” (EN equivalent <i>manslaughter</i>) ← <i>neatsargus</i> “negligent NOM” + <i>gyvybės</i> “life GEN” + <i>atėmimas</i> “deprivation NOM”</p> <p><i>neteisėtas laivės atėmimas</i> “illegal deprivation of freedom” (EN equivalent <i>false imprisonment</i>) ← <i>neteisėtas</i> “illegal NOM” + <i>laisvės</i> “freedom GEN” + <i>atėmimas</i> “deprivation NOM”</p> <p><b><u>n GEN + n NOM + n INST</u></b></p> <p><i>žmogaus paėmimas įkaitu</i> “hostage-taking of a human being” (EN equivalent <i>hostage-taking</i>) ← <i>žmogaus</i> “human being GEN” + <i>paėmimas</i> “taking NOM” + <i>įkaitu</i> “hostage INST”</p>
4 multi-word terms composed of more than 3 words	<p><b><u>(adj INST + n INST) + (adj GEN + n GEN) + (n NOM)</u></b> 2 variants of this model are found:</p> <p><b>1) (adj INST + n INST) + (adj GEN + n GEN) + (n NOM) x 2</b> <i>nusikalstamu būdu gauto turto įgijimas arba realizavimas</i> “acquisition or handling of the property obtained by criminal means” (EN equivalent <i>handling stolen goods</i>) ← (<i>nusikalstamu būdu</i> “criminal means INST+INST”) + (<i>gauto turto</i> “obtained property GEN+GEN”) + (<i>įgijimas</i> “acquisition NOM” <i>arba</i> “or” <i>realizavimas</i> “handling NOM”)</p> <p><b>2) (adj INST + n INST) + (adj GEN + n GEN) x2 + (n NOM)</b> <i>nusikalstamu būdu įgytų pinigų ar turto legalizavimas</i> “legalization of the money or</p>

<p>property obtained by criminal means” (EN equivalent <i>money laundering</i>) ← (<i>nusikalstamu būdu</i> “criminal means INST+INST”) + (<i>įgytų pinigų ar turto</i> “obtained money or property GEN+GEN”) + (<i>legalizavimas</i> “legalization NOM”)</p>
<p><b><u>(n GEN + n NOM) + (adj GEN + n GEN + n NOM x2)</u></b></p> <p><i>dokumento suklastojimas ar suklastoto dokumento panaudojimas arba realizavimas</i> “forgery of a document or use/handling of a forged document” (EN equivalent <i>forgery</i>) ← (<i>dokumento</i> “document GEN” + <i>suklastojimas</i> “forgery NOM”) ar “or” (<i>suklastoto</i> “forged ppGEN” + <i>dokumento</i> “document GEN” + <i>panaudojimas</i> “use NOM” arba “or” <i>realizavimas</i> “handling NOM”)</p>
<p><b><u>(adj GEN + n GEN) x 2 + (n NOM) x 3</u></b></p> <p><i>netikrų pinigų ar vertybinių popierių pagaminimas, laikymas arba realizavimas</i> “production, storage or handling of false money or securities” (EN equivalent <i>counterfeiting</i>) ← (<i>netikrų pinigų</i> “false money GEN+GEN” ar “or” <i>vertybinių popierių</i> “securities GEN+GEN”) + (<i>pagaminimas</i> “production NOM” + <i>laikymas</i> “storage NOM” arba “or” <i>realizavimas</i> “handling NOM”).</p>

**Table 5.** Formation of the Lithuanian multi-word terms

In the Norwegian material, there are 4 multi-word terms. None of them consist of more than 3 words excluding prepositions and conjunctions. Their formation is shown in Table 6.

Formal type	Formation models and examples
4 multi-word terms composed of 2-3 words	<p><b><u>n + prepositional phrase (prep. av + n)</u></b> 3 terms of this model are found each representing a different variant of the model:</p> <p><b><u>1) n + prepositional phrase (prep. av + n x 2)</u></b> <i>kapring av luftfartøy eller skip</i> “hijacking of an aircraft or a ship” (EN equivalent <i>hijacking</i>) ← <i>kapring</i> “hijacking” + prepositional phrase (<i>av</i> + <i>luftfartøy</i> “aircraft” <i>eller</i> “or” <i>skip</i> “ship”)</p> <p><b><u>2) (adj + n) + prepositional phrase (prep. av + n)</u></b> <i>uaktsom forvoldelse av død</i> “negligent causing of death” (EN equivalent <i>manslaughter</i>) ← (<i>uaktsom</i> “negligent” + <i>forvoldelse</i> “causing”) + prepositional phrase (<i>av</i> + <i>død</i> “death”)</p> <p><b><u>3) n + prepositional phrase (prep. av + (adj + n))</u></b> <i>misbruk av offentlig myndighet</i> “abuse of public authority” (EN equivalent</p>

	<p><i>misconduct in public office</i>) ←</p> <p><i>misbruk</i> “abuse” + prepositional phrase (<i>av</i> + <i>offentlig</i> “public” <i>myndighet</i> “authority”)</p>
	<p><b><u>n + prepositional phrase (prep. i + n)</u></b></p> <p>1 term of this model is found:</p> <p><i>gisseltaking i terrorøyemed</i> “hostage-taking in the terrorist aim” (EN equivalent <i>hostage-taking</i>) ←</p> <p><i>gisseltaking</i> “hostage-taking” + prepositional phrase (<i>i</i> + <i>terrorøyemed</i> “terrorist aim”)</p>

**Table 6.** Formation of the Norwegian multi-word terms

The results show that the authors of the EN and NO terms tend to use shorter terms consisting of 2-3 words, while the authors of the LT terms do not avoid long and complicated terms composed of 6 and more words with complicated syntactic government structure. The analysis allows to draw some more important conclusions:

- The place of the noun-dependants in the phrases

The head of the multi-word terms is a noun (usually a verbal derivative) which attaches one or more dependents (nouns and/or adjectives). In English and Norwegian, the noun-dependents take place after the head of the phrase, while, in Lithuanian, the noun dependents used in Genitive case take place before the head of the phrase. One LT example with the noun-dependants in Genitive and Instrumental cases before and after the head of the phrase is found (see below):

*EN*  
*handling stolen goods*

*NO*  
*uaktsom forvoldelse av død*  
negligent causing of death

*LT*  
*turto prievartavimas*  
n GEN n NOM  
property extortion

*žmogaus paėmimas įkaitu*  
n GEN n NOM n INS  
'human being' 'taking' 'hostage'.

- The ways of attaching the noun-dependants

In Lithuanian, the noun-dependents are usually attached directly, while, in English and Norwegian, they are often attached with the help of prepositions:



*LT*

***orlaivio užgrobimas***

aircraft hijacking

***teroro aktas***

terror act

*EN*

***misconduct in public office***

*NO*

***kapring av luftfartøy eller skip***

hijacking of an aircraft or ship

***misbruk av offentlig myndighet***

abuse of public authority

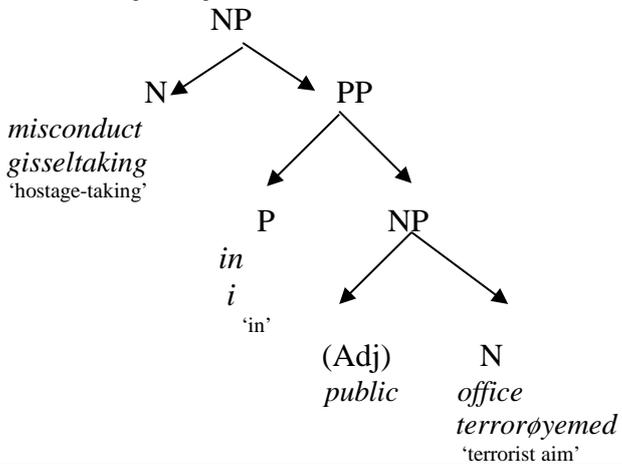
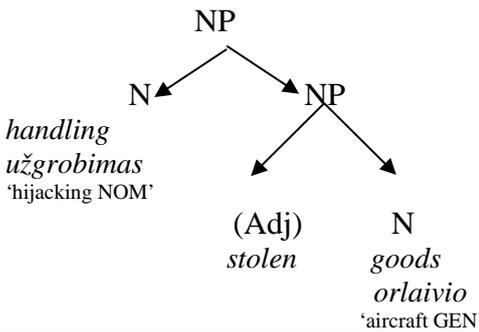
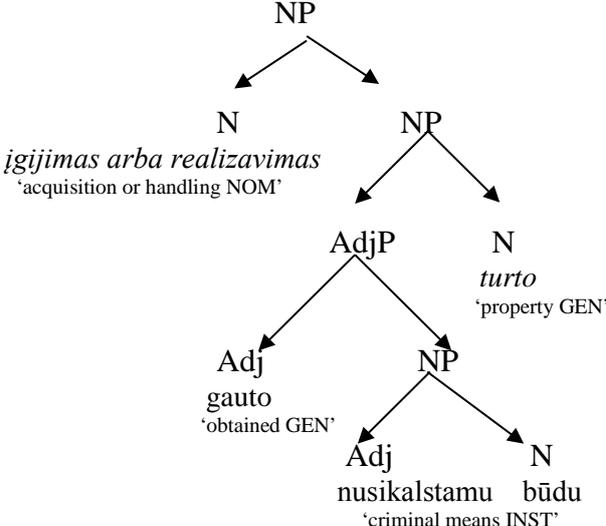
A separate group of the EN terms are multi-word terms in which prepositional phrases are substituted by noun + noun phrases. In the English word formation theory, they are called compounds as their structure is very close to that one of compound nouns:

*hostage-taking* (← *taking of hostages*)

*money laundering* (← *laundering of money*)

- The phrase government structure

The investigated EN and NO multi-word terms, with the exception of some EN examples, have a syntactic government structure where the head of the phrase governs a prepositional phrase. Meanwhile, in the investigated LT multi-word terms, the head of phrase always governs a nominal phrase. Usually a governed nominal phrase consists of a noun or an adjective and a noun, but there are several LT terms with more complicated structure where a nominal phrase contains an embedded participle phrase which functions as an adjective phrase (Table 7).

<p><b>Government of a prepositional phrase</b></p>	<p><i>EN misconduct in public office</i> <i>NO gisseltaking i terrorøyemed</i> 'hostage-taking in the terrorist aim'</p> 
<p><b>Government of a nominal phrase</b></p>	<p><i>EN handling stolen goods</i> <i>LT orlaivio užgrobimas</i> 'hijacking of an aircraft'</p> 
<p><b>Government of a nominal phrase with an embedded participle phrase which functions as an adjective phrase</b></p>	<p><i>LT nusikalstamu būdu gauto turto įgijimas arba realizavimas</i> 'legalization of the money or property obtained by criminal means'</p> 

**Table 7.** Examples of the phrase government structure of the multi-word terms



### 3 Final conclusions

The article provides a comparative analysis of criminal law terms denoting criminal activities in the English, Lithuanian and Norwegian languages and discusses the principles of term-formation used in the languages under investigation. The research findings lead to the following conclusions:

- 1) Criminal activities in the investigated languages are denoted by one-word and multi-word terms. In the English and the Norwegian legal documents one-word terms of criminal activities prevail, while in the Lithuanian legal documents most criminal activities are denoted by multi-word terms.
- 2) In the investigated material, one-word terms are of three formal types: root-nouns, derivatives and compounds (in the given analysis, all one-word terms having more than one root, including derivatives made of compounds, are considered compounds). In the English material, most one-word terms are root-nouns and derivatives; in the Lithuanian material, derivatives prevail. In the Norwegian material, on the other hand, compounds take the most prominent place.
- 3) The derivatives are made of verbs or nouns using suffixation. In the English and Norwegian material, the number of verbal and nominal derivatives is almost the same, while in the Lithuanian material, verbal derivatives clearly prevail.
- 4) The compounds are of several formal models: compounds 'noun+noun', compounds 'adjective+noun' and verbal derivatives made of compound verbs. In the English material, 3 compounds are found, representing 3 different formal types. The only Lithuanian compound is a verbal derivative made of a compound verb. Almost all the Norwegian compounds represent the formal model 'noun+noun', excluding one which represents the formal model 'adjective+noun'.
- 5) The investigated multi-word terms are of two formal types: multi-word terms composed of 2-3 words (excluding prepositions and conjunctions) and multi-word terms composed of more than 3 words. Short terms (consisting of 2-3 words) prevail in English and Norwegian, whereas in Lithuanian, alongside with the short terms, long and complicated phrases (consisting of 6 and more words) are used as names of criminal activities.
- 6) The head of the multi-word terms is a noun (usually a verbal derivative) which attaches one or more dependents (nouns and/or adjectives). In English and Norwegian, the noun-dependents take place after the head of the phrase, while, in Lithuanian, the noun dependents mostly take place before the head of the phrase.
- 7) In Lithuanian, the noun-dependents are usually attached directly, while, in English and Norwegian, they are often attached with the help of prepositions.
- 8) A separate group of the English terms are multi-word terms in which prepositional phrases are substituted by noun + noun phrases. In the English word formation theory, they are called compounds as their structure is very close to that one of compound nouns.

9) The investigated English and Norwegian multi-word terms, with the exception of some English examples, have a syntactic government structure where the head of the phrase governs a prepositional phrase. Meanwhile, in the investigated Lithuanian multi-word terms, the head of phrase always governs a nominal phrase. Usually a governed nominal phrase consists of a noun or an adjective and a noun, but there are several Lithuanian terms with more complicated structure where a nominal phrase contains an embedded participle phrase which functions as an adjective phrase.

The findings of the research reveal important differences in legal terminology in English, Lithuanian and Norwegian. Part of them could be accounted for by the different structure of these three Indo-European languages, but more substantial differences are obvious because of different traditions and current attitude towards term formation.

The research outlined that the term developers of the English-Welsh and Norwegian legal systems prefer the criteria of brevity and use-friendliness of a term to precision and unambiguity. The latter two criteria are often applied to the definition of the term, but not a term itself. The developers of the Lithuanian legal terminology, on the other hand, give priority to precision of a term and do not avoid multi-word terms of complicated structure. The analysis presented is hoped to bring more research on terms in different languages that, in its own turn, could provide ideas for emerging term formation models in Lithuanian and other languages.

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## Corruption in words: a study of Spanish and English criminal terminology in Europe

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### Abstract:

Political corruption – conceived here, in accordance with Transparency International’s definition, as “the abuse of entrusted power for private gains” – is perceived as a dire problem in Europe, where there is a deep sense of frustration that institutions and political actors are not living up to ethical standards. The present work endeavours both a qualitative and a quantitative study of criminal terminology regarding corruption in Spanish and its version in English. Precisely, the goal of this paper is, first, to give an account of the way in which corruption terminology is applied in the legal discourse of both languages, and then, whether such usage occurs in a similar way in the press of either language. In general terms, terminological irregularities regarding the normativization of corruption crimes within the EU should arise as might be expected because it is a supranational rule of law that mainly contains two systems springing from two different legal traditions: the English-speaking Common law and the Continental, or Civil law.

### 1 The background for our study: corruption in Europe, corruption in Spain. The law and the press

Political corruption – conceived here, in accordance with Transparency International’s definition, as “the abuse of entrusted power for private gains”<sup>i</sup> – is perceived as a dire problem in Europe, where there is a deep sense of frustration that institutions and political actors are not living up to ethical standards. Indeed, according to the 2012 Eurobarometer on corruption, three quarters of Europeans continue to see corruption as a major problem and think that it exists in all areas of public service, its level having risen in the last three years.<sup>ii</sup> Likewise, the *Fighting Corruption* Communication of the European Commission states that approximately

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<sup>i</sup> Transparency International:  
[http://www.transparency.org/cpi2011/in\\_detail](http://www.transparency.org/cpi2011/in_detail)

<sup>ii</sup> European press release on the 2012 Eurobarometer:  
[http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release\\_IP-12-135\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-12-135_en.htm)



120 billion Euros per year, or one percent of the EU GDP, is lost to corruption: it is a widespread sickness which harms the finances, the political systems and, ultimately, the subsistence of the European Union as a whole<sup>iii</sup>. The Commission has been given power to eradicate anti-corruption practices through the Stockholm Programme<sup>iv</sup>, mainly through the enforcement of the rules set forth by a freshly-created monitoring body: GRECO, the Council of Europe Group of States against Corruption. Indeed, the initial efforts to fight corruption in the Continent were originally embodied in the accession of Europe to the United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC) in 2008 and in the creation of GRECO itself. The latter has, in harmony with UNCAC premises, repeatedly called on EU countries to reinforce its legislation on bribery, to regulate political financing, to improve transparency in political party funding and to sanction corruption vigorously. Also worth mentioning is the work of Transparency International (TI), a global civil society organization based in Germany leading the fight against corruption worldwide. Its Corruption Perceptions Index scores countries on a scale from 0 (highly corrupt) to 100 (very clean). According to TI, while no country has a perfect score, two-thirds of countries score below 50, indicating a serious corruption problem.

Spain scored 65 in the 2012 Corruption Perceptions index, ranking –as it has traditionally been doing over the last decades– below advanced capitalist democracies and closer to the levels of corruption of developing nations with authoritarian regimes (Lapuente, 2009). The interval since the advent of democracy in 1976 and the integration into the European Union saw a booming economy where power was decentralized and town halls were ostensibly run like personal fiefdoms by major civil servants and senior officials, who reclassified rural land for urbanization and construction purposes (Jiménez, 2009; Villoria and Jiménez, 2012). In these years, buyers would make lots of money developing and selling the now urban land, then paying officials for their services with properties in the development. As a consequence – and as a number of studies show (Heywood, 2007; Jimenez, 2009; Lapuente, 2012) – a culture of distrust has steadily developed between society on the one hand, and its politicians and the jobs-for-life civil service lobby, on the other. The situation has been further deteriorated by an impoverishing monetary crisis that in Spain has everything to do with bricks and mortar (Villoria and Jiménez, 2012), since slack laws have governed the real estate sector for a number of years and corruption has made its prey out of the situation. The enforcement of a Land Law is increasingly encouraging transparency and control over urban development, but it will be years for a healthy, regular house market to be re-established.

However, the work by TI and GRECO to fight dishonest conduct in the implementation of the Convention's premises has had an important impact in the Spanish legal anticorruption framework (Heywood, 2007; Jiménez, 2009; Juanes Peces et al., 2012), since a new, amended version of the Spanish Penal Code dealing with corrupt practices has been in effect since June 2010. The new code has been inspired by the attempt to implement the Criminal Law Convention on Corruption (ETS 173) of 10 May 2005, together with the Framework Directive 2003/568/JAI, which fight white-collar and real estate crimes, among others (Freshfields Bruckhaus Deringer LLP, 2010). Other changes in the legal scope have apparently been brought about by electorate punishments on the corruption cases that have come to light,

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<sup>iii</sup>EU Communication Fighting Corruption: [http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/home-affairs/what-we-do/policies/organized-crime-and-human-trafficking/corruption/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/home-affairs/what-we-do/policies/organized-crime-and-human-trafficking/corruption/index_en.htm)

<sup>iv</sup> The Stockholm Programme  
[http://europa.eu/legislation\\_summaries/human\\_rights/fundamental\\_rights\\_within\\_european\\_union/jl0034\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/human_rights/fundamental_rights_within_european_union/jl0034_en.htm)



materializing into legal measures like the creation of an Anticorruption fiscal and the criminalization of bribery of foreign public officials. Still, with the latest scandals involving several members of the Cabinet and the royalty, the perception of the Spanish public opinion is that corruption occurs on a large scale in the country, and that tolerance of corruption in Spain is aided by several factors, one of them having to do with the press. Indeed, a recent report by Charron, Lapuente and Rothstein (2010) highlights the fact that the absence of corruption and the existence of a strong, unbiased press reporting on its scandals are key factors in what they describe as countries with a Quality of Government.

The role of the Spanish media has been paradoxical in this process. According to Freedom House –an independent watchdog organization dedicated to the expansion of freedom around the world– Spain is a free country as far as its press laws are concerned, but ranks number 43, below the average data for Western countries<sup>v</sup>. In Lapuente’s opinion, this is because the press is not felt by citizens as free from political or social influences (2012). Such lack of freedom is partly due to the fact that many papers receive large government subsidies (thus encouraging self-censorship). Furthermore, it also takes place because Spanish newspapers lack internal plurality, which amounts to say that, even if there exists a range of most influential periodicals offering a wide scope of political opinion –which Lapuente (2012: 10) refers to as external plurality–, the truth is that each periodical taken separately offers one-sided, biased, ideological accounts of reality. This, according to the same author, is just the opposite phenomenon to that occurring in the Anglo-Saxon press, where there are few newspapers, but these are capable of rendering a more honest, unbiased, rendering of political phenomena.

In a previous study (Orts and Almela, 2011) we stated that the Spanish press has always exerted a huge influence on the public opinion, as it has repeatedly pounced on potential scandals sprung up by the alleged sleazy acts by politicians and public officials. Our results then showed how the press introduces highly specific terminology on corruption in the realm of everyday popular culture. Indeed, we showed that the lingo used by the Code to organize misconduct, as well as other international and European instruments typifying corruption in the public and private sector, is deployed by the news-items of these periodicals, and its diffusion is made possible through them. From the point of view of our analysis, corruption crimes and their technical wording would be otherwise unknown but for the resonance that they have in the press and the tremendous sensitivity with which such press reacts towards public officials committing misdemeanours.

Our task in the present study will constitute a development and expansion of our previous work, as we endeavour to analyse the extent in which specialised terminology on corrupt criminal conduct echoes both in the law and the press in Spanish and English, in the context of the European Union.

## **2 The purposes and hypotheses of our study**

The present work is based upon our previous studies on the language of corruption (Orts and Almela, 2011; 2012) but intends to go further beyond such earlier work, endeavouring both a qualitative and a quantitative study of criminal terminology regarding corruption in Spanish and its version in English. Precisely, the goal of this paper is, first, to give an account of the

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<sup>v</sup> Freedom House:

<http://www.freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-press/2011/spain>



way in which corruption terminology is applied in the legal discourse of both languages, and then, whether such usage occurs in a similar way in the press of either language. In general terms, terminological irregularities regarding the normativization of corruption crimes within the EU should arise as might be expected because it is a supranational rule of law that mainly contains –like the Western civilization at large– two systems springing from two different legal traditions: the English-speaking Common law (based mainly upon case law, with some degree of legislation) and the Continental, or Civil law (based mainly upon codification). Nevertheless, it is worthwhile pointing out that the possibility of legal communication across Europe has to allow for what Vogt has called the ‘Anglo-internationalisation of law’, with major impact over the last two decades, which is ‘unlikely to change in the near future’ (Vogt, 2004:13). This phenomenon explains why EU legal drafting is, hence, conducted mainly in English, even if Spanish and French are also working languages of the EU. Additionally, English pre-eminence as a legal and political form of communication may affect the substantive content of legal texts in the EU (Vogt, 2004) through the translations made from English into other languages. Therefore, even if our primary objective will always be the Spanish terminology for the criminalization of corruption, we will be using English corpora for comparison because of the supremacy of the language in the EU context.

According to Chromá (2008:304), legal terminology mainly consists of abstract terms profoundly entrenched in local culture and intellectual tradition. It follows that among the prerequisites for the successful translation of legal texts are, not only a familiarity with the relevant terminology, but also a basic knowledge of the respective legal systems and of the stylistic, textual traits of the target language. That is not to say that legal texts in English and Spanish are so very different, in terms of complexity and intricacy. Danet’s “conspiracy theory” (Danet, 1984) argues that the language of the Common Law systems is archaic, obsolete and purposefully opaque and pedantic because its communicative aim is to separate the ruler from the citizen and the legal message from its user in order to perpetuate the social superiority and detachment of the legal class. In a parallel way, the most distinguished legal language specialist in Spain, Enrique Alcaraz, has described legal discourse in Spanish as full of beautiful metaphorical pages, but also as an opaque, obscure and awkward kind of discourse, being as it is full of formulaic sentences and stylistically devoid of elegance (Alcaraz, 2003:15-22). In fact, all the features that scholars like Mellinkoff (1963) and Tiersma (1999) have pointed out regarding the idiosyncrasy of the English legal lexicon, we argue, are also present in the terminology used in Spanish legal discourse.

Regarding the legal terminology of corruption, the study of which we undertake in the present work, and in the light of our previous studies on the matter, our primary hypotheses are twofold. Firstly, in harmony with the data at hand –in the sense that a wide array of terms criminalizing corruption is being deployed by national and international instruments and bodies and it is being done irregularly (Orts and Almela, 2012)–, we tentatively predict that, even if theoretically there exists a one-to-one equivalence between crimes in English and their equivalents Spanish, the use of terms in the law to describe corrupted conduct is going to be lower in frequency in the former than in the latter. This has to do, partly, with the fact that the English legal system is one in which codes are non-existent and written law (Parliamentary law) is less prominent, the only legislation being in force in England and Wales about corruption is the above-mentioned Bribery Act 2010 (dealing solely with bribery as a crime). In contrast, in Spain the existence of a Penal Code has specifically codified criminal conduct in a much more elaborated way, as compared to the English legislation. Secondly, the



technical and hard-and-fast typification of corrupted behaviour by legislation must be reflected in the way in which the official press treats corruption phenomena, so as to give them the visibility they deserve. Our previous study showed that this is, indeed, the case in Spain (Orts and Almela, 2011): the influence of the press on the wide-spreading of specialised criminal terminology in Spain is undeniable, according to our research. We predict that this will still be true, but that such a *status quo* will be less significant in English, since we suspect that the terminological variety is narrower and the borders between technicality and colloquialism must be weaker regarding the naming of criminal conducts.

The present paper has analysed several corpora, namely:

- a) An ad-hoc 1m-word corpus in Spanish (henceforth SPL) gathered from judicial decisions published in Spain in the last ten years, mainly from the Supreme Court, Criminal Division, but also from the Provincial Courts and the Constitutional Court.
- b) An ad-hoc 1m-word corpus in Spanish (henceforth SPP) gathered from news-items in the digital version of several prestigious, accountable periodicals –such as *El Mundo*, *El País*, *El Periódico*, *La Vanguardia*, *ABC* and *La Razón*– representing different editorial groups of every political colour in Spain.
- c) An ad-hoc 1m-word corpus in English (henceforth EL) gathered from judicial decisions in the last ten years, mainly from the High Court, Queen’s Bench Division (related to criminal matters), but also from the High Court Division of Chancery, the Court of Appeal, Criminal Division and the Supreme Court of England and Wales.
- d) An ad-hoc 1m-word corpus in English (henceforth EP) gathered from news-items in the digital version of several prestigious, accountable periodicals representing different editorial groups in the Great Britain (The Guardian, The Times, The Financial Times, BBC News, The Economist, The Telegraph and The Scotsman).

It is important pointing out that – despite its sizeability – our corpus has its limitations. The biggest fault of our corpora is that it is unfortunately unable to capture each and every case of corruption in both target countries. The sheer volume of natural language prevents any corpus to be an accurate reflection of the linguistic behaviour of all its elements. Despite this fact, we have chosen to conduct a corpus-driven analysis because, as stated by Fillmore (1992:35), “every corpus I have had the chance to examine, however small, has taught me facts I couldn't imagine finding out any other way“. Furthermore, we have ensured that there is roughly the same proportion of political corruption cases in the different corpora. The main purpose of our present study revolves around criminal terms in Spanish and in English (as the most important working language of the EU), such study having as the ultimate goal the revelation of both uniformities and asymmetries in the usage of such terminology to label corruption crimes in the law and the press. Being true that, as far as the scope of traductology is concerned, the attempts by the European Union to develop common legal systems have driven translation forward in this area, a study consistently harmonizing and organizing terms and their consistent versions in both languages is needed, and our study constitutes an early attempt to do so.

### **3 Our method of study: Corruption in words.**

In order to handle our corpus, the first thing we needed was a taxonomy of words, as a framework to work upon. We proceeded, thus, to the selection of the most relevant terms



concerning corruption and its incrimination at different levels: international, transnational and national, in the attempt to find a common ground of terms that could be used to measure term usage in our different corpora.

The terms to be extracted in the first place were those of the United Nations Convention against Corruption. Being a general set of norms to be applied internationally (in the scope of 140 countries), the wording of the text is fairly general, having as the scope of application “the prevention, investigation and prosecution of corruption and to the freezing, seizure, confiscation and return of the proceeds of offences established in accordance with this Convention”. Throughout the text, the concern is mainly the public sector, or the behaviour of public officials, with a minor dedication to criminalize conducts in the private enterprise. The beginning of the document contains a very brief glossary of key terms, none of them having to do with offence terminology, namely “public official”, “property”, “proceeds”, “freezing or seizure”, “confiscation”, “predicate offence” and “controlled delivery”. However, the words specifically regarding criminalization of corrupt conduct that we have detected in the text are the following:

UNCAC TERM	SPANISH VERSION
1. Money laundering	1. <i>Blanqueo de dinero</i>
2. Bribery (of national and foreign public officials, and officials of public international organizations)	2. <i>Soborno (de funcionarios públicos nacionales extranjeros y de funcionarios de organizaciones internacionales públicas)</i>
3. Embezzlement (misappropriation or other diversion of property by a public officials)	3. <i>Malversación (o peculado, apropiación indebida u otras formas de desviación de bienes por un funcionario público)</i>
4. Trading in influence	4. <i>Tráfico de influencias</i>
5. Abuse of functions	5. <i>Abuso de funciones</i>
6. Illicit enrichment	6. <i>Enriquecimiento ilícito</i>
7. Bribery in the private sector	7. <i>Soborno en el sector privado</i>
8. Embezzlement of property in the private sector	8. <i>Malversación o peculado de bienes en el sector privado</i>

**Table 1.** UNCAC terminology on corruption crimes

Also in the context of international law, Transparency International has elaborated a new anti-corruption glossary to harmonize all the terms that have been used in the realm of corrupt conduct, so as to achieve common understanding and language. This compendium of words should serve as a channel to ensure for dishonest conduct in public and private enterprises to be prevented in the future. It is in this spirit that the plain language guide by TI has been developed: to capture the key terms and their meanings, and to provide the anti-corruption movement with a resource to work more effectively with government, the private sector and



the members of the civil society, through the offering of a set of standardized, easy-to-understand, definitions.

Our choice of terms that appear in the said glossary is the following, again (as we did in the previous text under analysis) including only the offences typified in the document and their Spanish translation:

<b>TRANSPARENCY INTERNATIONAL TERM</b>	<b>SPANISH VERSION</b>
1. Bribery	1. <i>Soborno</i>
2. Clientelism	2. <i>Clientelismo</i>
3. Collusion	3. <i>Colusión</i>
4. Corruption	4. <i>Corrupción</i>
5. Embezzlement	5. <i>Malversación</i>
6. Extortion	6. <i>Extorsión</i>
7. Fraud	7. <i>Fraude</i>
8. Grand Corruption	8. <i>Corrupción a gran escala</i>
9. Lobbying	9. <i>Ejercer presión</i>
10. Money Laundering	10. <i>Lavado de dinero</i>
11. Nepotism (Cronyism)	11. <i>Nepotismo</i>
12. Political Corruption	12. <i>Corrupción política</i>
13. Revolving Door	13. <i>Traspaso entre el sector público y el privado</i>
14. Solicitation	14. <i>Incitación</i>

**Table 2A.** TI terminology on corruption crimes

As we can see, the scope is wider than the Convention’s, including interesting novel terms not accounted for by the UNCAC, such as “lobbying”, “revolving door” and “clientelism”, which are not typified as crimes in the Spanish Penal Code. The translations into Spanish are quite literal and, in some cases, simplistic and debatable, as we demonstrated in our first study on the matter (Orts and Almela, 2012).

The United Kingdom has been listed among the 20 least corrupt countries on Transparency International’s yearly corruption perception index (CPI) since 1995, the year it was first published. In line with Transparency International CPI, the levels of rule of law and control of corruption have been ranked at the higher ends of the World Bank governance indicators for almost a decade. TI UK, a chapter of TI in the United Kingdom, carried out a thorough study of corruption in the country, detecting the following as problem areas:

<b>TI UK TERMS IN ENGLISH</b>	
TI terms	1. Bribery
	2. Collusion
	3. Conflict of interest
	4. Cronyism or nepotism
	5. Fraud
	6. Gifts & Hospitality
	7. Lobbying
	8. Money laundering
	9. Revolving door
No official TI definition	10. Abuse of authority or trading in influence
	11. Illegal disclosure of information and misuse of IT systems
	12. Vote rigging

**Table 2B.** Corruption crimes deployed by TI for the United Kingdom

At EU scope, Spain joined GRECO in 1999. GRECO adopted the First Round Evaluation Report in respect of Spain at its 5th Plenary Meeting (11-15 June 2001) and the Second Round Evaluation Report (2004 7E) at its 23rd Plenary Meeting (17-20 May 2005). The Third Round Evaluation was launched in 2007 and was applied in Spain in 2009, containing the advice and recommendations of the Commission for the incrimination of corruption in the country. The data collected by the GRECO evaluation teams are, first of all, a unique source of information on what is a fairly recent body of regulations in the history of European democracies. These evaluations look at all aspects of corrupt practices, including all kinds of irregular behaviour of public officials, how the regulations are enforced and what penalties may be imposed.

The selection of terms we have carried out of the reports is the basis for us to check the ways in which the Convention and GRECO define corruption crimes, as described in Table 3:

<b>GRECO TERM IN ENGLISH</b>	<b>GRECO TERM IN SPANISH</b>
1. Abuse of official duties	<i>1. Abuso del ejercicio de sus funciones oficiales</i>
2. Participatory acts	<i>2. Actos de participación</i>
3. Bribery (Active/Passive)	<i>3. Cohecho (Activo/Pasivo)</i>
4. Corruption	<i>4. Corrupción</i>

5. Account offences	5. <i>Delitos contables</i>
6. Breach of official duty	6. <i>Prevaricación</i>
7. Trading in influence	7. <i>Tráfico de influencias</i>

**Table 3.** Corruption crimes deployed by GRECO for Spain

The United Kingdom joined GRECO in 1999. Since its accession, the country has been subject to evaluation within the framework of GRECO's First (in September 2001), Second (in September 2004) and Third (in February 2008) Evaluation Rounds. GRECO's current Fourth Evaluation Round, was launched on 1 January 2012 and is linked to the previous ones in its priority issues, mainly ethical principles, and rules of conduct and conflicts of interest of politicians, judges and prosecutors. Nevertheless, when facing the report we observed a lack of a formal categorization of crimes in the UK.

Finally, we reach the national scope: as far as Spain is concerned, the new Spanish Penal Code (henceforth SPC) includes a number of important reforms in the anti-corruption arena very much in harmony with the GRECO postulates, providing for, *inter alia*, the criminalization of bribery in the private sector, a simplified classification of bribery in the public sector (lawful acts, unlawful acts and situations in which the bribe is accepted on the basis of the public official's position), explicit criminalization of capital laundering, corporate liability, increased levels of sanctions, etc. In the Code, corruption of public officials is regulated by Titles VIII (On Falsehood), XIII (On Property and the Socioeconomic order), XVI (Regarding Urban Planning and Heritage) and, mainly, XIX, specifically controlling jobbery matters (On Public Administration). For reasons of economy, we supply just the compilation of the terms from the Code, notwithstanding the chapter they are in.

<b>ENGLISH VERSION</b>	<b>SPANISH ORIGINAL</b>
1. Crime against land and urban planning	1. <i>Crimen contra la ordenación del territorio y el urbanismo</i>
2. Crime against natural resources and the environment	2. <i>Crimen contra los recursos naturales y el medio ambiente</i>
3. Crime against the Public Heritage	3. <i>Crimen contra el patrimonio</i>
4. Bribery, Corruption (Active, Passive)	4. <i>Cohecho (activo, pasivo)</i>
5. Corruption in international commercial transactions	5. <i>Corrupción en transacciones comerciales internacionales</i>
6. Documentary falsehood	6. <i>Falsedad documental</i>
7. Embezzlement and	7. <i>Malversación</i>

misappropriation (of funds, of public funds)	<i>(de fondos, de caudales públicos)</i>
8. False billing	8. <i>Cobro de facturas falsas</i>
9. Fraud and extortion	9. <i>Fraude y exacciones ilegales</i>
10. Illegal partaking of public officials in business activities or contracts	10. <i>Negociaciones y actividades prohibidas a los funcionarios</i>
11. Judicial/administrative breach of trust, jobbery	11. <i>Prevaricación administrativa/judicial</i>
12. Money laundering	12. <i>Blanqueo de capitales</i>
13. Trading in influence	13. <i>Tráfico de influencias</i>

**Table 4.** Corruption crimes as depicted by the Spanish Penal Code. Our translation into English.

Again at the national level we undertook a scrutiny of the law in force on corruption in UK, the Bribery Act 2010, and we found no reference to corruption crimes, other than bribery itself.

For the sake of the limitations of our study, we could not detain ourselves in the analysis of all of the terms in each of the instruments at the different levels. Therefore, the deployed criteria of selection were twofold:

- a) To have the criminalizing terms in the Penal Code as the main source of selection in Spanish, contrasting those with the different English equivalents as provided by the international and EU documents. Having no array of terms from GRECO or Parliamentary law from UK, we decided to consider the list of TI UK as the main source of selection for English terms.
- b) To exclude very long nominal groups from our lexical analysis (as it is the case of urban crimes in the Spanish Code and some of the UNCAC crimes), since they were prone to be processed without conclusive results.

Therefore, taking these two premises into account, our final selection of terms was the following:

<b>SELECTED TERM</b>	<b>SPANISH VERSION/S</b>
1. Breach of duty	1. <i>Prevaricación</i>
2. Bribery	2. <i>Cohecho</i>
3. Collusion	3. <i>Colusión</i>

4. Corruption	4. <i>Corrupción</i>
5. Embezzlement	5. <i>Malversación</i>
6. Extortion	6. <i>Exacción ilegal</i>
7. Fraud	7. <i>Fraude</i>
8. Money laundering	8. <i>Blanqueo de capitales</i>
9. Nepotism	9. <i>Nepotismo</i>
10. Trading in influence	10. <i>Tráfico de influencias</i>

**Table 5.** Selected terms for analysis and their Spanish version

Notably, the two first terms are the most important ones. “Corruption” constitutes the very name of the lexical field whose study we are endeavoring. “Bribery”, on the other hand, is less general in character but appears in all the instruments under analysis, and in an exhaustive way. “Embezzlement” shows also a ubiquitous presence, except in the GRECO reports, and the same is true of “Money laundering” and “Trading in influence”. “Breach of official duty” is a kind of abuse of authority that makes its appearance in GRECO and the SPC. “Extortion” and “Fraud”, finally, appear solely in the SPC and in the TI glossary, but were interesting as examples of cognate adaptations. Last but not least, “Collusion” and “Nepotism” are not typified as crimes in the Spanish Code, but TI regards them as serious problem areas in the UK, and they were selected for that reason.

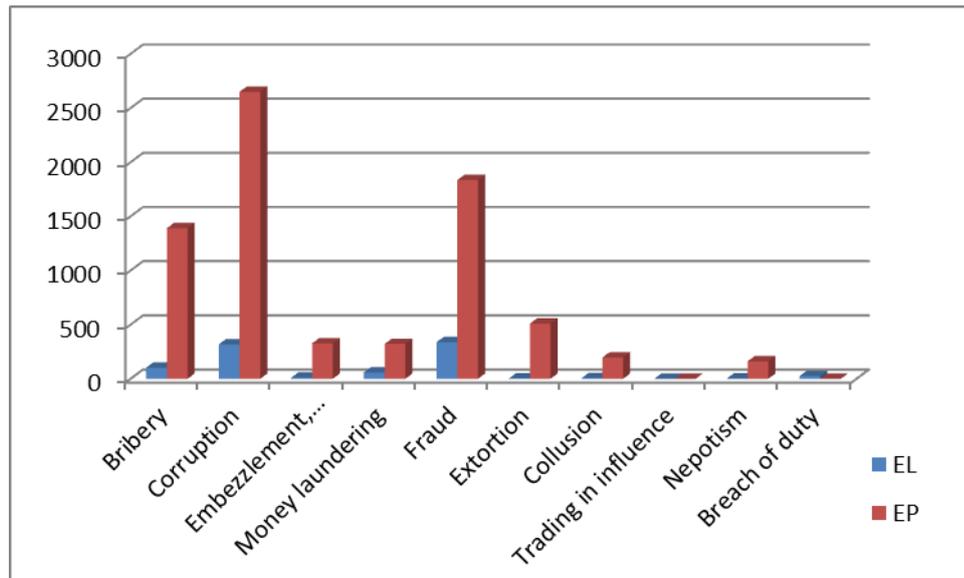
As far as data analysis is concerned, a quantification of the selected terms was necessary. By means of Wordsmith Tools 5.0, we have firstly measured the absolute frequency of the terms of art in the four corpora, since this basic corpus-based statistic will enable the direct comparison among terms. Furthermore, a significance test has been performed in order to thoroughly evaluate our working hypotheses: Wilcoxon signed-rank test. It is a non-parametric statistical hypothesis test used when comparing two related samples or repeated measurements on a single sample to assess whether their population means differ; in other words, it is a paired difference test –it has been performed with the statistical package SPSS 15.0. The differences between the pair of variables are counted, the absolute differences are ranked, the positive and negative ranks are summed, and the test statistic Z is computed from the positive and negative rank sums. Under the null hypothesis for large sample sizes, Z is approximately normally distributed with a mean of 0 and a variance of 1.

#### 4 Data results and discussion

The terms of art found in the four corpora are presented in this section in the form of absolute frequencies (see Table 6 and Table 7). As can be seen, the global count of the selected terms in the news corpora is considerably superior to their legal equivalents, specifically eight times larger in the English version and three times in the Spanish one. In the light of the density of the set of legal terms under study to other words in the English corpora, it is worth noting that they account for 0.73% in EP corpus, whereas a low percentage (0.08%) in EL. Nevertheless, these data cannot be properly interpreted without considering the differences between both corpora regarding corpus density. As mentioned above, the total number of tokens in both corpora is similar, but the number of texts included in both EP and SPP is higher, precisely due to the nature of journalistic texts; conciseness and straightforwardness are distinctive features of this genre, hence the modest extension of news texts as compared to those texts in jurisprudence. This is especially true when comparing the English corpora. Furthermore, the type/token ratio in EL is also indicative of a lower lexical density, having a ratio of 1.88, whereas EP achieves 3.38. Accordingly, it seems natural that the search terms occur much more frequently in a denser corpus.

	<b>EL</b>	<b>EP</b>
Bribery	103	1,391
Corruption	318	2,649
Embezzlement, misappropriation	11	327
Money laundering	59	322
Fraud	338	1,835
Extortion	4	509
Collusion	7	197
Abuse of authority	0	2
Nepotism	3	161
Breach of duty	24	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>867 (0.08%)</b>	<b>7,391 (0.73%)</b>

**Table 6.** Frequency of occurrence of the selected English terms

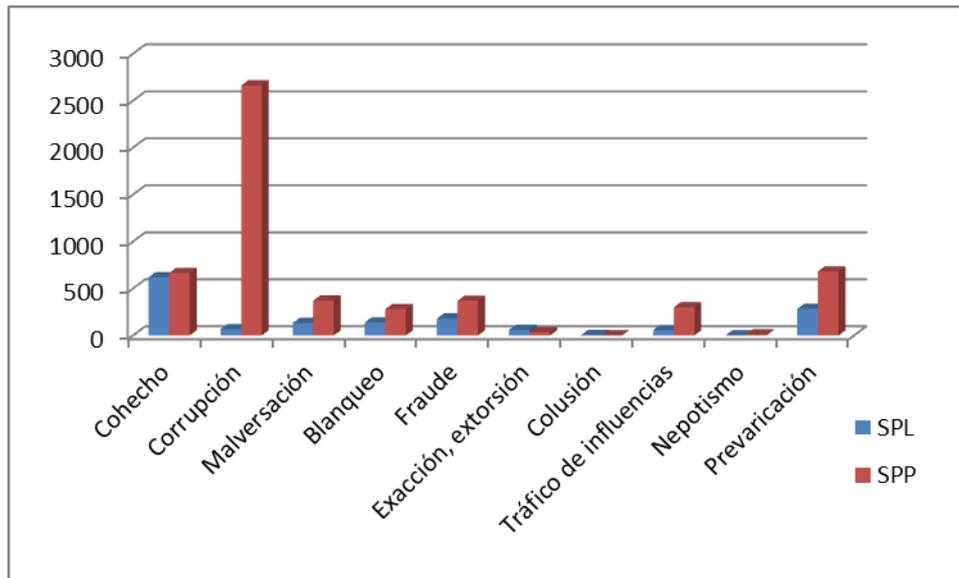


**Figure 1.** Frequency of occurrence of the selected English terms

Regarding the Spanish corpora, differences in corpus density parallel the situation in the English corpora, also showing a similar distribution of type/token ratios –2.34 in SPL corpus versus 3.45 in SPP. Nevertheless, as seen in Table 8 and Figure 2, both the global and the individual frequencies show a more balanced distribution. As we remarked upon above, the global count of the selected terms in the latter is three times higher than the number registered in the former, and there is a difference of just 0.38% in the density of the terms of art to other words in the corpora.

Term	SPL	SPP
Cohecho	619	665
Corrupción	67	2,661
Malversación	133	371
Blanqueo	138	281
Fraude	181	369
Exacción ilegal	60	34
Colusión	4	0
Tráfico de influencias	57	300
Nepotismo	0	11
Prevaricación	284	682
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,543 (0.15%)</b>	<b>5,374 (0.53%)</b>

**Table 7.** Frequency of occurrence of the selected Spanish terms



**Figure 2.** Frequency of occurrence of the selected Spanish terms

As regards our first hypothesis, even if there is no statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis ( $p$  value = .333;  $Z$  = -.968), frequencies of occurrence clearly show the greater use of the selected terms in Spanish law as compared to its English counterpart (see Tables 7 and 8). Overall, there are 867 occurrences of the search terms in EL, whereas in Spanish such occurrences take place 1,543 times. Thus, the hypothesis concerning the strong presence of terms describing corrupted conduct in SL is confirmed by sheer weight of numbers. The particularities of the unequal distribution of terms across corpora are thoroughly discussed below.

Regarding our second hypothesis, the frequencies in absolute terms reveal that there is a stronger preference of the English press for the deployment of corrupt conducts and crimes, especially as compared to the abovementioned use of terms in the law. As commented on above, our previous study showed that the Spanish press gives these terms enough visibility in accordance with the technical typification of corrupted behaviour (Orts and Almela, 2011), and precisely on these grounds we had initially suggested our second hypothesis. Nonetheless, EP corpus shows the most momentous results in this respect. In significance terms, there is statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis in both languages, but an intra-language analysis in English ( $p$  value = .011;  $Z$  = -2,547) reveals a more uneven distribution than in Spanish ( $p$  value = .017;  $Z$  = -2,395).

In addition to this general assessment, an individual examination is provided below in order to shed light on the particularities of each term.

### **Breach of duty/Prevaricación**

According to the Oxford Law dictionary, “breach of duty” is ‘an unjustifiable refusal or failure to implement a duty incumbent by agreement or by law, but particularly the latter’. In the English system it is not a crime, but a failure to implement one’s legal duty, which explains its relative scarcity in EL (24 counts), in contrast to *prevaricación*, which occurs 284 times in SPL since it is a classical corruption crime, specifically in the realm of offences

against the public administration; indeed, it collocates 223 times with the term *delito/s* in this corpus. Our EP corpus does not include it at all, whereas its status in the Spanish public opinion is clear, with 680 occurrences which make it rank second after corruption. This term's frequencies confirm our first hypothesis but outdo the second. Of interest, there are some other crimes co-occurring in the lexical constellation of the Spanish version of this term, namely *cohecho* (23 in SPL and 195 in SPP) and *malversación* (7 in SPL and 155 in SPP).

### **Bribery/Cohecho**

Transparency International defines “bribery” as the offering, promising, giving, accepting or soliciting of an advantage as an inducement for an action which is illegal, unethical or a breach of trust. Inducements can take the form of gifts, loans, fees, rewards or other advantages (taxes, services, donations, etc.) The Spanish term is much more specific than its English equivalent. In other words, “bribery” is a fairly general term, applied in English to any kind of inducement, while in Spanish the choice of words would be dual, “bribery” being translated as either *soborno* –much more general and implying a gift (money, good, privilege, etc.) bestowed to influence the conduct of someone in a position of power– or *cohecho*, where the person invested with power specifically refers to public officials and Government personnel. “Bribery” is a criminal offence under the UNCAC.

The term “bribery” occurs 103 times in EL (as “offence/wrong of bribery”) and roughly ten times more often in EP (1,391 counts, mostly nominal groups like “bribery affair”, “bribery allegation” or “foreign bribery”), the latter exceeding by far the overall results of the other corpora. In contrast, and notwithstanding considerations on corpus density, the term *cohecho* appears 619 in SPL (mostly as a *delito de cohecho*) and 665 in SPP (as *imputado/acusado/sospechoso de cohecho*), which indicates the popularity of the term in both areas, and supports our presumptions that the press in Spain deploys the term as much as the law does. Several conclusions may also be drawn from these data, namely that –as we predicted– the frequency in the usage of this particular term is lower in English judicial decisions than in Spanish ones, even if “bribery” is much more popular in the English press than in any other corpus.

### **Collusion/Colusión**

TI describes “collusion” as a secret agreement between parties, in the public and/or private sector, to conspire to commit actions aimed to deceive or commit fraud with the objective of illicit financial gain. In Spain, *colusión* is not a crime, but a conduct contrary to the Law Merchant (Act 15/2007, July 3rd, on the Defense of Competition). This factor explains its relative scarcity in SPL (4 counts, referred to mercantile transactions) and its total absence in SPP, as an indication of its rare association with the area of corruption. Its presence in the English corpora, again, is low in EL (7 counts, all referred to white collar crime), but higher in the EP corpus than in any other, with 197 occurrences, which points at its relative popularity in the English media. Curiously enough, corpus evidence confirms that this term does not co-occur with any other crime.

The results thwart our first hypothesis that the use of terms to describe corrupted conduct in the law is lower in the English sample than in the Spanish one, as well as our second hypothesis that the English press would be as scarce in its expression of corruption crimes as the law is. In fact, it is the opposite: the English corpus exceeding all the others, and the Spanish one, as we remarked above, showing no results. This is also the case –to a much greater extent– with the term “conspiracy” and its equivalent in Spanish, *conspiración*. Albeit more general in meaning, this term is intimately related to the concept of “collusion” in some

of its senses, as revealed by a concordance search across corpora. Under section 5(1) and (2) of the 1977 Act, “conspiracy” is an agreement between two or more persons to commit a crime at some time in the future (Herring, 2008), the crime being not necessarily related to corruption. In English law, it falls under the category of inchoate offences, which roughly correspond to *actos preparatorios punibles* stated under sections 17 and 18 of the SPC. In the 74 occurrences of the term observed in EL, the nominal groups “corrupt conspiracy” and “conspiracy to corrupt”, and –most significantly– “conspiracy to defraud” have been found. Of interest, in EP this term co-occurs 6 times with “fraud”, 10 times with the crime “money laundering”, and 16 with “bribery”. On the contrary, the equivalent term *conspiración* is wholly absent from SPL, and does only occur twice in SPP.

### **Corruption/Corrupción**

There is no single definition of *corrupción* in the Spanish legal system. Rather, a number of corruption offences are envisaged *stricto sensu* in the Spanish Penal Code of 1995 under various headings. As far as the TI glossary is concerned, the term refers to the abuse of entrusted power for private gain and can be classified as grand, petty or political, depending on the amounts of money at stake, and the sector where it occurs.

Indeed, it is true that the word has a markedly general character, labeling the entire lexical field under study. However, it is consequential because of its presence in each and every of our corpora, since it frames most of the criminal conducts in the area.

“Corruption” is, by far, the most common word in our press corpora, with 2,661 in SPP and 2,649 in EP. Interestingly enough, the high indices of occurrence registered in the press enable the formation of clearly identifiable clusters in the corpus involving other crimes, namely “bribery and corruption” (41 occurrences), “fraud and corruption” (19 occurrences), and “corruption and money laundering” (10 occurrences). A key finding from SPP portrays most adequately reality in Spain: the overwhelming co-occurrence of this term with the adjective *urbanística* (144 times). As could be expected, this combination does not find a parallel in EP.

This term is also rather frequent in English judicial decisions, featuring 318 occurrences in EL. The term is least usual in the Spanish jurisprudence, with only 67 counts. Again, our first and second hypotheses were thwarted by real data.

### **Embezzlement/Malversación**

According to TI, “embezzlement” occurs when a person holding office in an institution, organization or company dishonestly and illegally appropriates uses or traffics the funds and goods they have been entrusted with for personal enrichment or other activities. The Spanish equivalent is *malversación*, which has *desfalco* and not *peculio* (as it is suggested by the TI Glossary), as its synonym. Embezzlement is a crime according to the Spanish Penal Code, –which explains its frequency in SPL, with 133 occurrences– but was abolished as a crime in England as far as 1968 and now comes under the category of theft, differing from this one in that it is not an unlawful possession, but a lawful one, which is later subject to misappropriation. Even if the UNCAC recognizes it as a criminal offence, this void in the English law would also explain the reason why it is used in a lesser way in EL (7 counts). The term is very popular in the news, according to the results for EP (304 counts) and SPP (371 counts). These results confirm the first of our hypotheses and trump the second.

### **Extortion/ Exacción ilegal**

“Extortion” is defined by TI as ‘the act of utilizing, either directly or indirectly, one’s access to a position of power or knowledge to demand unmerited cooperation or compensation as a result of coercive threats.’ There is an equivalent given by TI in Spanish, *extorsión* has *exacción ilegal* as an adept equivalent. In fact, even if there is a crime named *extorsión* in Spanish, this is typified as a crime under section 243 of the Spanish Penal Code, and bears no necessary connection to corruption, in contrast with *exacción ilegal* (illegal levying), which is a crime against the public administration and a standardized corrupt conduct. Nevertheless, the usage of *extorsión* in SPL links the term with all the other crimes against the public administration (*cohecho*, *prevaricación* and *tráfico de influencias*), with which *extorsión* normally collocates. On the other hand, the Oxford Law Dictionary describes “extortion” as a criminal offence which appears to be seldom connected to the realm of corruption, making 4 appearances in EL, in contrast to the 60 occurrences registered in SPL, which would confirm our first hypothesis. Our second hypothesis is trumped again with the results for the press corpora, where 509 occurrences were obtained in EP, in contrast with only 34 appearances of the term in SPP. Again, the news in Spanish normally links the term with *cohecho*, *fraude* and *prevaricación*, as proverbial corrupt conducts. In contrast, the English press connects extortion with a wider array of crimes such as “bribery”, but also “conspiracy”, “racketeering” and “tax evasion”, among others.

### **Fraud/Fraude**

“Fraud” is a widely used word, commonly deployed to describe many forms of trickery and unethical behaviour, used to give a wide berth to judicial construction to punish certain dishonest conducts. Under Common Law, fraud may be a crime or a civil wrong, and three elements are required to prove it: a material false statement made with intent to deceive, a victim’s reliance on the statement, and damages.<sup>vi</sup> The translation into Spanish, as given by Transparency International, is *fraude*. Such translation is inexact, since “fraud” may be civil or criminal in English, while it is only criminal in Spanish. As it happens with “corruption”, there is no single definition of *corrupción* in the Spanish legal system for *fraude*, which is also called *defraudación* or *estafa*<sup>vii</sup>. *Fraude*, when applied to public officials, is described in article 436 of the SPC, and involves one person (or group of persons) deceiving another person in order to gain some financial or other advantage.

In our corpus fraud appears as a prominent word, especially in the press with 1,835 counts in EP, 369 in SPP, but also in judicial decisions, with 338 in EL and 181 in SPL. Again, our expectations of finding fewer results in the English corpora have been thwarted by real data, since both English corpora show more co-occurrences of the word, combined either in pairs (“fraud and corruption”, “fraud and bribery”, “fraud and perjury”, etc) in EL or modified by qualifiers in EP (“credit card fraud”, “stockbroking fraud”, “dole fraud”, etc). The Spanish corpora are also abundant in this term, coupling it with other crimes in the press (*cohecho*, *prevaricación* y *fraude*) or modifying it as *delito de fraude*.

<sup>vi</sup> Law Lessons from D’Agostino v. Maldonado, Chan. Div., BER-C-84-09, Koblitz, P.J. Ch., June 30, 2010

<sup>vii</sup> <http://despachoabogados.fullblog.com.ar/indice-codigo-penal-espanol-2011-actualizado.html>



### **Money laundering/Blanqueo de capitales**

“Money laundering” is defined as ‘concealing the source of illegally gotten money’ and as ‘the process of concealing the origin, ownership or destination of illegally or dishonestly obtained money by hiding it within legitimate economic activities’ by TI. It is translated as *lavado de capitales* by the TI glossary, but its usual translation in European Spanish is *blanqueo*, not *lavado*. The SPC categorizes *blanqueo de capitales* as a crime against property and the socioeconomic order, the UNCAC recognizes it as a criminal offence and the English law typifies it under Proceeds of Crime Act 2002.

“Money laundering” appears most frequently in EP, with 322 counts, close to the 281 results in SPP. In the legal area, however, it is the Spanish jurisprudence which mentions it the most as the SPL 138 results show, compared to the 59 in EL. Our first hypothesis is, then, confirmed, while the second is, once more, outplayed with the frequency with which the term is used in the English press.

### **Nepotism/Nepotismo**

TI defines “nepotism” as a form of favouritism based on acquaintances and familiar relationships whereby someone in an official position exploits his or her power and authority to provide a job or favour to a family member or friend, even though he or she may not be qualified or deserving. The fact that “nepotism”, or *nepotismo*, *per se* has not been categorized as a crime is shown in the fact that it appears nowhere in SPL, very scarcely in EL (3 occurrences), and again relatively abundantly in EP (161 occurrences). This fact, and the co-occurrences that it has in the corpus, point at “nepotism” being a corrupt conduct that is not typified by the Spanish law and that is regarded in the English legal corpus as a conduct or attitude, on a par with favouritism. Its absence in SPL, its scarcity in SPP (6 counts) and its popularity in the English press thwart our first and second hypotheses.

### **Trading in influence/Tráfico de influencias**

Trading in influence has no official TI definition, but it has been spotted by this organization as being one of the potential corruption areas in the UK. It refers to a person selling their influence over the decision-making process to benefit a third party (person or institution) and, according to article 18 of UNCAC, it constitutes a criminal offence when committed intentionally, the difference with “bribery” being that this is a tri-lateral relation. In Spain it is a crime against the public administration and directly connected to corrupt conducts.

Despite the importance that TI confers to the issue in the UK, our study showed no results in any of the English corpora as such, which prompted us to search for an equivalent term, “influence peddling”, of which we found two occurrences in EL and 14 in EP. In contrast, the Spanish one offered 57 in SPL and 300 in SPP, confirming our two hypotheses.

## **5 Conclusions**

Corruption is a worrying problem in Europe, and the results of our probing into a representative sample of two of its languages, in the legal and in the media areas, seems to confirm this statement. Still, the law is slower to catch up with social phenomena at large, and corrupt conducts are not an exception. Indeed, it is the press which constitutes the conscience of society, in its awareness and deployment of corruption crimes and conducts. This is especially so in two general umbrella terms very common in the area, such as “corruption” and “fraud”, and their Spanish equivalents *corrupción* and *fraude*. These pairs encompass all



the other terms in the lexical field analyzed here, and are especially habitual in the press corpora, in accordance to our assertion above.

As far as our hypotheses are concerned, the first one seems to be confirmed, since the use of terms in the law to describe corrupt conduct is higher in frequency in the Spanish legal corpus than in the English one. This is especially true of the classical corruption crimes typified by the Penal Code, *cohecho*, *malversación*, *blanqueo*, *tráfico de influencias* and *prevaricación*, all of which show many more occurrences than their equivalents in the English corpus, namely “bribery”, “embezzlement”, “money laundering”, “trading in influence” and “breach of duty”. Nonetheless, some of these English versions (mainly “bribery”, “embezzlement” and “money laundering”) make a more consequential appearance in the corpus of the press, partly confirming our second hypothesis (that the press echoes the way in which the law names corrupt conducts) and partly defeating it, since we assumed that this would be the case in the Spanish corpus. In fact, it is the opposite: the English press seems much more aware than the law is of the state of affairs concerning corruption, and mainly so in the case of that behaviour which finds no typification in either the English law or the Spanish one, namely “collusion”, “extortion” and “nepotism”. These are, nonetheless, treated by the English media as standard corruption activities. Since they have not been typified, and in tune with the Spanish love for hard-and-fast, branded rules, the equivalents in the corpora for these terms in Spanish, *colusión*, *extorsión* and *nepotismo*, find no noticeable appearances in either the legal sample or the press one.

Certainly, when compared to the results for the Spanish legal discourse, English law seems to have limited coverage of criminal terminology regarding corruption. As suggested above, the reason for the relative absence of corruption names in the latter may lie on the empirical nature of Common Law, as compared to the Continental, indeed Spanish, anxiety for codification and nominalization of conduct. Contrarily, some of these terms, absent in the English case law, make an important appearance in the English media. This could be mainly due to the higher textual density of news-items, as compared to that of judicial decisions. Nevertheless, it has been surprising to see how the English press seems to raise its voice against corruption much more than the Spanish one, suggesting the idea that a very codified society is not necessarily a less corrupt one, but a less corrupt society is a well-informed one.

To our knowledge, no studies but ours have been endeavoured to analyse the vocabulary of corruption in English and Spanish. All things considered, we hope that this research, far from having the last word on these issues, will serve as the inception of –much needed– future studies on the intricacies of corruption crimes and their related terminology.

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# Terminological Recognition in French for Specific Purposes

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## Abstract

Recognition of terminology is an essential cognitive activity for learners of languages for specific purposes and presents particular difficulties compared to general lexical recognition. This study attempts to identify and prioritize the main lexical difficulties that learners encounter in specialized texts. The effects of lexical fuzziness in recognizing specialized vocabulary are also analyzed. Two experiments were performed with 17 graduate students enrolled in a Spanish university's foreign language business master's program, specifically in the course titled French for Specific Purposes. These experiments were administered using two different methodologies – microsequences of learning and controlled definitions – that facilitate terminological recognition and conceptual precision; however, controlled definitions were not addressed in the present study. The results of this study provide an initial approximation of a typology of the difficulties involved in terminological recognition and of strategies used by learners to execute this lexical discrimination activity.

## 1 Introduction

The last two decades have been particularly productive in the study of lexical acquisition of second languages (L2) and second language teaching, as Laufer (2009:341-342) has reported. The publication of the well-known article by Meara (1980), in which he highlighted the existing lack of interest in the teaching of vocabulary in L2, attracted renewed attention to these issues. The acquisition and knowledge of specialized vocabulary has been a relatively marginal issue in second language acquisition research, and even less attention has been paid



to the teaching of technical vocabulary (Chung & Nation, 2003: 103). Nevertheless, research into technical vocabulary teaching has gradually increased over recent years, particularly in the area of languages for specific purposes (Nation & Kyongo, 1995; Chun & Plass, 1996; Laufer & Hill, 2000; Nation, 2001; Coxhead & Nation, 2001; Horst, 2005; Chung & Nation, 2004; Mehrpour & Rahimi, 2010; Lessard-Clouston, 2010, Kwary, 2011). Whereas in the 1960s and 1970s, vocabulary was considered irrelevant to linguistic knowledge, currently, lexical aspects are regarded as part of the curricular content to be provided by the teacher (Nation, 2001: 203-204). Thematically specialized texts contain a large number of terms, an element that should therefore not be ignored in the teaching of a language.

The instruction of specialized lexical content in languages for specific purposes (LSP) has mainly focused on three elements (Piñeiro & Matesanz, 2012): (i) the identification and teaching of technical lexical units in a text, (ii) the determination of percentages of terms in a specialized text, and (iii) the number of terms that students should know. The most productive area of study is undoubtedly the first because there are myriad papers in various languages dealing with specialized vocabulary in widely varying fields of study. Although their focus is the teaching of a language, the majority of these studies are conducted from a primarily lexicological perspective, centered on the description and analysis of vocabulary. The language student's perspective has not been sufficiently considered when analyzing lexical acquisition processes. Except in the case of methodological developments aimed at the classroom, the student's view of the lexical component has been absent. The classification formulated by Nation (2001:11-21) of vocabulary that can be found in a text (high-frequency words, academic words, technical units, and low-frequency words) corresponds to a lexicological view of discourse. However, this four-fold classification, which is quite useful for language teachers, is hardly relevant to the student who, obviously, does not perceive vocabulary in this manner.

Students of languages for specific purposes are more aware than other learners of the importance of knowing vocabulary in the specialized subjects addressed in L2 and of the need to identify the units that make up the target domain's terminological repertory. Nevertheless, the lexical recognition process is not always evident (Jiang, 2000, 2002, 2004), and learners frequently encounter some difficulty in identifying the specific terminology in a field (Piñeiro & Matesanz, 2012).

### **1.1 The problem of terminological recognition in specialized discourse**

One aspect of lexical acquisition not dealt with from a semantic perspective is terminological recognition, understood here as a specific aspect of lexical recognition in specialized discourse. The term *terminological recognition*, as opposed to *terminology recognition*, is used here as synonymous with *lexical recognition* to avoid confusion with the denomination of automatic terminological recognition systems.

Studies in the area of terminological recognition are somewhat limited because the emphasis has been on formal identification of lexical units and not on comparing those units with other words to establish basic classifications of the vocabulary of a language.

The first problem that learners encounter in L2 is establishing an initial form-meaning link, one of the priorities of lexical activities (Saigh & Schmitt, 2012: 24). Lexical recognition, both in the native language and in a second language (or in both in convergence), is a broad research field, including the identification of lexical units in both oral and written discourse (Lemhöfer et al., 2008). The approaches to lexical recognition in second languages are quite diverse and include the study of the influence on word recognition of words with different orthographical systems (alphabetic L2 for learners from non-alphabetic L1 as in Koda, 1996; Wang & Koda, 2003; Hayes-Harb, 2006; Wang, Koda & Perfetti, 2007; Akamatsu, 1999; Muljani & Koda, 1998; Toyoda & Scrimgeour, 2009); recognition of cognates (Moss, 1992; Meara, 1993; Cunningham & Graham, 2000; Sunderman & Schwartz, 2008; Dressler, et al., 2011; Peeters, Dijkstra & Grainger, 2013); or the influence of affectivity on lexical recognition in L2 (Segalowitz et al. 2008), a less frequently addressed question.

Lexical recognition undoubtedly has a specific function in the acquisition of specialized language by facilitating the identification of technical vocabulary and differentiating technical vocabulary from general vocabulary. The fact that one of the characteristics of specialized discourse is the use of technical vocabulary indicates that this element is particularly significant in the teaching of specialty languages. As noted by Vidal and Cabré (2007: 188), knowledge of technical vocabulary expedites the acquisition of concepts in the target subject matter and the transfer of concepts to specialized production. Thus, lexical discrimination between general and technical vocabulary is the first step in an optimal acquisition process.

## **1.2 Research questions**

A review of the current research related to lexical recognition in L2 discourse led the authors of the present study to pose various questions relating to the problems that learners encounter in the process of identifying lexical units. These research questions sought to discover and analyze the terminological recognition challenges that learners encounter in specialized texts.

The questions were as follows:

1. What are the difficulties that learners encounter in correctly discriminating between general and specialized vocabulary?
2. Is it possible to establish a typology of difficulties in terminological recognition?
3. How does fuzziness in specialized vocabulary affect recognition?
4. To what extent does the level of competence in the French language influence terminological recognition?

## **2 Material and Methods**

### **2.1 Participants**

To provide answers to the questions posed, two experiments were performed with a group of 17 students in the French IV course of the Official Master's Program in Foreign Language and Culture for International Business (120 European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System [ECTS] credits, 4 semesters) at the Rey Juan Carlos University in Madrid. The participants, all near the end of their university studies, were between the ages of 22 and 30, with an average age of 24.8. The distribution of participants by sex was completely unbalanced: 16 of the 17 students were women. The group had similar academic backgrounds before their enrollment in the current Master's program. None of the students had specialized in business or in other related fields, such as economics or business management.



Regarding the participants' linguistic knowledge, the group was completely multilingual. In addition to their native language, all students knew at least four foreign languages with varying degrees of competence. However, English was the L2 of all participating students; students averaged 14.3 years of formal instruction. French was the L3 for ten students and the L4, L5 or L6 for six participants. Only one student's native language was French, a fact that is specifically observed in Experiment 2. Students for whom French was L4, L5 or L6 were defined as a homogenous group labeled "Ln" because instruction in this language varied between two and four years, which was less than the 5.8 average years in the case of L3 French. Moreover, no relevant differences were observed between L4, L5, L6 and L7 for the purposes of this study in which no other skills were evaluated except those targeted by the analysis. Ln refers to a linear order of language acquisition subsequent to the reference position as long as there was homogeneity in one or more aspects of the resulting group. Hence, we did not adhere to the recent proposal of Hammarberg (2010), who questioned the linear order of acquisition and proposed using the designations of primary language, secondary language, and tertiary language, which, in the case of this study, would correspond to French. In the present study, tertiary language would designate five languages (French, German, Italian, Korean and Japanese). However, this classification would imply a uniformity in the knowledge of French that is non-existent in this case. The designation of tertiary language in our case would prevent differentiating French L3 from Ln, which is, *a priori*, relevant to Experiment 1.

## **2.2 Design**

This study was based on two experiments, both of which were focused on the recognition and acquisition of specialized vocabulary and performed by the students of French as a Foreign Language. Although the experiments were complementary and implemented during the same time frame, the methodologies were different. Experiment 1 was designed as an individual activity, whereas Experiment 2 involved collaboration for which the students were divided into small groups.

## **2.3 Experiment 1**

The first experiment was conducted using **microsequences of the consolidation of learning** (Matesanz, de Miguel & López Alonso, 2011), initially designed to improve retention and consolidation of knowledge generated in the classroom, although not specifically lexical knowledge. Learning microsequences are brief pedagogical sequences focused on the review and identification of the most relevant curricular content in an academic session to facilitate retention and generate learning progress (Matesanz, de Miguel & López Alonso, 2011: 455). Supported by three basic core ideas – recapitulation, reflection and synthesis – this methodology occurs in a brief time frame, which in addition to the didactic utility of microsequences, promotes discrimination between what is pertinent and what is secondary. This characteristic renders microsequence methodology compatible with activities focused on other targets, such as vocabulary acquisition.

### **2.3.1 Procedure**

For the present study, the design of the microsequences was adapted to obtain data on the recognition and retention of specialized terminology used in business French. The study was based on 7 business texts in French, the terminological specificity of which preferentially



corresponded to Categories 2 and 3 of the technical vocabulary classification created by Nation (2001: 198-201).

The basic protocol for learning microsequences was followed in that they were always conducted toward the end of a class session, i.e., in the last 10 minutes of class. The use of microsequences for lexical purposes requires a precise didactic organization of the class, which can be summarized in the following points: (i) a specialized text regarding one of the unit topics of the syllabus is presented in class and read as a group; (ii) after the reading, the teacher offers to solve any comprehension problems, dealing with all difficulties in the same manner without distinguishing between general and specialized vocabulary; (iii) a specific concept of the text is addressed that generally leads to the introduction of new words; (iv) at the end of class, each student individually rereads the text and their personal notes; (v) once the reading is reviewed, the student is asked to select three terms that he or she considers to be specifically related to the current syllabus module (Lawson & Hogben 1998); (vi) the student proposes a brief definition in French for each one of the terms selected without resorting to synonymia; (vii) once the activity is finished, students, without consulting the text again, are requested to send the file of work performed in class to the virtual campus. Optimally the file should be sent directly from the classroom to the instructor. This is not always possible when a digital classroom is not available as was the case in the experiment described here. Therefore, the deadline for handing in the files on the platform was only a few hours, and students received explicit instructions not to consult dictionaries or reread the text. Although this is a component of the study that we were unable to fully control, we do believe that the error index in the assignments, in both lexical selection and conceptual precision, reveals that there was little *a posteriori* correction. This experiment was regularly ongoing for four months.

### **2.3.2 Analysis of the data**

The data analyzed in this study are only those related to lexical recognition, not to terminological accuracy or grammatical correctness. Therefore, data extracted from the definitions were not used because one of the instructions given to the students was to focus on the precision and succinctness of the content. At no time were the students expected to create real terminological definitions because to do so, they would have needed specific skills that were not included in the course objectives. The microsequences were presented at all times as a terminological, not a terminographic, activity.

The first data analyzed were the degree of success or error in lexical recognition. The criteria used when considering a lexical unit as successful or erroneous, in both this experiment and Experiment 2, were based on the terms selected by the students having at least one specific meaning in business French. All terms selected were checked in various dictionaries and terminological glossaries and, in the most questionable cases, with terminological databases. Some of the online lexicographical repertoires and terminological data bases used were *Le grand dictionnaire terminologique* (GDT), *Multilingual Thesaurus of the European Union*, *InterActive Terminology for Europe* (IATE), *IMF Terminology*, and *A Multilingual Directory*.

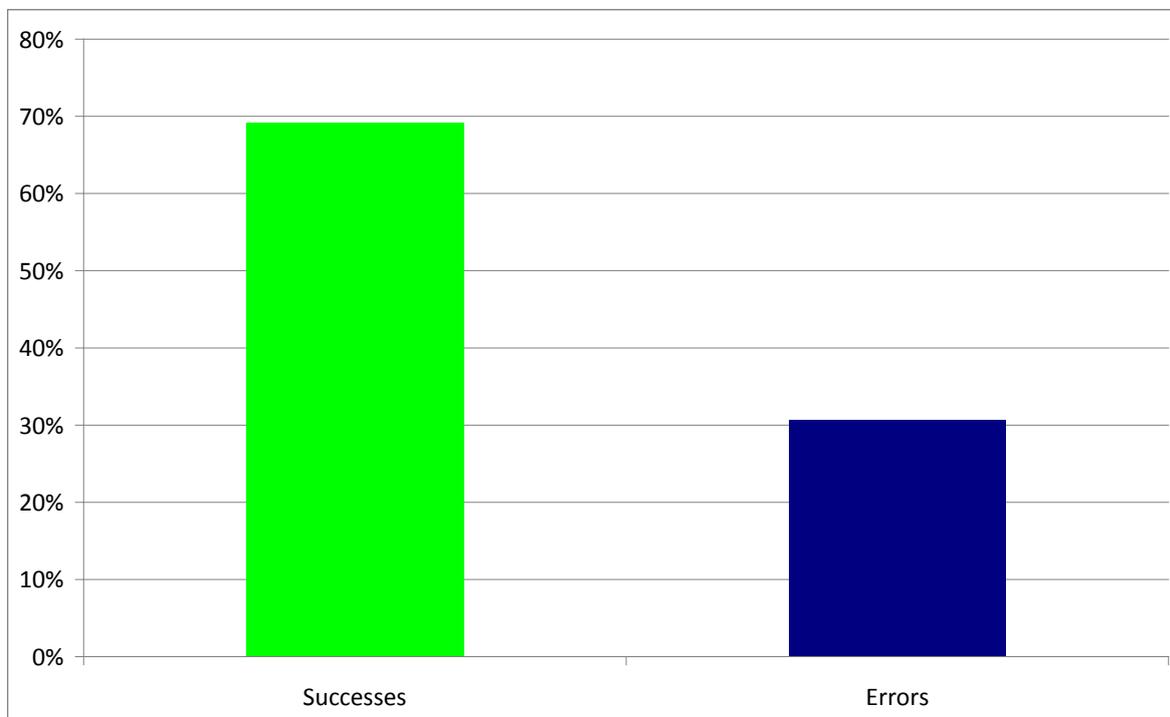
In Experiment 1, students identified 270 lexical units as specialized vocabulary, although only 187 (69.3% of the total) were considered valid according to the established criteria.



Example	Student = (S)	Success	Errors
(i)	S17		amadouer
(ii)	S1		bâtiment
(iii)	S16	commerce	
(iv)	S6	distribution	
(v)	S11	entreprise	
(vi)	S3		horlogerie
(vii)	S14	marché du travail	
(viii)	S9	marketing	
(ix)	S16	négociation	
(x)	S14	recrutement	

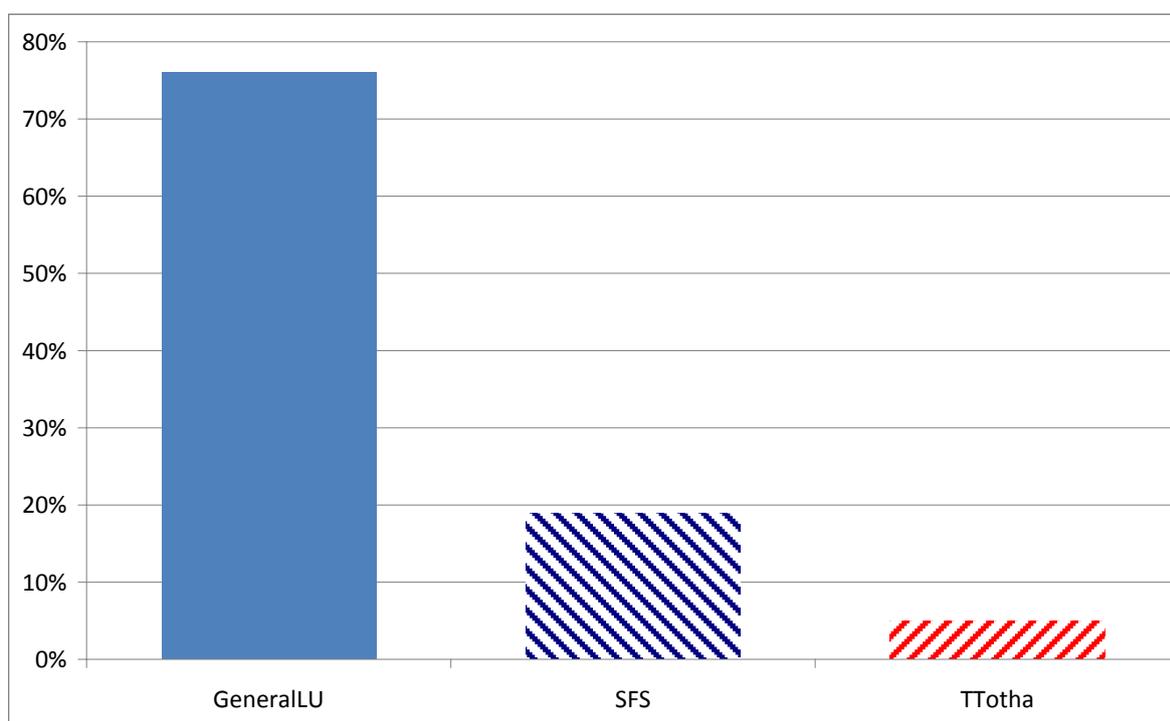
**Table 1.** Some examples of success and errors in Experiment 1.

Eighty-three units that did not fit the criteria were discarded. It should be noted that some units are repeated because all of the students worked simultaneously from the same text.



**Figure 1.** Proportion of successes and errors in Experiment 1

The analysis of lexical selection of invalid units led to the formulation of an initial classification of the errors (general classification of errors) into three different groups: (i) non-specialist lexical units (general LU), (ii) syntagm-free syntax (SFS), and (iii) technical terms pertaining to other areas (TTotha). The most frequent error detected was erroneous identification of unknown vocabulary. The students tended to consider unknown units as specialized units. The second error observed, much less frequently, occurred in discourse segmentation when students considered syntagm-free syntax as isolated terms. The third problem was the incorrect analysis of the fields of study to which the terms pertained. This error is not so much a discrimination error as it is an error of conceptual precision because students recognized the words as technical terms but made identification errors because of a lack of knowledge of the exact meaning. In general, these last cases are rare, and the terms involved belong to thematically related subject matter.



**Figure 2.** Proportion of non-valid lexical units according to the general classification of errors

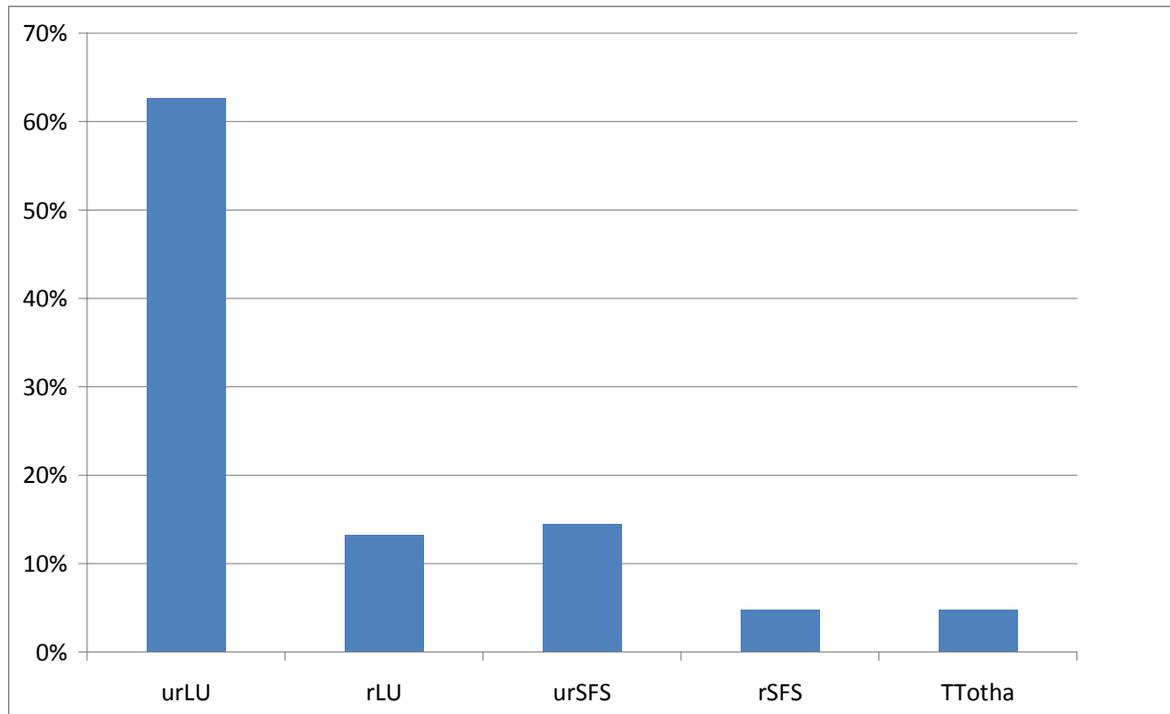
The application of this initial classification can be observed in the following, which includes a selection of 25 examples:

Example	Student = (S)	Recognition Errors	Classification
(1)	S17	<i>amadouer</i>	General LU
(2)	S8	<i>augmentation</i>	General LU
(3)	S6	<i>bac</i>	General LU
(4)	S1	<i>bâtiment</i>	General LU
(5)	S5	<i>bienfait</i>	General LU

(7)	S5	<i>croissance</i>	General LU
(8)	S12	<i>denrés de Iere nécessité</i>	SFS
(9)	S3	<i>être au chômage (sont au chômage in the text)</i>	SFS
(10)	S1	<i>formation</i>	General LU
(11)	S8	<i>gratification mensuelle</i>	SFS
(12)	S3	<i>horlogerie</i>	SFS
(13)	S13	<i>jeune chômeur</i>	SFS
(14)	S3	<i>*rejoigne (rejoignez in the text)</i>	General LU
(15)	S17	<i>rejoindre</i>	SFS
(16)	S16	<i>réseau</i>	General LU
(17)	S17	<i>résilier</i>	Totha
(18)	S16	<i>secteur d'activité</i>	Totha
(19)	S14	<i>siège</i>	General LU
(20)	S17	<i>statistique</i>	TTTotha
(21)	S11	<i>taux de chômage</i>	SFS
(22)	S8	<i>taxe de chômage</i>	SFS
(23)	S10	<i>télécommunication</i>	Totha
(24)	S9	<i>terrain</i>	General LU
(25)	S15	<i>offrir quelque chose d'office</i>	SFS

**Table 2.** Examples of errors in Experiment 1.

After a detailed analysis of the students' erroneous choices when asked to make a lexical differentiation, the above typology of errors was more precisely defined. In the new, more detailed classification, an internal distinction between groups (1) and (2) was established to expand the initial classification from three to five error types as follows: (i) non-specialist and unrelated lexical units (urLU), (ii) related lexical units (rLU), (iii) unrelated syntagm-free syntax (urSFS), (iv) related syntagm-free syntax (rSFS), and (v) technical terms pertaining to other areas (TTTotha), group (3) in the former classification.



**Figure 3.** Proportion of non-valid lexical units in Experiment 1 according to the detailed error classification

This distinction is of interest in determining the origin of some errors in terminological discrimination. Several of the examples from group (i), the largest group, indicate that one of the most frequent errors is identifying unknown vocabulary as specialized without there being any semantic relation to the specialty field, as in examples (1) and (12). Moreover, it should be noted that *amadouer* and *horlogerie* are not frequently used in French and were predictably unknown to the students who selected them. Examples such as these suggest that learners may assume that they are ignorant of the words because the words belong to field-specific terminology, in this case, business French. Perhaps the most obvious cases of the examples chosen were (14) and (9) of S3. The form *\*rejoignez* in example (14) was identified as a specialized term by S3, who failed to associate the word with the infinitive form *rejoindre* as did S17 (example 15). One may assume that this error is not a matter of lack of knowledge of the infinitive but rather the student attempting to reproduce the literal form found in the text (<http://www.travailler-en-suisse.ch/taux-de-chomage-en-suisse-38-en-decembre-2010.html>). However, the same student proposed the syntagm *être au chômage* with the verb in infinitive form as if it were a verbal phrase although it appears in the conjugated form *sont au chômage* twice in the text. The student in example (9) went through the morphological process of association of a word form with a word expression, in the terminology of Lyons (1977). In this case, the learner associated a conjugated verb with its infinitive because he/she recognized that it was a verb form. However, the same learner failed to make this recognition in example (14).

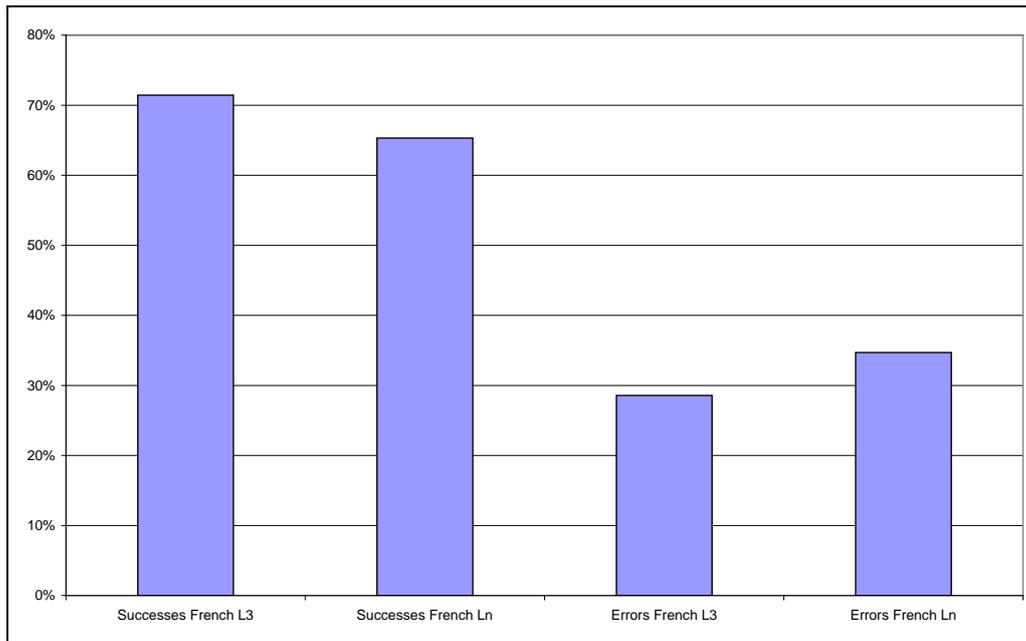
Group (ii) (rLU) presents an error type related to lexical lack of knowledge, but, as opposed to the former example, these words do appear frequently in the business field although they are not specific to this context. This fact facilitates the configuration of isotopies (Rastier, 1987), which aid in the comprehension of text. Examples (2) and (16) are words that form components of isotopic networks in the text in which they appear and that the learner relies on to understand the meaning of the text.

Groups (iii) and (iv) reflect one of the problems learners have with discourse segmentation: the identification of syntagm-free syntax as terminological compounds. Group (iii) (urSFS) includes syntagms unrelated to the thematic field, although the segmentations are not random, as observed in examples (8) and (25), i.e., they always constitute correct syntagms in free syntax. Group (iv) (rSFS) is larger than Group (iii) and is composed of collocations. As in example (21), the rSFS group consists of collocations as opposed to syntagms, which are terminological compounds, such as examples (27), (29), and (30).

Example Number	Student=(S)	<b>Recognition Successes</b>
(27)	S1	<i>chef de produit</i>
(28)	S1	<i>versement</i>
(29)	S3	<i>argent liquide</i>
(30)	S4	<i>marché du travail</i>
(31)	S4	<i>transaction</i>
(32)	S5	<i>virement</i>
(33)	S9	<i>emprunt</i>
(34)	S13	<i>prélèvement</i>
(35)	S14	<i>recrutement</i>

**Table 3.** Examples of successes in Experiment 1.

Terms belonging to other thematic fields (v), a small group, generally pertain to related fields, such as example (20) from economics. The morphosyntactic typology of this group is varied so that there are one-word and multi-word (compound) terms and syntagms in free syntax (collocations). However, because the group comprises only a few units, we considered that this diversity was not sufficiently relevant to subdivide the group. Because the grammatical form is less important than the semantic content, creating sub-groups here was not considered appropriate. Data were also obtained on successes and errors correlated with the level of students' French competence and acquisition of French L3/Ln. As expected, learners of French L3 had had more prolonged contact with the language and thus made fewer errors in the terminological recognition process than Ln learners. The group of L3 French learners showed a success percentage of 71% as opposed to 65% in the case of Ln French learners. This difference between the two groups is relatively small, only 6%.



**Figure 4.** Successes and errors in terminological recognition by L3/Ln French learners

Analysis of the microsequences allowed us to determine whether the student clearly differentiated between specialized and general vocabulary after having become familiar with the text in class. We were also able to determine the level of lexical comprehension achieved, particularly terminological precision. Additionally, although not a direct objective of this experiment, the microsequences facilitated an evaluation of the correctness of students' written expression in controlled sequences based on the term definitions.

## 2.4 Experiment 2

The second experiment was also designed to meet both cognitive and pedagogical objectives: (i) development of a lexical distinction between general and specialized vocabulary, (ii) development of operations involving conceptualization and lexical precision, (iii) practice in written expression and terminological definitions, and (iv) elaboration of a basic collaborative-cooperative glossary of specialized vocabulary.

### 2.4.1 Procedure

The participants in this experiment were the same as those in Experiment 1; however, this time, they worked in small groups rather than individually. Five small groups made up of three to five students each were randomly created. There was one native French speaker in one of the groups, which allowed us to determine to what extent a native speaker could positively influence lexicological recognition. Throughout the academic year, each group participated in three practice sessions, each integrated into the thematic content of the general course syllabus. The three sessions were conducted on the virtual campus using 15 texts from the field of business French that had an average degree of specificity but were different from those used in Experiment 1. The three exercises were identical in the number of phases and the time allowed for each one of the sub-phases into which they were divided. Each experience comprised three phases.

*Phase 1.* Phase 1 focused on discrimination between specialized and standard vocabulary. Each group received a different text on the topic of the particular exercise and, after reading



the text, was requested to present a list of lexical units (a minimum of five and a maximum of ten) adapted to one of the following criteria established for their selection: (i) units identified as specific business terms or (ii) general lexical units with at least one meaning specialized in the subject matter addressed. All of the units chosen were to be labeled as specialized language or general language according to the students' perception of the vocabulary. The teacher received the lists on the virtual campus and checked the degree of success of the selections. If the responses did not contain the minimum number of valid units, the students were asked to do a second reading and propose additional terms adapted to the established criteria.

*Phase 2.* In this phase, the groups were asked to define each one of the units in French according to their previous knowledge and based on what they had understood upon reading the text. They were not to use synonymia in the definitions, nor were they allowed to use outside supporting materials. In this phase, the students did not receive feedback on their work although the teacher corrected all of the definitions and evaluated both the degree of conceptual adaptation of the definitions and their grammatical correctness. Although the assignment involved definitions, lexicographical adequacy was not evaluated because the students had not received previous information on this type of linguistic experience, nor was this the objective of the activity. For example, units not corresponding to the usual lemmatizations in dictionaries, such as plural forms (*dettes* or *placements*), were not considered.

*Phase 3.* In this last phase, students worked autonomously on conceptual precision and written correctness, although these objectives were not made explicit. The instructions directed students to compare their definitions with those found in online dictionaries and glossaries; a controlled list of dictionaries and glossaries in French was made available. The restricted list of links was designed to avoid distorting the objective by allowing students to have access to unequal dictionaries that would be accessible online, leading to unreliable results. After consulting the dictionaries, students were asked to adjust their definitions if they deemed adjustment necessary. Again, they were not allowed to reproduce definitions from the resources consulted, which, in any case, were to be identified in their work. The third phase was conducted simultaneously in all three exercises, i.e., when phase 2 of the last exercise had concluded. The simultaneity of the third phase was because lexicographical consultation and revision always benefit by continuity. Once the definitions were compared, reviewed, and corrected, a glossary was created on the virtual campus that included all of the terms selected by the groups and their definitions; the glossary was then made accessible to all students enrolled in the course.

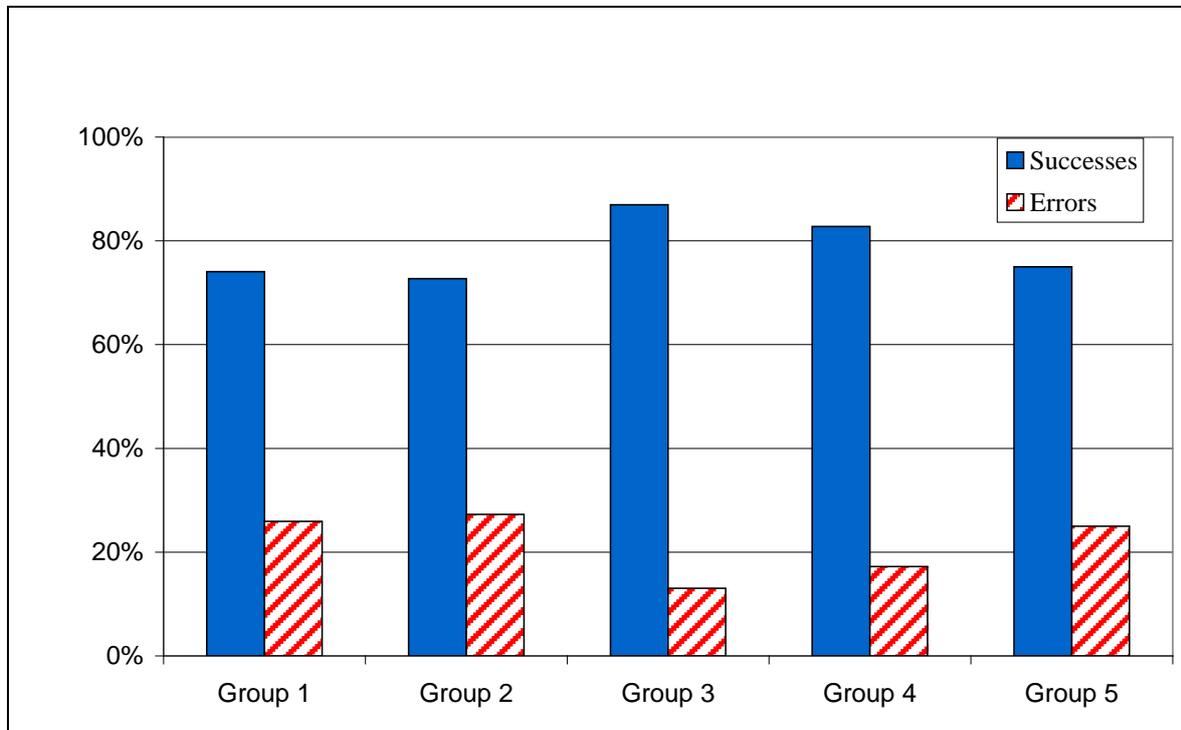
#### **2.4.2 Analysis of the data**

The terminological recognition activities conducted in this experiment produced new data on (i) the proportion of valid and erroneous terms in the students' lexical selection, (ii) the degree of success of each group, (iii) the students' perception of the specific language of the specialization, (iv) data on terminological precision, and (v) degree of grammatical correctness. The last two aspects are not addressed in the present study.

The first analysis presented seeks to determine if the group that included the native French speaker (Group 5) would achieve a greater number of successes in lexical selection. The result, shown in Figure 5, reveals that this factor did not influence the lexical recognition

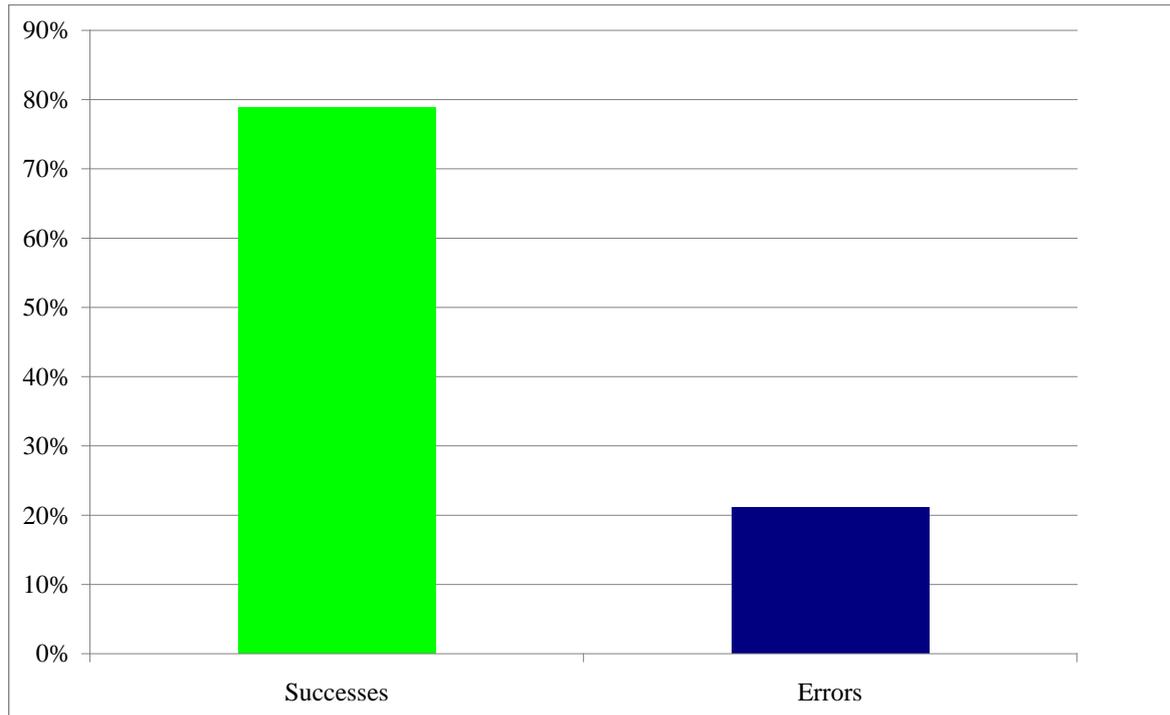
process of the group. The percentage of successes for Group 5 was 75%; for Group 1, 74.1%; for Group 2, 72.7%; for Group 3, 87%; and for Group 4, 82.8%.

The following figure shows the percentages of successes and errors for each group participating in the experiment.



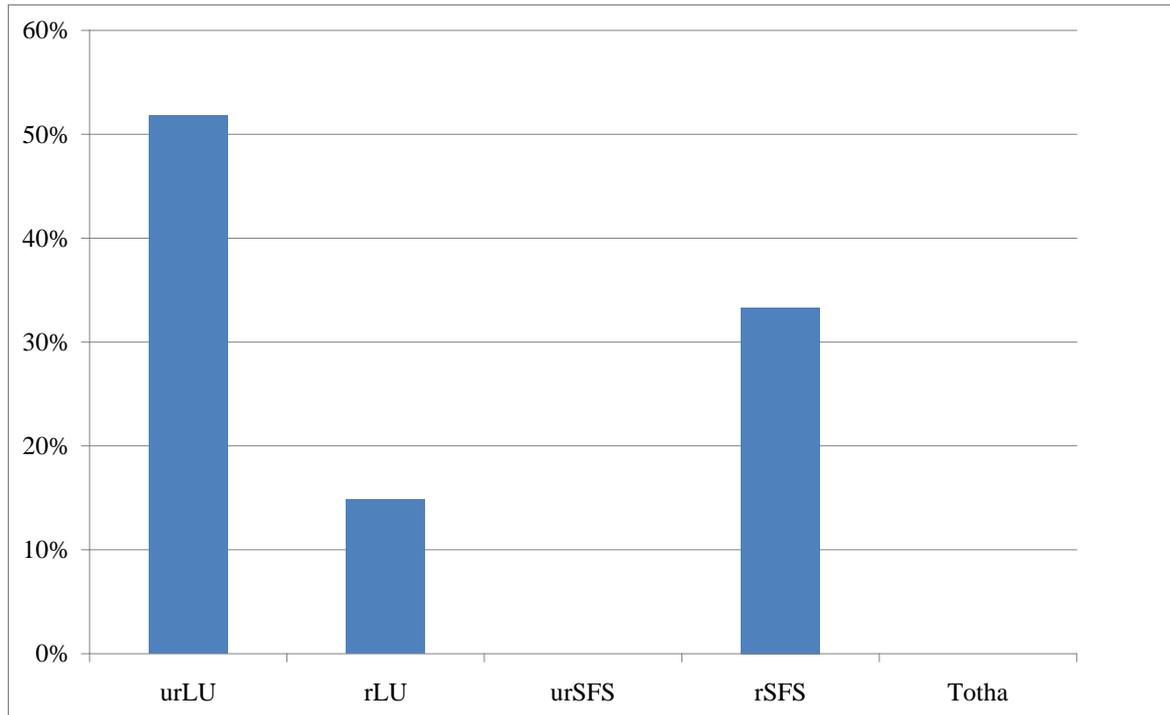
**Figure 5.** Proportions of successes/errors in Experiment 2 for each group of learners.

A total of 128 lexical units were selected by the groups from the texts proposed for Experiment 2, 101 of which were considered valid (78.9%) and 27 of which were erroneous (21.1%). The criteria used to consider a selection valid or erroneous are identical to those applied in Experiment 1, i.e., the units selected have at least one meaning specific to the field of business. As in the former experiment, all of the units chosen were compared to at least one terminological dictionary or glossary, and in the most questionable cases, the comparison was not only made with dictionaries but also with terminological databases.



**Figure 6.** Proportions of successes and errors in Experiment 2.

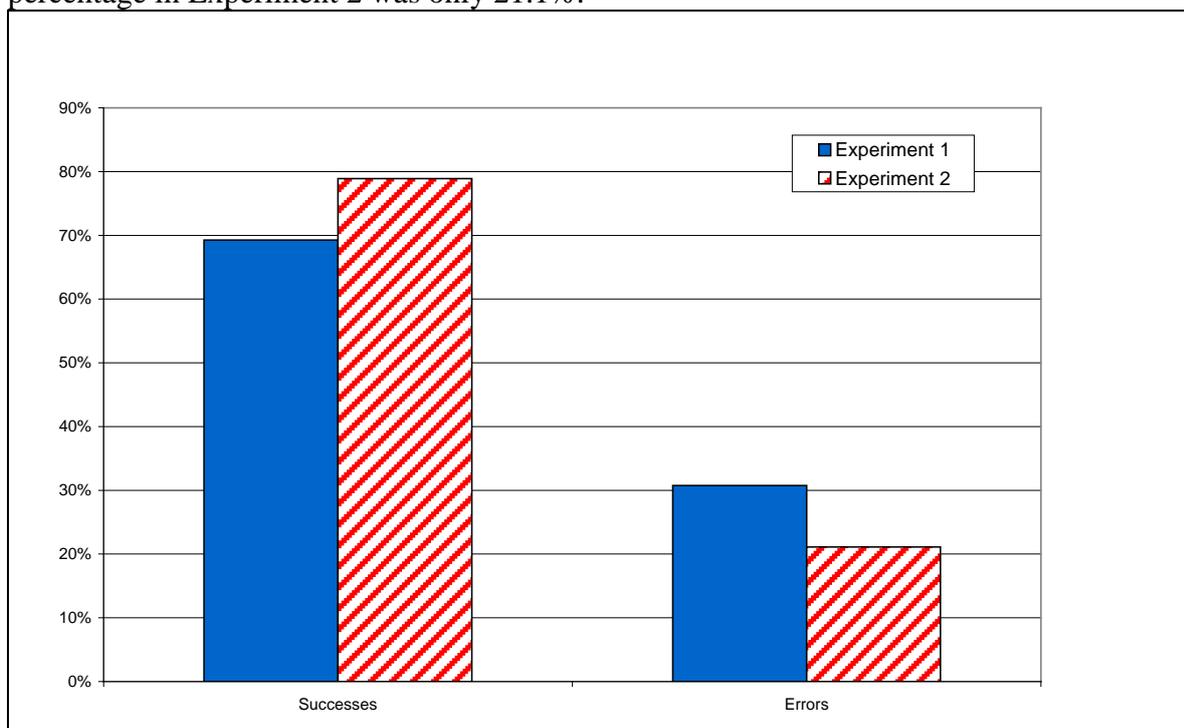
Learners' recognition errors were analyzed according to the detailed classification of the five groups established in Experiment 1. The results indicate that the students did not make discrimination errors in the analysis of syntagms in free syntax unrelated to the thematic area (Category iii). There was also no presence of terms belonging to other thematic areas (Category v). In Experiment 1, these two categories had the lowest percentage of errors (5% in both cases) whereas in Experiment 2, the students simply did not commit these errors. We consider that this fact is linked to methodological differences between the experiments, as will be discussed in the following section.



**Figure 7.** Proportion of non-valid lexical units in Experiment 2 according to the detailed classification of errors.

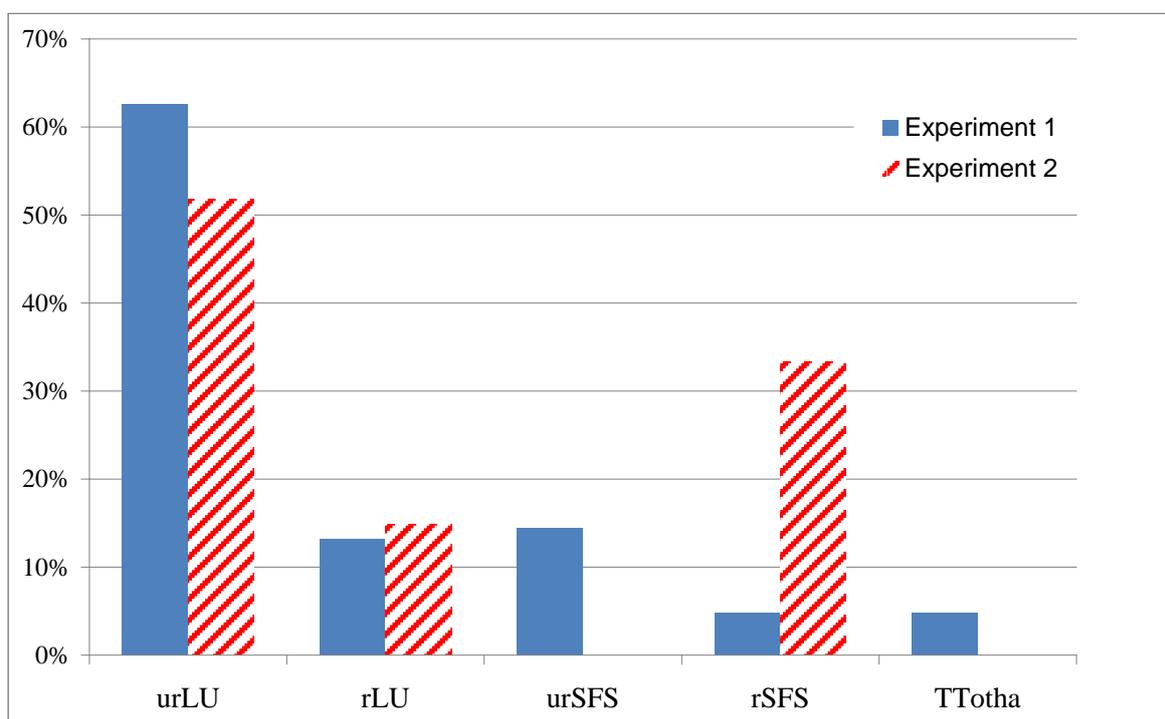
### 3 Discussion

Comparison of the success/error proportions in terminological recognition for Experiments 1 and 2 indicates that the number of errors committed in this cognitive activity was higher in Experiment 1, in which the erroneous lexical selection was 30.7%, whereas the error percentage in Experiment 2 was only 21.1%.



**Figure 8.** Comparison of success/error percentages in Experiments 1 and 2.

The variation in discrimination data can be attributed to the different manners in which lexical recognition was approached in Experiments 1 and 2 using different methodologies. Whereas the lexical microsequences of Experiment 1 were performed individually within a brief time frame at the end of an academic session, the terminological definition activity in Experiment 2 occurred in groups. Because there was no time limitation, it was possible for students to consult various sources of information during the activity. Additionally, asking students to make a value judgment on the specialized vocabulary (to label the units chosen as either specialized or general with at least one specialized meaning) reduced the margin of error.



**Figure 9.** Comparison of error classification percentages in Experiments 1 and 2.

When comparing the data obtained by classifying the errors in both experiments, a tendency to minimize the most deviant cases can be observed in Experiment 2, in which the number of lexical units and syntagms in free syntax unrelated to the business world was lower. However, erroneous cases of lexical selection of units and syntagms related to business were more frequent in Experiment 2. The difference in data relative to terms belonging exclusively to other thematic areas (TTotha) was not considered relevant because, as stated above, their presence is limited in specialized texts. These should not be taken as cases of terminological polysemia, which, of course, were considered successes, but rather as clearly recognizable terms pertaining to other related fields.

Difficulty in identifying specific terms is a result of prior lack of awareness of the nature of specialized and general vocabulary before analyzing specialized texts in depth. Only those terms used nearly exclusively in specialized contexts were easily detected. In these cases, the difference between the general lexical unit and the term is generally quite evident, among

other reasons because the degree of internationality of extremely technical terms is high. In this category, the use of Anglicisms in Romance languages such as French is quite common, as observed in example (40).

Example Number	Group= (G)	Recognition Successes
(36)	G1	<i>défiscalisation</i>
(37)	G2	<i>inflation</i>
(38)	G1	<i>investissement</i>
(39)	G1	<i>main-d'oeuvre</i>
(40)	G1	<i>marketing</i>
(41)	G5	<i>salaire brut</i>

**Table 4.** Examples of successes in Experiment 2.

When presented with the texts in the classroom, the students were not explicitly informed which were the specific terminological units of the subject matter because the point was for them to arrive at a comprehension of the difference between specialized and general vocabulary by deduction. This process of lexical discrimination can have a positive result when students successfully identify terminological units in the subject matter, as in the examples in Tables 1 and 2. However, the process can be negative when the expected recognition effect does not occur.

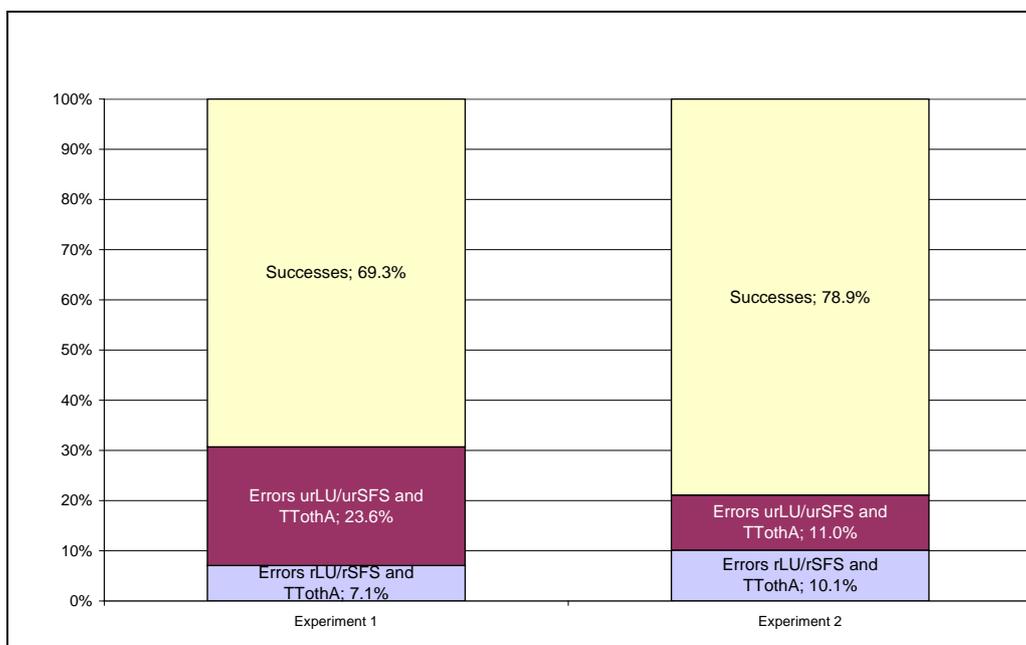
The four explanations of the terminological discrimination errors in order of more to less frequency are as follows: (i) incorrect categorization when confusing unknown vocabulary with specialized vocabulary, (ii) difficulty in determining whether a lexical unit of general vocabulary also has a specialized meaning in specific knowledge areas, (iii) problems with discourse segmentation in which syntagms in free syntax are identified as terminological compounds, and (iv) correct recognition of terms but erroneous attribution to the field they pertain to. The low frequency of these errors may also be caused by their scarce textual presence.

Case (i), which was certainly the most deviant, could be interpreted as an example of a broadly categorized cognitive style. The learner supposes that lexical segments unknown to him/her are new to him/her. Clearly, however, in other teaching situations, this type of categorical extension would not occur, at least not in this manner. Students would surely not identify unknown lexical units as specialized terms if a terminological discrimination had not been previously requested. The categorizations could vary: known/unknown vocabulary instead of general/specialized vocabulary; however, it is not known whether the elements in these categories would coincide and to what extent the groups would vary. There no data concerning this issue was obtained in either of the two experiments, although the authors are currently studying this aspect of terminological recognition.

In cases such as (ii) and (iv), the terminological discrimination errors show problems of fuzziness. In (iv), the problem is related to the degree of specificity of the lexical unit. Although the recognition of fairly specific Category 1 terminology, according to the classification formulated by Nation (2001:198), is relatively easy for the student, ascription of the terminology to its specific field is another matter. Ascription errors have two causes: a)

superficial knowledge of the specialized fields to which the term pertains and (b) the extension of isotopies as in Rastier (1987). On the one hand, terminological discrimination errors are frequent when learners do not have sufficient knowledge of at least one of the fields addressed. Those who participated in the experiments were not specialists in business or economics, which may explain the high percentage of errors. Conversely, learners make recognition errors because they identify words belonging to isotopic configurations, which help construct meaning in the text as specialized lexical units. Learners tend to consider that elements within an isotopic configuration are actually specialized lexical units even when that is not the case. Evidently, discursive comprehension of a specialized text in an initial phase of comprehension, such as that analyzed here, does not require complete terminological discrimination, nor does it require a high degree of conceptual precision. These two aspects of lexical acquisition, particularly conceptual precision, constitute linguistic activities that require a certain degree of specialization. The comprehension of specialized texts is facilitated by isotopic configurations made by students. This observation is not new, of course, in relation to reading comprehension in L2 (López Alonso & Séré, 2001). However, judging from the data obtained in the experiments presented here, we believe that isotopic configuration plays a key role in the comprehension of specialized texts. Nevertheless, the configuration of isotopies has the disadvantage of complicating terminological discrimination because of lexical fuzziness occurring in this type of text of average difficulty.

The proportion of rUL, rSFS and TTothA, although less than that of unrelated elements, is clearly present in students' lexical selections, particularly in Experiment 2. In Experiment 1, the proportion of related lexical elements (rLU, rSFS y TTothA) reaches 7.1% of the total units selected, which corresponds to 23% of the total errors. In Experiment 2, this lexical group increases considerably. Although this lexical group represents only 10.1% of the total units selected, it includes 48% of total errors.



**Figure 10.** Percentage of errors in semantically related/unrelated lexical elements of the total lexical selections



Problems of terminological fuzziness increase as the proportion of errors in related lexical units increases, but simultaneously, the global number of errors in terminological recognition decreases. Terminological fuzziness is directly related to lexical precision, and therefore, these problems decrease as conceptual margins are delimited.

#### **4 Conclusions**

The analysis of the data collected in both experiments allows us to answer the research questions posed at the beginning of this paper. Three main problems in the cognitive process of terminological recognition were observed. First, erroneous identification of unknown vocabulary as specialized vocabulary occurs when learners tend to believe that the units they are not familiar with must be specialized lexical units. Second, although less frequent, learners encounter difficulties in performing discursive segmentation, erroneously interpreting syntagms in free syntax as terminological compounds. The third problem is not so much one of discrimination as of semantic categorization. Students formally recognize the terms but not their true meaning, thus leading students to erroneously select them as specialized terms of a given subject matter when they actually belong to other thematic areas. The first case is caused by an overgeneralization of the potential identification problem: the learner tends to think that most unknown vocabulary must be part of the specific vocabulary of the discipline. The other two cases present issues related to lexical fuzziness.

These problems can be observed in examples from which a brief typology could be extracted for the classification of learner terminological recognition errors: (i) non-specialized and unrelated lexical units, (ii) non-specialized lexical units that are thematically related, (iii) syntagms in free syntax that are unrelated thematically, (iv) syntagms in free syntax that are related to the thematic area, and (v) terms from another field.

The question of fuzziness in specialized vocabulary, discussed above, complicates terminological recognition. The analysis of the data obtained leads us to identify two reasons why learners make errors in this cognitive process. On the one hand, the authors believe that inadequate familiarity with the discipline to which the terms belong produces conceptual fuzziness; hence, problems related to lexical recognition arise. Moreover, fuzziness has another aspect that does not originate in the word itself, but rather at the textual level. We believe that overgeneralization of the isotopies leads to the interpretation of an isotopic configuration as specialized terms even when they are not.

Finally, the study does not reveal a great difference in terminological recognition between French L3 and French Ln learners. This fact opens the possibility of new research to determine whether the levels of successes and errors in lexical recognition are similar to those occurring in other aspects, such as terminological precision and grammatical correctness, and what the intervening elements are.

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## **Stance and engagement: A corpus-based analysis of academic spoken discourse across science domains**

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**Keywords:** *corpus analysis, spoken discourse, disciplinary variations, stance and engagement keyword analysis*

### **Abstract**

Disciplinary norms or conventions could affect how a text is structured and what lexicogrammatical choices are preferable. However, relatively, discourse studies on academic spoken texts are still much underrepresented in the literature, in particular, examinations across various disciplines. Hence, the present study attempts to go some way towards filling this gap by analysing academic speech to investigate if variations exist between the soft and hard sciences with reference to Hyland's (2005) 'stance and engagement' interaction model in academic discourse. The results indicate that, unlike the distinct diversities in written discourse, the employment of hedges, boosters, self-mention and pronouns used to refer to speakers and audience are less diverse across disciplines in spoken discourse. However, with regard to word frequency and ranking, subtle differences in the use of these devices are still identified. It is believed that the various ways in which the different disciplines shape their arguments and construct their knowledge through discourse contribute to these subtle variations (Hyland & Bondi, 2006). Implications and suggestions for researching the markers to represent a speaker's stance and the audience's engagement in academic spoken discourse across disciplines as well as for teaching academic speech in ESP courses are also discussed.



## 1 Introduction

Research on written academic discourse has been extensive in the past few decades. A great number of studies have investigated it from a genre-based perspective (Bhatia, 2004). However, surprisingly, research on academic spoken discourse is relatively far less than that on written discourse, not to mention the fact that analysing academic speech across disciplinary variations is still rather underrepresented. Besides, academic speech is believed to be a more heterogeneous, contradictory and varied discourse, which could potentially reveal rather different phenomena from academic writing. Hence, a number of extensive databases of academic speech have been compiled to represent how academic socialisation takes place through the speech acts of graduates, academics and professionals. These include the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) and the British Academic Spoken English (BASE) corpus (Lindemann & Mauranen, 2001)

Academic spoken genres mainly encompass the speech in lectures, conference presentations, or seminars. Many studies on spoken discourse have adopted a genre-based approach, focusing on either the macro-level rhetorical structure (Aguilar, 2004; Allison & Tauroza, 1995; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Flowerdew, 1994; Young, 1994) or micro-level lexicogrammatical devices such as lexis or phrases (Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2008; Dunkel & Davis, 1994; Hansen, 1994; Lindemann & Mauranen, 2001; Thompson, 1994; Wulff, Swales & Keller, 2009). Very few have further explored the metadiscourse functions in academic speech such as the attitude, interaction or judgement of the participants (Flowerdew, 1992; Mauranen, 2002). What is more, little or no attention has been paid to the examination of either discourse or metadiscourse functions in academic speech and their comparison across disciplinary variations.

Thus, the present study aims to bridge this gap. To be specific, the following questions are investigated:

- (1) What are the keywords employed in academic speech across disciplines?
- (2) What are the words deployed to fulfil the ‘stance and engagement’ model in academic speech? and

Are there any differences in the keyword selection between the soft and hard sciences in representing ‘stance and engagement’?

## 2 Literature Review

### 2.1 Stance and engagement

As Hyland (2004b) argues, what academics principally do in their academic activities is evaluate, a process which can be reflected in both written and spoken discourse. Thus, researchers may try to deliberately manipulate language to construct a credible identity and social relationship with the audience by claiming solidarity with recipients, evaluating their production, and acknowledging alternative viewpoints. This would make presenting a convincing argument to control the level of personality in texts one of their major concerns (Hyland, 2004b). The notion of evaluation to represent one’s judgements, feeling or views about something (Hunston & Thompson, 2000) has been constantly refined by several researchers as *attitude* (Halliday, 1994), *appraisal* (White, 2003), *stance* (Hyland, 1999), and *metadiscourse* (Hyland & Tse, 2004b). In Hyland’s (2005) latter work, he proposed the *stance and engagement* model, referring to the use of rhetorical devices to maintain social interaction between researchers and their audience and for researchers to present persuading judgements. These language choices are greatly affected by different researchers’ assumptions regarding



the reality of existence and knowledge. Thus “every instance of evaluation has to be seen as an act socially situated in a disciplinary or institutional context” (Hyland, 2005: 175).

By *stance*, Hyland (2005) means the way in which researchers present their voice or personality and convey their judgements, opinions and commitments, while *engagement* means how researchers acknowledge the presence of their audience and relate to them in the text. Presenting *stance* can rely on the employment of four elements: *hedges*, *boosters*, *attitude markers* and *self-mentions*. *Stance* is rather researcher-oriented and concerns how the researcher projects him/herself in the text, while *engagement* is more participant-oriented, focusing on how to bring the audience into the discourse to “anticipate their possible objections and engage them in appropriate ways” (pp. 182). It is composed of five main elements: *reader pronouns*<sup>1</sup>, *personal asides*, *appeals to shared knowledge*, *directives* and *questions*. Although *stance* and *engagement* apparently represent the writer/speaker and the audience respectively, Hyland (2005) also argues that they are in fact two sides of the same coin and can overlap, as they both facilitate the interpersonal dimension of discourse. In addition, their marking is also highly contextualised owing to diverse assumptions of knowledge shared by the members of specific communities. Thus, researchers in different disciplines may employ rhetorical choices to represent themselves, their work and their audience in different ways. It is worthy of note that Hyland’s *stance and engagement* proposition was initially applied to examine academic written texts, but is also assumed to be applicable to studying academic spoken texts, as academic speech activities also extensively involve speakers negotiating a balance between authority and concession with their audience (Poos & Simpson, 2002), in particular where their interaction requires much more directness and promptness in speaking acts.

## 2.2 Academic discourse across disciplinary variations

Different disciplines have their specific cultures, and these cultures may be best understood in their arbitrary conventions. Patterns of the language practices in different disciplines are “closely matched with the relevant characteristics of their associated domains of enquiry and they can transcend the institutional boundaries within any given system” (Becher, 1994: 153) as they help mediate their contexts and construct situated arguments in the disciplines that create them (Hyland, 2004b). As Hyland (2004a: 93) reminds us, “[although] the hard-soft distinction is by no means clear cut, it does offer a useful way of examining general similarities and differences between fields.” In general, knowledge in the natural/hard science domain tends to be relatively analytical, structured and cumulative to establish empirical uniformities, while the soft science domain emphasises interpretation, diversity, and mutual understanding, and also allows for more tolerance on the part of readers (Becher, 1989; Hyland, 2000; Hyland 2004a). The hard science disciplines rely more on clear criteria to establish or refute hypotheses, and thus the deployment of evidential markers is rather common in this domain. On the other hand, with less reliance on general understandings and proven quantitative methods to verify claims, explicit evaluation and engagement with synthetic strategies to generate persuading discourse and personal credibility becomes central in the soft sciences (Hyland, 2005).

In comparing or contrasting the similarities and variations of rhetorical deployment across disciplinary variation, analysts, in particular Hyland, have conducted extensive studies on academic writing texts. In a 240 academic article corpus, Hyland (2004a, 2004b) found that in

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<sup>1</sup> The term ‘reader pronouns’ is also used to refer to ‘listener pronouns’ in the present study.



the more discursive soft disciplines, there were many more occurrences of reader-oriented markers, in particular *reader pronouns*, *questions* and *asides*, than were found in hard discipline texts. On the other hand, the hard sciences have the highest proportion of using *physical directives* (over 80%) to instruct the audience to conduct research processes or to take some action in the real world, while the soft disciplines tend to use more *textual directives* to guide readers through discussions. Hyland explained that this is probably because *directives* allow scientists in the hard disciplines “to engage and lead an audience through an argument to a particular conclusion without expressing a clear authorial identity” (Hyland, 2004a: 102). Besides, nearly 70% of self-mention appeared in soft science papers owing to their extensive use of first personal pronouns. Yet, relatively, researchers in the hard science domain tend to downplay their personal role and highlight their universalistic and conceptual knowledge to generate the replicability and generality of their findings. In short, the way writers present their arguments, control their stance, and relate to their audience reflects the different social and epistemological conventions of their science domain (Hyland, 2000).

Other studies on rhetorical choices in academic writing genres across the soft-hard disciplines can mostly be found, just to name a few, in Hyland (1998, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2007, 2008) for academic research articles, in Hyland and Tse (2004a) and Yang (2012) for dissertation acknowledgements, in Yang (2013a) for academic textbook blurbs, in Yang (2013b) for academic calls for papers, and in Hyland and Tse (2009), Diani (2009) and Groom (2009) for book reviews. All of these studies exemplify how the different science disciplines make meanings and elucidate various contexts for interpretation with individual conventions within their disciplinary cultures (Hyland, 2004a).

So far, a great amount of research comparing the differences in various academic writing genres across disciplines has been carried out, and has identified the influences of disciplinary variations on how texts are constructed. However, little or no attention has been paid to academic spoken texts using similar approaches. One of the few exceptions is Poos and Simpson’s (2002) comparison of the use of hedging across disciplines using an academic spoken corpus (MICASE). They found that there is more to hedge about in the soft than in the hard sciences. A closely related explanation offered by them is that norms of interaction in the soft sciences “call for presenting alternate points of view, stating and eliciting opinions, carefully crafting arguments, and allowing for multiple possibilities—all of which can and do involve the use of various hedging strategies” (pp. 14). Thus, academic discipline can be a strong indicator of the frequencies of using hedges in speech events. Furthermore, another study conducted by Simpson-Vlach (2006) also confirmed that not only are hedging devices more commonly employed in the soft than in the hard sciences, but variations in lexical and phraseological items other than hedges also occur across disciplines.

### **2.3 Keyword analysis**

Phraseology and epistemology of academic disciplines are closely interlinked, and word analysis is a general methodology for analysing corpus-driven corpora (Groom, 2009). Lexis is believed to play a central role in authorship attribution and statistical approaches to style, and this is especially true for keywords (Davis, 2009; Kirk, 2009). Keywords are crucial as they can reflect what the text is really about in a targeted situation, or in other words, avoid trivia and insignificant detail (Scott & Tribble, 2006). Keyword analysis helps researchers identify differences between genre texts, determine the content of texts, and identify textual and rhetorical styles in a given set of academic texts across science domains (Baker, 2009;



Groom, 2009). It not only indicates the significance (or *keyness*) and importance of lexis to the texts described, but “often provides a way of identifying which words best distinguish the texts of a particular author or group of authors from another” (Hyland, 2012: 68). Besides, keywords (or the text’s *aboutness*) are also closely associated with the cultures, assumptions, and value systems in academic discourse (Bondi, 2010), and can serve as valid indicators of the epistemology of a discipline in constructing, formulating, negotiating and disseminating knowledge (Malavasi & Mazzi, 2010). Thus, keyword analysis has increasingly become of interest in the study of the rhetorical features of academic discourse (Marion & White, 2005). Numerous studies investigating keywords and keyness in specialised discourse can mostly be found in Bondi and Scott’s (2010) edited book or in Yang’s (2011, 2013a. b.) serial research.

### 3 Methodology

#### 3.1 Corpora

Two corpora were used for analysis in the present study. One, serving as the study corpus, is the corpus of British Academic Spoken English (BASE)<sup>2</sup> and the other, functioning as the reference corpus, is The London-Lund Corpus of Spoken English (LLC) (Svartvik, 1990). BASE is a collection of academic spoken texts including 160 lectures and 40 seminars from four broad disciplinary groups, namely arts and humanity, social studies and sciences, life and medical sciences, and physical sciences. It contains 1,614,654 tokens in total (see Table 1). For the purpose of this study, the first two disciplinary groups were classed as the ‘soft sciences’ while the latter two were grouped together as the ‘hard sciences’. In comparison with BASE, LLC includes 1,798,044 tokens, collected mainly from casual dialogues and monologues in conversations, discussions or (non-academic) speeches.

	<b>Soft sciences</b>	<b>Hard sciences</b>
Tokens running for words	864,819	749,835
Total tokens for word list	864,766	749,817
Word types	24,130	18,146
TTR (Tokens/Word types ratio)	2.79	2.42
Standardised TTR (STTR)	35.68	33.14
STTR Standard deviation (Std. dev.)	63.07	65.66
Mean/ Word length in characters	4.46	4.34
Word length Std. dev.	2.48	2.43
Mean in words	7146.83	6942.75
Std. dev.	3307.14	3084.96

**Table 1.** Words used by the soft and hard sciences in the BASE corpus

#### 3.2 Analysis

The concordancing tool WordSmith (Scott, 2008) was used to generate the wordlists, keywords and concordance of the two corpora. “Keywords analysis centres on the qualitative concordance analysis of a set of words which have been identified by a computational

<sup>2</sup> The transcriptions used in this study come from the British Academic Spoken English (BASE) corpus project. The corpus was developed at the Universities of Warwick and Reading under the directorship of Hilary Nesi and Paul Thompson. Corpus development was assisted by funding from BALEAP, EURALEX, the British Academy and the Arts and Humanities Research Council.



procedure as being statistically significant, or ‘key’, in a specialised corpus, when compared against a larger and more general reference corpus” (Groom, 2008: 128). Hence, to generate two sets of keywords, the soft and hard disciplines in BASE were respectively used as the individual study corpora, while LLC was treated as the referred corpus. In addition, to comply with Hyland’s stance and engagement model, the lexis deployments of the two science domains were manually searched in the two wordlists with the help of the concordancing tool. The focus of this study is on the use of hedges, self-mention, personal pronouns and boosters in the texts. The lexis related to these four elements has been identified by previous studies such as Hyland (2005) and Poos and Simpson (2002).

## **4 Results and Discussion**

### **4.1 Keywords in academic speech across disciplines**

In total, there are 3,236 and 3,046 keywords generated respectively in the soft and hard sciences, of which 3,153 and 2,950 are overused keywords, while the remaining 83 and 96 are underused. It is the overused keywords that represent the uniqueness or *aboutness* of the present corpus compared to the LLC. The top 50 overused keywords in each science domain are discussed further (see Appendix 1). When cross-examined, 37 of these 50 overused keywords were found to be identical in both domains, i.e. 74%, which suggests that the preferred lexis for utterance is divergent to some extent across disciplines. Among the identical categories, firstly, the indicative personal pronoun *you* is highly ranked in both domains, which is largely different from academic writing where *you* is rarely used, due to the lack of involvement of the audience in academic written texts (Hyland, 2005). However, in spoken discourse the pronoun *you* is extensively employed to bring the listener into the discourse. In addition, the pronoun *we* is a frequent device used to bind the writer and reader in academic writing (Hyland, 2005), whereas it is mainly used to refer to the speaker(s) in academic speech. A possible explanation is that readers are always absent and tend to be specialists, whereas listeners are present and very likely have mixed backgrounds, that is, both specialists and non-specialists are often present on speech occasions. In other words, compared to writers speaking to an ideal, future, or putative audience, speakers face an audience whose level of knowledge is uncertain to them (Aguilar, 2004). Thus, *we* can help represent an inclusive voice, while *you* signals an exclusive distance between the speaker and listener.

Secondly, the determiners such as *the*, *this*, or *that* are also highly ranked in the speech of both science domains. Indeed, both definite articles and demonstratives are a very common category in English parts of speech. Their overuse here indicates the fact that relevance and clarity usually override brevity (Aguilar, 2004); hence, these determiners recurrently help the speaker to clarify, emphasise, remind and centre the ideas expressed verbally. This device is used more frequently in the soft than the hard disciplines.

Thirdly, similar to the previous research, *just* and *if* are also two highly-ranked keywords in both domains. As Lindemann and Mauranen (2001) argue, the word *just* in speech often serves as a minimiser, limiter or mitigator, and is ambiguous with blurred boundaries between categories. Thus, it is always associated with metadiscourse and hedging. *If*-conditionals are rather valuable devices in academic discourse as they not only build up a hypothesis for envisaging alternatives, but also allow space for researchers to set up an alternative argument to handle and situate the research claim (Carter-Thomans & Rowley-Jolivet, 2008). In speech, *if*-clauses are useful for the speaker to redirect the audience in a polite way when structuring the speech is required. Furthermore, this device also helps the speaker signal to the audience



when to focus on visual designs such as slides, handouts or screens, which commonly accompany academic presentations. The present corpus shows that the percentages of these two keywords used in the hard sciences are slightly higher than in the soft sciences. One possible reason is that making hypotheses could be a more conventional practice in research in the hard sciences.

Lastly, the difference in the top 50 keywords between the two science domains could more clearly explain the variations in word preference of the two areas. In soft disciplines, plurality, possibility, and acknowledging the existence of the past and humans are valued. Thus, words such as *as*, *know* (combined with *you* into ‘*as you know*’), *people*, *was*, *more*, *some*, *kind* or *like* (the preposition) would become key. However, in the hard sciences, singularity, absoluteness, causality, the present and the future are relatively emphasised; hence, words such as *one*, *two*, *then*, *now*, *will* or *going* are more frequently employed. To conclude this section, it is found that the top 50 keywords used in both sciences are largely similar (74%), but slightly different preferences were still identified, probably due to the differences in reality and knowledge assumed by the two science domains.

#### 4.2 Markers representing the speaker’s *stance* and *engagement* in academic speech

In this section, the devices of self-mention, hedging and boosters in the speaker’s stance are discussed. First, as shown in Table 2, the speakers in the soft sciences tend to use hedges more frequently than those in the hard sciences by nearly 3,000 occurrences. The major functions of hedges are to present information as personal opinion rather than as validated fact, and to allow the audience space to dispute or refute the speaker’s interpretation (Hyland, 2005). Thus, identical to the previous study (Poos & Simpson, 2002), the present results also confirm that hedging devices appear more commonly in academic spoken discourse of the soft sciences than of the hard sciences. This imbalanced deployment indicates “less assurance about what colleagues could be safely assumed to accept” (Hyland, 2005: 188) in the soft science disciplines, while reporting systems in the hard science disciplines are relatively formalised so hedging use is minimised. However, interesting findings of the present research regarding differences between the two domains include nearly double the frequency of the use of *I think* (1,930 v. 1,118), five times the use of *kind of* (1,530 v. 387) and double the occurrence of *sort of* (2,437 v. 1,181), which reflects the epistemological emphasis on personal interpretation, uncertainty and the acceptance of diversity in the soft sciences.

Soft sciences		Hard sciences	Soft sciences		Hard sciences
<i>may</i>	764	637	<i>assume</i>	81	151
<i>might</i>	990	784	<i>believe</i>	272	100
<i>could</i>	1,218	923	<i>argue</i>	286	41
<i>perhaps</i>	443	327	<i>I think</i>	1,930	1,118
<i>probably</i>	433	598	<i>kind of</i>	1,530	387
<i>apparently</i>	62	46	<i>sort of</i>	2,437	1,181
<i>possibly</i>	304	288	<i>..far as I know</i>	6	10
<i>likely</i>	137	157	<i>we feel that...</i>	64	29
<i>seem</i>	365	202	<i>if</i>	4,238	5,211
<i>suggest</i>	232	110	<i>if I...</i>	163	262
<i>indicate</i>	37	57	<i>if we...</i>	251	577



<i>appear</i>	96	99	<i>if you</i>	2,059	2,332
<i>suppose</i>	256	185	<b>Total</b>	<b>18,654</b>	<b>15,812</b>

**Table 2.** Frequency of the hedges used by the two science domains in the BASE wordlist

Table 3 shows the frequency of using self-mention in both domains. Speakers may use the first personal pronouns to present propositional, affective and interpersonal information, and they are more often employed in soft science papers as they help writers identify themselves with the particular argument they are making and thus obtain an individual credit (Hyland, 2005). However, the current results show a different perspective; in total, *self-mention* is slightly more commonly used in the academic speech of hard scientists. A further examination of the associated lexis of *self-mention* found that in the hard disciplines, *I mean, I'm going to, I'm sure, I'm saying, we have to* (followed by a verb), and *we have* (leading to an explanation of research procedures) are very common phrases used in the hard sciences, which apparently signifies a stronger authoritative voice without permitting too much space for negotiating or refuting. Yet, in the soft disciplines, *we can* (leading to a suggestion), *we don't* (followed by an open discussion e.g. *We don't want you to assume that we have...*), *I think, I guess* or *I suppose* are more frequently deployed, which also indicates that interpretation, diversity and ambiguity are the basis of knowledge construction in this domain. Hence, in spoken discourse, disciplinary variations in *self-mention* are still identified, although this element, unusually, has a slightly higher occurrence in the hard disciplines compared to its deployment in academic writing (Hyland, 2005).

The last element of *stance* studied in this research is *boosters*. Both *hedges* and *boosters* are communicative strategies to increase or reduce the force of statements, but *boosters* permit speakers or writers “to express their certainty in what they say and to mark involvement and solidarity with their audience” (Hyland, 2000: 87). As seen in Table 4, speakers in the soft sciences tend to use *boosters* more frequently than those in the hard sciences. Appropriate and interchangeable employment of hedges and boosters can balance objective information, subjective judgement and interpersonal negotiation in the discourse, thus making the claims more acceptable (Hyland, 2005). The present research shows that both elements more usually appear in the speech of the soft rather than the hard sciences, which may imply that speakers in the soft sciences would more liberally use these rhetorical devices to create a convincing argument for their participants because in their fields there is less control of variables but greater possibilities for diverse outcomes. Therefore, the speakers need to clearly express their judgements to establish an understanding with their audience (Hyland, 2005). Yet, speakers in the hard sciences generally follow their succinct styles of reporting facts, which mostly results from rigorously-controlled experiments, and thus may minimise the deployment of these two strategies, opening the way for negotiation.

	<b>Soft sciences</b>	<b>Hard sciences</b>
<i>I (X, would, will, am, have)</i>	12,424	11,847
<i>we (X, would, will, am, have)</i>	7,289	11,577
<b>Total</b>	<b>19,713</b>	<b>23,423</b>

**Table 3.** Frequency of the usage of self-mention in the two science domains in BASE



	<b>Soft sciences</b>	<b>Hard sciences</b>
<i>clearly/ clear</i>	221/ 224	146/ 150
<i>certainly/ certain</i>	287/ 389	213/ 192
<i>definitely/ definite</i>	50/ 20	27/ 11
<i>obviously/ obvious</i>	361/ 103	442/ 122
<i>the fact that/ in fact</i>	268/ 350	134/ 351
<i>always</i>	425	336
<i>show that</i>	41	20
<i>substantially/ substantial</i>	7/ 22	5/ 31
<i>demonstrate</i>	19	21
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,679/1,593</b>	<b>1,344/1,234</b>

**Table 4.** Frequency of the usage of boosters in the two science domains in BASE

The only element of *engagement* studied in the present research is the use of the second personal pronouns *you* and *your* (see Table 5), one major lexis of *reader pronouns*. This element is the most explicit way for speakers to bring their audience into a discourse, and *you* and *your* are, indeed, the clearest way in which a speaker can acknowledge the audience's presence (Hyland, 2005), which seems unavoidable in a face-to-face speech situation, compared to in a written text. Hence, it would be more understandable to see that the occurrences of these two words in both science domains are nearly identical; in other words, there is no obvious variation between the two domains. This phenomenon is rather different from the case reported in academic writing (Hyland, 2005), where the reader pronouns are relatively far less employed in the hard sciences, as the writers naturally downplay the presence of their readers. Another difference is the use of *we*, also considered as one of the reader pronouns when used to include both reader and writer, which is a very frequent engagement feature in writing texts; however, as previously mentioned, *we* is majorly deployed to refer to the speakers themselves as a *self-mention* rather than as a *reader pronoun* in spoken texts. Thus, it can be argued that the use of *you* and *your* does not boldly reflect disciplinary variations in academic spoken discourse so far. Probably, the real presence of the audience increases this usage in both science domains.

	<b>Soft sciences</b>	<b>Hard sciences</b>
<i>You</i>	15,108	14,634
<i>You're</i>	1,323	1,304
<i>You've</i>	837	1,276
<i>You'll</i>	385	360
<i>You'd</i>	158	214
<i>Your</i>	1,710	1,804
<b>Total</b>	<b>19,521</b>	<b>19,595</b>

**Table 5.** Frequency of using the second personal pronoun *you* in the two science domains

#### **4.3 Keyness in stance and engagement**

Although we have compared some lexical or phraseological items of *stance* and *engagement* features across the two science domains, not necessarily all of them become *key* or have the same strength of *keyness* in its individual corpus. Tables 6, 7, and 8 exhibit the *keyness* of



hedges, personal pronouns and boosters ranked differently in the two domains. For instance, the hedges, *seem* and *feel*, are key in the soft disciplines but not in the hard sciences, while *assume*, *suppose* and *argue* have higher divergence of keyness in the different domains. This preference still points out the influence of what the different sciences believe in terms of value system and knowledge construction. Apparently, speakers in the soft disciplines rely more frequently on using hedges to express their acceptance of negotiation and interpretation.

Besides, the use of personal pronouns also evidences that speakers in the soft disciplines are relatively more willing to project self in their speech to present identity and gain personal credibility. Yet, *we* has higher keyness in the hard disciplines because research in this domain often needs much more financial investment and collaborative work (Hyland, 2005). Similarly, general speech in the soft sciences tends to deploy *boosters* more commonly as they help highlight the sharedness, membership and engagement in interaction with the audience (Hyland, 1999). Together with the preceding discussion of the wordlists, the keywords in the elements of *stance* and *engagement* under examination both reflect some variation in linguistic choices between the two science domains.

	<b>Soft sciences</b>	<b>Hard sciences</b>		<b>Soft sciences</b>	<b>Hard sciences</b>
<i>may</i>	242	285	<i>assume</i>	1,114	433
<i>might</i>	117	141	<i>believe</i>	384	835
<i>could</i>	170	247	<i>argue</i>	709	1,450
<i>perhaps</i>	153	199	<i>I think</i>	74	192
<i>probably</i>	492	218	<i>kind of</i>	46	510
<i>apparently</i>	2,244	1,865	<i>sort of</i>	54	234
<i>possibly</i>	374	411	<i>feel</i>	1,787	X
<i>likely</i>	807	557	<i>if</i>	26	15
<i>seem</i>	771	X	<i>appear</i>	1,320	1,232
<i>suggest</i>	723	1,079	<i>suppose</i>	526	1,434
<i>indicate</i>	X	1,920			

**Table 6.** Keyness ranking of the hedges in BASE with reference to LLC

Note: x denotes not a keyword

	<b>Soft sciences</b>	<b>Hard sciences</b>
<i>I</i>	766	1,040
<i>you</i>	10	9
<i>we</i>	44	11

**Table 7.** Keyness ranking of the personal pronouns in BASE with reference to LLC



	<b>Soft sciences</b>	<b>Hard sciences</b>
<i>clearly/ clear</i>	297/ 442	446/ 706
<i>certainly/ certain</i>	574/ 302	850/ 975
<i>definitely/ definite</i>	2,465/ x	x/ x
<i>obviously/ obvious</i>	480/ 1,153	258/ 773
<i>the fact that/ in fact</i>	208	323
<i>always</i>	863	1,182
<i>show that</i>	307	335
<i>substantially/ substantial</i>	x/ 1,923	x/ 1,377
<i>demonstrate</i>	2,854	2,541

**Table 8.** Keyness ranking of the boosters in BASE with reference to LLC

Note: x denotes not a keyword

### 5 Implication and conclusion

This corpus-driven study investigated a less-attended academic discourse, namely academic speech, from the perspective of comparing the different use of *stance* and *engagement* across soft and hard science disciplines. Two corpora, BASE and LLC, were used to generate the wordlists and keywords with the help of a concordancing tool. Four elements, *hedges*, *self-mention*, *reader pronouns*, and *boosters* in the academic corpus were examined, and the results indicate that subtle differences in the use of these devices were identified between the two domains. It is believed that the various ways in which the different disciplines shape their arguments and construct their knowledge through discourse contribute to these subtle variations (Hyland & Bondi, 2006). So far, this study has shown how corpus analysis can be helpful in understanding the ways academics across disciplines talk, and it also offers some implications for ESP (English for Specific Purposes) practitioners and researchers.

First, the present analysis confirms that the discourse of the academy contains many discipline-specific regularities, preferences or assumptions, affecting the ways in which identities and arguments are presented conventionally and effectively. By making students aware of these rhetorical features, teachers can not only enhance their understanding of disciplinary cultures but can prepare them for producing their own convincing arguments in their field (Hyland, 2000). Academic speech is largely different from writing as it is instantaneously interactive. Usually, there is little time or opportunity to correct or ponder. Speakers are under pressure of presenting their arguments, negotiating with the audience and finishing in time, which makes a credible speech a challenge, in particular for novice research students. Thus, a tailor-made ESP course can be designed to accommodate learners' needs in developing communicative skills and strategies in spoken English for academic purposes.

Second, as Hyland (2004a) and Johns (1997) suggest, ESP teachers can raise postgraduate students' awareness of rhetorical consciousness by having them do small-scale corpus analysis of the texts they need to master. Teachers can draw students' attention to the features of academic speech they have to engage in, and direct them to discover what communicative strategies from their specific discipline they can apply to present convincing oral arguments. These tasks can enable learners "to recognise both the choices available to them and their impact" (Hyland, 2004a: 110).



Third, and finally, since this research could be one of the very few studies investigating the interaction model of stance and engagement in academic speech discourse, several further studies can be carried out to complement and build on it. For instance, the present study examined the use of words and keywords in four elements at a descriptive level; thus, a closer look at the pragmatic use of all the elements in the corpus would more clearly reflect how *stance* and *engagement* function in the texts of both science domains. Next, as two large corpora of academic spoken English have already been established, namely the American MICASE and the British BASE, it would be interesting to compare and contrast how stance and engagement elements are realised in these two *Englishes*. Lastly, another direction of examination can centre on the use of *stance* and *engagement* across the contexts in which English is used as a native and non-native language. This would shed light on how contextual differences and disciplinary variations may interplay to shape academic spoken discourse in English.

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## 7 Appendix

Top 50 keywords in the two science domains of BASE with reference to LLCs

<i>Soft Science</i>								
N	Key word	Freq.	%	Texts	RC. Freq.	RC. %	Keyness	P
1.00	THE	48674.00	5.63	100.00	21445.00	1.19	41161.87	0.00
2.00	OF	29843.00	3.45	100.00	12609.00	0.70	25829.86	0.00
3.00	AND	24120.00	2.79	100.00	13182.00	0.73	16400.03	0.00
4.00	TO	23065.00	2.67	100.00	14099.00	0.78	13827.69	0.00
5.00	IN	17647.00	2.04	100.00	9485.00	0.53	12158.64	0.00
6.00	IT'S	5284.00	0.61	100.00	0.00		11907.02	0.00
7.00	THAT	17210.00	1.99	100.00	9387.00	0.52	11674.02	0.00
8.00	IS	12989.00	1.50	100.00	6510.00	0.36	9568.26	0.00
9.00	SO	7491.00	0.87	100.00	2248.00	0.13	8123.73	0.00
10.00	YOU	15108.00	1.75	100.00	10789.00	0.60	7356.25	0.00
11.00	ABOUT	4213.00	0.49	100.00	778.00	0.04	5778.81	0.00
12.00	THIS	7686.00	0.89	100.00	3789.00	0.21	5733.21	0.00
13.00	THAT'S	2501.00	0.29	100.00	0.00		5630.32	0.00
14.00	WHAT	5621.00	0.65	100.00	2649.00	0.15	4366.18	0.00
15.00	OKAY	1912.00	0.22	88.00	9.00		4196.03	0.00
16.00	DON'T	1770.00	0.20	98.00	0.00		3983.66	0.00
17.00	AS	5786.00	0.67	100.00	3139.00	0.17	3918.33	0.00
18.00	WHICH	4467.00	0.52	100.00	1847.00	0.10	3875.86	0.00
19.00	ARE	5047.00	0.58	100.00	2412.00	0.13	3869.20	0.00
20.00	BECAUSE	2612.00	0.30	100.00	419.00	0.02	3773.31	0.00
21.00	BUT	5822.00	0.67	100.00	3316.00	0.18	3741.85	0.00
22.00	OR	4404.00	0.51	100.00	2113.00	0.12	3362.72	0.00
23.00	KNOW	3928.00	0.45	100.00	1696.00	0.09	3288.93	0.00
24.00	THERE'S	1454.00	0.17	97.00	0.00		3272.10	0.00
25.00	FOR	5362.00	0.62	100.00	3224.00	0.18	3239.44	0.00
26.00	IF	4238.00	0.49	100.00	2174.00	0.12	3035.32	0.00
27.00	YOU'RE	1323.00	0.15	91.00	0.00		2977.16	0.00
28.00	NOT	4090.00	0.47	100.00	2131.00	0.12	2883.96	0.00
29.00	HAVE	5128.00	0.59	100.00	3300.00	0.18	2851.90	0.00
30.00	THEY	5630.00	0.65	100.00	4048.00	0.23	2696.57	0.00
31.00	I'M	1183.00	0.14	97.00	1.00		2646.62	0.00
32.00	LIKE	2948.00	0.34	100.00	1166.00	0.06	2645.92	0.00
33.00	ON	5628.00	0.65	100.00	4283.00	0.24	2476.31	0.00
34.00	FROM	3179.00	0.37	100.00	1493.00	0.08	2473.40	0.00
35.00	THEY'RE	1097.00	0.13	93.00	0.00		2468.39	0.00
36.00	DO	3291.00	0.38	100.00	1612.00	0.09	2463.15	0.00
37.00	WITH	4162.00	0.48	100.00	2599.00	0.14	2401.27	0.00
38.00	WAS	5785.00	0.67	100.00	4647.00	0.26	2334.27	0.00
39.00	IT	10897.00	1.26	100.00	11936.00	0.66	2299.92	0.00
40.00	YEAH	1710.00	0.20	75.00	342.00	0.02	2267.63	0.00
41.00	PEOPLE	2460.00	0.28	100.00	943.00	0.05	2260.09	0.00
42.00	BY	2841.00	0.33	100.00	1332.00	0.07	2213.36	0.00



43.00	WE'RE	983.00	0.11	92.00	0.00		2211.79	0.00
44.00	WE	5179.00	0.60	100.00	4082.00	0.23	2154.89	0.00
45.00	SOME	2331.00	0.27	100.00	887.00	0.05	2153.13	0.00
46.00	KIND	1577.00	0.18	87.00	297.00	0.02	2143.55	0.00
47.00	MORE	2181.00	0.25	100.00	774.00	0.04	2117.49	0.00
48.00	HE'S	909.00	0.11	78.00	0.00		2045.24	0.00
49.00	BE	5590.00	0.65	100.00	4836.00	0.27	1981.08	0.00
50.00	JUST	3053.00	0.35	100.00	1765.00	0.10	1926.45	0.00

<b>Hard science</b>								
<b>N</b>	<b>Key word</b>	<b>Freq.</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Texts</b>	<b>RC. Freq.</b>	<b>RC. %</b>	<b>Keyness</b>	<b>P</b>
1.00	THE	39187.00	5.23	99.00	21445.00	1.19	32915.53	0.00
2.00	AND	21840.00	2.91	99.00	13182.00	0.73	16484.86	0.00
3.00	OF	19810.00	2.64	99.00	12609.00	0.70	14124.82	0.00
4.00	SO	9684.00	1.29	99.00	2248.00	0.13	13782.12	0.00
5.00	TO	20172.00	2.69	99.00	14099.00	0.78	12943.62	0.00
6.00	IS	13297.00	1.77	99.00	6510.00	0.36	12088.58	0.00
7.00	IT'S	4880.00	0.65	98.00	0.00		11960.55	0.00
8.00	THAT	14915.00	1.99	99.00	9387.00	0.52	10724.89	0.00
9.00	YOU	14634.00	1.95	99.00	10789.00	0.60	8758.63	0.00
10.00	IN	13030.00	1.74	99.00	9485.00	0.53	7914.25	0.00
11.00	WE	8065.00	1.08	99.00	4082.00	0.23	7104.79	0.00
12.00	THAT'S	2893.00	0.39	99.00	0.00		7085.11	0.00
13.00	OKAY	2879.00	0.38	98.00	9.00		6935.19	0.00
14.00	THIS	7362.00	0.98	99.00	3789.00	0.21	6389.63	0.00
15.00	IF	5211.00	0.69	99.00	2174.00	0.12	5329.83	0.00
16.00	ABOUT	3453.00	0.46	99.00	778.00	0.04	4960.46	0.00
17.00	ARE	5138.00	0.69	99.00	2412.00	0.13	4807.13	0.00
18.00	DON'T	1767.00	0.24	99.00	0.00		4325.60	0.00
19.00	CAN	4249.00	0.57	99.00	1910.00	0.11	4109.98	0.00
20.00	WHAT	4779.00	0.64	99.00	2649.00	0.15	3872.48	0.00
21.00	WE'RE	1566.00	0.21	97.00	0.00		3833.26	0.00
22.00	I'M	1571.00	0.21	98.00	1.00		3829.48	0.00
23.00	HAVE	5279.00	0.70	99.00	3300.00	0.18	3796.69	0.00
24.00	DO	3750.00	0.50	99.00	1612.00	0.09	3749.77	0.00
25.00	HERE	2277.00	0.30	97.00	378.00	0.02	3664.93	0.00
26.00	THERE'S	1407.00	0.19	97.00	0.00		3443.85	0.00
27.00	TWO	2810.00	0.37	99.00	913.00	0.05	3368.52	0.00
28.00	BECAUSE	2172.00	0.29	99.00	419.00	0.02	3316.24	0.00
29.00	YOU'RE	1304.00	0.17	96.00	0.00		3191.61	0.00
30.00	GOING	3055.00	0.41	99.00	1255.00	0.07	3154.81	0.00
31.00	YOU'VE	1276.00	0.17	96.00	0.00		3123.05	0.00
32.00	WE'VE	1229.00	0.16	96.00	0.00		3007.96	0.00
33.00	THEN	2853.00	0.38	99.00	1214.00	0.07	2872.48	0.00
34.00	ONE	4432.00	0.59	99.00	3058.00	0.17	2853.48	0.00
35.00	YEAH	1805.00	0.24	81.00	342.00	0.02	2773.75	0.00
36.00	WHICH	3376.00	0.45	99.00	1847.00	0.10	2766.41	0.00
37.00	THESE	2190.00	0.29	98.00	693.00	0.04	2663.95	0.00
38.00	THEY'RE	1081.00	0.14	93.00	0.00		2645.58	0.00



39.00	FOR	4396.00	0.59	99.00	3224.00	0.18	2627.79	0.00
40.00	BUT	4426.00	0.59	99.00	3316.00	0.18	2574.85	0.00
41.00	WITH	3863.00	0.52	99.00	2599.00	0.14	2559.89	0.00
42.00	I'VE	1016.00	0.14	96.00	0.00		2486.44	0.00
43.00	JUST	3015.00	0.40	99.00	1765.00	0.10	2315.22	0.00
44.00	GET	2535.00	0.34	98.00	1235.00	0.07	2297.51	0.00
45.00	IT	9682.00	1.29	99.00	11936.00	0.66	2293.76	0.00
46.00	OR	3223.00	0.43	99.00	2113.00	0.12	2198.04	0.00
47.00	NOW	2233.00	0.30	99.00	1037.00	0.06	2103.19	0.00
48.00	WILL	2010.00	0.27	99.00	822.00	0.05	2080.90	0.00
49.00	NOT	3129.00	0.42	99.00	2131.00	0.12	2043.46	0.00
50.00	ON	4687.00	0.63	99.00	4283.00	0.24	2042.81	0.00

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# **Didáctica de la traducción inversa especializada. Propuesta de actividades en el ámbito de la economía y los negocios**

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**Keywords:** *business translation, translation technologies, translation into the foreign language, translation training*

## **Abstract**

As business translator trainers we have to encourage our students to practice translation into their mother tongue and into the foreign language. The aim of this paper is to present various types of exercises that we use in our classes in order to develop strategies in the practice of translation into the foreign language. These kinds of tasks are based on work previously carried out by translator trainers and researchers. First, references on teaching translation into the foreign language) will be reviewed. Then we show the kind of tasks focusing on mother tongue proficiency and translation technologies. Our experience tells us that our students seem to feel comfortable with the exercises and find them useful to face the practice of translation into non-mother tongue.

## **1 Introducción**

El objetivo del presente trabajo no es replantear el debate de la traducción inversa (conceptos, viabilidad, lengua materna, mercado profesional, etc.), algo que, sin embargo, parece seguir siendo necesario a día de hoy (Kelly, 2012), sino, más bien, reseñar, en un primer momento, una serie de trabajos específicos de profesores e investigadores sobre la práctica de esta modalidad de traducción en contexto formativo, y, en un segundo momento, proponer diversas actividades relacionadas con la traducción inversa en el ámbito de la economía y los negocios, sobre la base de los fundamentos básicos que hayamos podido observar en dichos trabajos.

## **2 Reflexiones en torno a la didáctica de la traducción inversa**

Las implicaciones del supuesto de que se traduce mejor a la lengua materna que a la extranjera parece haber provocado una falta de reflexión sobre la enseñanza de la traducción inversa en varios aspectos. Al menos eso es lo que dan a entender autores como Hewson (1993: 172), quien ya planteaba que el *thème* tanto en Gran Bretaña como en Francia era “une pratique que la recherche a plus ou moins ignorée”, Lorenzo (2002: 85), quien ha llegado a señalar que los profesores de traducción inversa “tenemos gran dificultad en encontrar una mínima orientación teórica acerca de los problemas y estrategias específicos de este tipo de traducción que realmente sea aplicable a la práctica”, o Neunzig (2003: 189), quien ha aludido a “la prácticamente nula investigación en el campo de la formación en el uso “inteligente” de

las tecnologías de la información como apoyo a la traducción especializada inversa”. Todo ello parece haber desembocado, al menos a finales del siglo pasado, en una enseñanza inequívoca de la traducción inversa, considerada frecuentemente como un simple ejercicio de reproducción lingüística y adquisición de lenguas extranjeras y no como actividad experta, lo que, en palabras de Hewson (1993: 173) “met l’apprenti-traducteur dans une situation de handicap, voire d’échec permanent”. Ahora bien, en los estudios sobre la enseñanza de la traducción inversa queda cada vez más patente que los problemas que plantea este tipo de formación no tienen por qué reducirse al nivel lingüístico de la traducción y que las metodologías que pueden emplearse en el aula tampoco tienen por qué reducirse a la mera reproducción. Reseñemos algunos de estos trabajos.

Uno de los primeros trabajos que han ayudado a avanzar en la didáctica de la traducción inversa es precisamente el de Hewson (1993), quien opina que es necesario 1) reconsiderar los sistemas de evaluación, 2) enseñar la traducción y no la lengua extranjera, 3) aplicar un verdadero ejercicio de reformulación que considere la situación comunicativa y habilite los ejercicios de paráfrasis (evitar el *mot à mot*), 4) considerar complementarias la traducción inversa y directa, 5) entender la equivalencia como un concepto modulable según las condiciones específicas de cada situación, y 6) localizar los problemas recurrentes propios de la traducción y promover un trabajo sistemático.

La monografía de Beeby (1996), también pionera, ofrece una visión general basada en el análisis del discurso y propone ejercicios de pretraducción que implican usar textos paralelos, trabajar con los dos idiomas y comparar sus propiedades y características. Beeby (1996: 164) insiste en la necesidad de proponer “more consistent and systematic incorporation of the findings of contrastive rhetoric into the design and teaching of translation courses”. Además, marca dos estadios para el diseño curricular: 1) el estudio del mercado de la traducción inversa, la competencia traductora y la posición de los estudiantes en la consecución del conocimiento experto, y 2) la interacción y organización textuales, la retórica contrastiva y los géneros para la traducción inversa.

Por su parte, Roiss & Weatherby (1998: 214) basan su metodología en tres pilares básicos: “target text orientation, the overlapping of language study and translation practice, and a careful selection of texts” y cuatro tipos de actividades principales: 1) estudio de textos paralelos en lengua extranjera; 2) producción textual en lengua extranjera (incluye corrección y análisis de errores); 3) crítica de traducciones deficientes, y 4) traducción de textos priorizando el análisis de originales.

Entre sus primeros trabajos, Kelly (1997) se preocupa por proponer una metodología para estudiantes que contactan por primera vez con la práctica de la traducción inversa, por lo que su principal problema suele situarse en la fase de reconstrucción del texto original. En esencia, su metodología se basa en una explicitación detallada del proceso de traducción, además de la participación activa de los estudiantes y la implementación de actividades complementarias que pongan énfasis en las dificultades específicas de la traducción inversa. Su selección de textos se centra en los informativos y desecha los expresivos o literarios (procura que se acerquen a la realidad laboral).

En una de sus investigaciones, Lorenzo (1999) compara el proceso de traducción de dos tipos de texto para estudiar los fundamentos en los que se basan los traductores a la hora de tomar decisiones y tener seguridad. Ello le lleva a poner énfasis en la actitud estratégica y sugerir un esquema de comportamiento basado en un aprovechamiento de los propios recursos del



traductor para minimizar el riesgo en la toma de decisiones y evitar tres “vicios discentes”: 1) la incapacidad de evaluar la versión final del texto o incluso de tomar decisiones definitivas, 2) la falta de responsabilidad que sienten algunos respecto a su propio producto, y 3) el uso indiscriminado de los diccionarios bilingües. La autora define el saber estratégico como “la capacidad de tomar decisiones en lo indeterminado, a base de cumplir con unos criterios de satisfacción y aceptar los mínimos riesgos” (Lorenzo, 2003: 105).

Corpas-Pastor (2001), consciente de que la traducción inversa especializada es una demanda social real y que, por tanto, los formadores de traductores deben dotar a sus estudiantes de los instrumentos y herramientas necesarios, propone la compilación y explotación de corpus *ad hoc* como herramienta de documentación gramatical, discursiva, lexicográfica, terminológica.

Cómitre (2003) se preocupa por que los estudiantes desarrollen esencialmente la competencia cultural. Para ello, trata de 1) desdramatizar el problema de la traducción de elementos culturales, 2) estar en contacto constante con la cultura meta, 3) desarrollar cierta tolerancia y relativizar los valores y creencias de la cultura, y 4) evitar que su visión particular influya en la elección de estrategias. Su trabajo se centra en el estudio de textos publicitarios en español y sus respectivas versiones en francés para ilustrar las estrategias usadas por los profesionales.

La propuesta metodológica de Rodríguez & Schnell (2003) se basa en la colaboración entre profesores de distintas asignaturas (documentación, traducción especializada y terminología) y encaminada hacia la adquisición de la competencia documental y textual, dos competencias que pueden suplir posibles carencias en otras, como la lingüística o la pragmático-discursiva. Consideran que es fundamental documentarse tanto para comprender como para reexpresar, y que el traductor debe recurrir a documentación sobre el tema del original, documentación que revele los patrones formales y estructurales del texto, así como documentación sobre aspectos semántico-sintácticos a partir de la cual se extrae la terminología y fraseología pertinentes. Proponen el siguiente modelo secuencial: 1) búsqueda de instituciones documentales y de fuentes documentales, 2) evaluación y selección de la documentación, 3) evaluación de la documentación mediante análisis formal y de contenido, 4) indización de recursos y 5) tratamiento informático de la documentación compilada. En cuanto al desarrollo de la competencia textual proponen el siguiente modelo: 1) enfoque contrastivo, 2) análisis de documentos en lengua de llegada, 3) producción textual en lengua de llegada.

Parra (2003) & Lucas (2003) tratan de adaptar sus metodologías docentes a las nuevas realidades multiculturales en el aula y proponen una serie de actividades en el ámbito de la traducción jurídica, económica y comercial con el ánimo de rentabilizar la eventual existencia de direcciones distintas en el aula. Las actividades que proponen tienen que ver, entre otras cosas, con el análisis y la comprensión del texto original o la traducción y revisión de términos y fraseologismos. En esencia, persiguen identificar los puntos fuertes y débiles del traductor en formación, fomentar su confianza y contribuir al desarrollo de la competencia traductora.

En una línea de pensamiento similar, Guatelli-Tedeschi & Le Poder (2003) proponen aprovechar la distorsión de la direccionalidad generada ante la cada vez más creciente heterogeneidad que se da en el aula respecto a la procedencia del alumnado, y elaborar unos planteamientos didácticos basados en el trabajo con el grupo-clase y en las fases del proceso traductor. En este sentido, abogan por que los alumnos nativos protagonicen la fase de comprensión, lo que puede ayudar a entender que no todo es competencia lingüística y a prevenir traducciones domesticadoras, y que los estudiantes de intercambio sean protagonistas



en la fase de reformulación, de modo que los estudiantes del centro puedan observar que la competencia nativa perfecta no existe. Las autoras también animan a sus alumnos a argumentar en clase sus decisiones de traducción, lo que puede ayudar a afianzar la confianza en sí mismos.

Goodwin & McLaren (2003) ofrecen algunas ideas prácticas con vistas a dar a los estudiantes unas pautas para que puedan defenderse con éxito en la iniciación a la traducción inversa y la traducción inversa de textos especializados. En cuanto a esta última, proponen una introducción a la investigación (documentación sobre la temática), ejercicios con textos paralelos y elaboración de glosarios. También se preocupan por la tipología textual y proponen ejercicios de autocorrección y corrección de pruebas.

Cámara (2003) enseña traducción inversa en el marco de la traducción científico-técnica de cuarto curso a estudiantes que ya han realizado ejercicios de pretraducción y de traducción en campos de menor especialización y, por tanto, están preparados para actividades más complejas. En este contexto, les invita a buscar sus propios textos originales y a traducirlos en grupo como si se tratara de un encargo profesional. La autora propone, entre otras cosas, elaborar glosarios, detectar problemas en los originales, usar textos paralelos y revisar traducciones (a cargo de nativos).

Jennings (2005: 178) se apoya en el dominio de la lengua materna y en la contrastividad genérica (sintaxis, léxico y organización discursiva) y propone tareas de traducción para que sus estudiantes comprendan los atributos de diferentes géneros textuales (en especial los que tienen presencia en el mercado de la traducción) y aumenten su capacidad de “recrear diferentes tipos de lenguaje apropiados para cada uno”.

Yuste-Frías (2005: 160) opina que la enseñanza de la traducción inversa “no tiene por qué limitarse sólo a la traducción de textos que han constituido reales encargos”. En este sentido, propone ejercicios de redacción destinados al desarrollo y afianzamiento de la expresión escrita en lengua extranjera, ejercicios destinados a la formación de base en el uso de fuentes de información terminológica y documental en lengua extranjera, y ejercicios de lectura destinados a asimilar la segunda lengua y cultura. También promueve una especie de inmersión lingüística digital gracias a las posibilidades actuales de visionar distintas cadenas extranjeras y escuchar distintas emisoras.

Roiss (2006) propone tareas previas a la traducción, como 1) ordenar y desglosar la información de los textos originales, 2) analizar el desarrollo temático del texto original a nivel formal, y 3) analizar de modo exhaustivo los verbos del microtexto. Todas estas tareas se complementan con el estudio de textos paralelos y los géneros. La autora opina que estos ejercicios desvían los impulsos de los estudiantes de comenzar a traducir sin análisis previo, lo que les ayuda a sentirse más seguros.

Zimmermann (2007: 401) se preocupa por desarrollar la competencia comunicativa, textual e instrumental por medio de objetivos como “saber redactar textos de las clases textuales tratados durante el curso”, o “conocer los recursos documentales relevantes para el(/los) campo(s) de especialidad tratado(s)”. No limita las actividades a tareas de traducción o encargos de traducción, y propone breves estudios sobre temas de especialidad, actividades de documentación, de análisis textual, de redacción o ejercicios apoyo lingüístico; tareas individuales o en grupos, estas últimas de interés para implicar a los estudiantes extranjeros como correctores.



Con vistas a sistematizar un proceso de traducción inversa especializada que cumpla con los requisitos de funcionalidad, Neunzig & Grauwinkel (2004, 2006, 2008 y 2010) proponen un modelo formativo para la traducción de textos informativos o instructivos (administrativos, comerciales, técnicos, económicos, etc.). Entienden que en traducción inversa el traductor reformula, corrige y revisa el texto original, y no el borrador de su traducción, tal como ocurre en traducción directa. En este sentido, su modelo se basa en tres pilares: 1) el aprovechamiento de los conocimientos de la lengua materna para la preparación sistemática del original (apoyo interno), 2) la aplicación de conocimientos de traducción para prever y solucionar los problemas que se plantearán durante la fase de transferencia y 3) el uso inteligente de TIC (apoyo externo) para compensar la falta de pericia en la expresión en lengua extranjera. La idea es combinar estos tres pilares para evitar cometer errores y “cumplir con el objetivo comunicativo que es la exactitud en la transmisión del contenido de manera lingüísticamente adecuada, todo ello en un tiempo razonable (economía de esfuerzo)”. Su aplicación se desarrolla en cinco fases básicas: 1) aproximación al texto original (comprensión, detección de posibles “trampas”, neutralización de vicios lingüísticos); 2) preparación del original para su traducción (reformulación para facilitar la traducción literal); 3) preparación de la traducción (búsqueda de propuestas de traducción para términos, sintagmas o colocaciones que se encuentran en el centro de atención y uso de TIC); 4) transferencia (esfuerzo documental para asegurar la exactitud de tecnicismos mediante doble o triple comprobación); y, en caso de publicación, 5) revisión de la traducción (si un nativo experto en el tema revisa la traducción, en principio, se obtiene la versión ideal).

### **3 Recapitulación**

Las reflexiones que acabamos de reseñar no son en absoluto exhaustivas, pero sí que parecen dar cuenta de que existe cierto acuerdo en que la enseñanza de la traducción inversa para futuros traductores profesionales requiere un cambio de perspectiva y metodología distinto a la enseñanza de la lengua extranjera. Se desprende igualmente que la didáctica de la traducción inversa ha de diferenciarse de la didáctica de la traducción directa no sólo en el diseño de objetivos, sino también de planteamientos metodológicos, en tanto en cuanto cada una tiene sus propias especificidades respecto del proceso traductor. No obstante, también parece que es necesario tener en cuenta la complementariedad de ambas modalidades en el ámbito de la formación. Asimismo, se distingue la iniciación de la práctica de la traducción inversa, en la que se hace hincapié en la captación del propio proceso traductor, de la traducción inversa especializada, destinada, en líneas generales, a la traducción de los textos propios del ámbito de especialización, así como a la adquisición de unas competencias específicas. A este respecto, los formadores parecen hacer cierto énfasis en el desarrollo de las competencias textual (fundamentalmente desde la textología contrastiva) y documental, ambas combinadas con el desarrollo de estrategias de traducción y el uso inteligente de tecnologías. Todo ello parece poder llevarse a cabo mediante una amplia gama de actividades y tareas que incidan en los distintos procesos que forman parte del proceso global de traducción inversa. También se alude a la traducción en grupo, así como a la necesidad de que el profesorado implicado en asignaturas relacionadas con la documentación o la terminología se coordine con el de traducción.

### **4 Propuesta de actividades**

Las actividades que presentamos a continuación tienen aplicación en las asignaturas de Traducción económica, financiera y comercial I y II, que impartimos en el segundo ciclo del itinerario de francés de la Licenciatura de Traducción e Interpretación en la Universidad de Alicante. Se trata de asignaturas de seis créditos (cuatro horas semanales de clase durante



quince semanas) en las que trabajamos diversas áreas especializadas y géneros textuales (sistemas financieros, seguros, contratación, productos bancarios, contabilidad, correspondencia, fiscalidad, etc.). Cada una o dos semanas presentamos un nuevo género textual relacionado con las áreas anteriores a partir del cual proponemos diversos ejercicios en una plataforma virtual.<sup>i</sup>

Aunque en clase trabajamos aspectos relacionados con los géneros y el contraste interlingüístico, algo necesario, dicho sea de paso, no solo en traducción inversa especializada, sino también en traducción directa, en este trabajo preferimos dejar de lado este tipo de actividades y remitir al lector a otros trabajos en los que proponemos actividades relacionadas a tal efecto (Gallego-Hernández, 2010).

Así pues, el tipo de actividades que presentamos en este trabajo se sitúa en el nivel microtextual y tiene que ver, a tenor de las reflexiones expuestas en el apartado anterior, tanto con el dominio de la lengua materna como de las herramientas tecnológicas de las que se puede hacer uso en traducción. En concreto, presentamos seis tipos de actividades. La primera se relaciona directamente con la reexpresión intralingüística de textos originales y se apoya, por tanto, en el dominio de la lengua materna. Si bien la segunda tiene que ver con la traducción directa, se trata igualmente de una actividad en la que los estudiantes también hacen uso de apoyo interno. La tercera actividad está relacionada con el uso de herramientas lexicográficas y terminográficas. La cuarta y quinta actividades tienen que ver con el uso de textos paralelos, ya sea directamente en la red, ya sea por medio de corpus *ad hoc*. Por último, la sexta actividad invita a los estudiantes a revisar traducciones y a debatir en el aula. Veámoslas con más detalle.

#### **4.1 Reformulación intralingüística**

Este tipo de actividades incide en la diferencia que parece existir en el proceso de traducción inversa que siguen los profesionales y el aprovechamiento que hacen del dominio de su lengua materna. En concreto, tratamos de que los estudiantes parafraseen la redacción de los textos originales en español de modo que cuando se dispongan a trasvasarlos al francés no tengan que enfrentarse con elementos que no aportan nada desde el punto de vista informativo y que pueden suponer alguna dificultad de redacción: *mises en reliefs*, correlaciones, estructuras sintácticas complejas, etc.

En la siguiente captura de pantalla apreciamos un ejercicio previo a la traducción en el que hemos seleccionado una serie de oraciones del propio texto original cuya traducción literal puede suponer alguna dificultad de traducción:

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<sup>i</sup> La plataforma virtual a la que nos referimos se llama "Plataforma multimedia para la docencia virtual, presencial y semipresencial" y ha sido desarrollada por el programador del laboratorio de la Facultad de Filosofía y Letras de la Universidad de Alicante. Sus aplicaciones a la práctica de la traducción y la interpretación están siendo investigadas por los miembros de INTTRA <<http://dti.ua.es/es/intra>>, la red de investigación docente a la que pertenecemos.

8268-texto04-02-reformulación Intralingüística (Traducción económica, financiera y comercial (Daniel Gallego))	
<b>Instrucciones</b>	
Reformula en español los siguientes segmentos:	
<b>1.-</b>	Ésa es la opinión más extendida entre los 'brokers'
	<input type="text" value="La mayor parte de los brokers piensa..."/>
<b>2.-</b>	De los 50 analistas consultados por este diario, 48 creen...
	<input type="text" value="48 de los 50 analistas creen..."/>
<b>3.-</b>	Los asesores piden cautela a los clientes porque...
	<input type="text" value="Los asesores recomiendan a los clientes que tomen precauciones..."/>
<b>4.-</b>	...la renta variable mostró su cara más ingrata y lo hizo con gran virulencia...
	<input type="text" value="...la renta variable se desplomó vertiginosamente..."/>
<b>5.-</b>	Ahora el miedo se ha apoderado del inversor, tanto del grande como del pequeño...
	<input type="text" value="Los pequeños y grandes inversores tienen miedo..."/>
<input type="button" value="Enviar"/> <input type="button" value="Restablecer"/>	

**Imagen 1.** Ejercicio de reformulación intralingüística basado en traducción literal

Por supuesto, este tipo de actividades también puede tener unos fundamentos distintos a los relacionados con la dificultad de hacer una traducción literal. En este sentido, la siguiente actividad, por ejemplo, surge como consecuencia de los resultados obtenidos en otro ejercicio previo de análisis contrastivo de géneros textuales en el que los estudiantes comprendían que el discurso comercial en francés lleva una carga mucho más importante del uso del pronombre *vous*, verbos en imperativo, así como verbos modales acompañados de dicho pronombre. En concreto, en esta actividad obligamos a los estudiantes a parafrasear una serie de oraciones aparecidas en el texto original empleando a principio de oración un verbo en imperativo:

8268-texto08-02-reformulación Intralingüística (Traducción económica, financiera y comercial (Daniel Gallego))	
<b>Instrucciones</b>	
Reformula en la lengua original los siguientes segmentos apareados en el <b>texto08</b> <b>empleando siempre a principio de oración un verbo en imperativo.</b>	
<b>1.-</b>	Dispositivo de Telepeaje CAM VIA-T gratuito <input type="text" value="CAM VIA-T y no te detengas en los peajes"/>
<b>2.-</b>	Línea de atención exclusiva: Llamando al 901 11 00 11 o platinum@cam.es <input type="text" value="Aprovechate de nuestra línea de atención exclusiva"/>
<b>3.-</b>	Tus viajes sin preocupaciones <input type="text" value="Evita las preocupaciones en tus viajes"/>
<b>4.-</b>	Tus Compras: Totalmente Protegidas <input type="text" value="Compra con tu tarjeta con total seguridad"/>
<b>5.-</b>	Pago Aplazado CAM. 3 Meses sin Intereses Incluido <input type="text" value="Haz tus compras y paga en 3 meses sin intereses"/>
<input type="button" value="Enviar"/> <input type="button" value="Restablecer"/>	

**Imagen 2.** Ejercicio de reformulación intralingüística basado en análisis discursivo

#### 4.2 Actividad de traducción directa limitada

No queremos cerrar nuestra propuesta de actividades basadas en el dominio de la lengua materna sin dejar de sugerir otra actividad similar a la anterior, aunque situada en el plano de la traducción directa. La idea básica es acostumbrar a los estudiantes a deshacerse de esa tendencia a la traducción literal tan frecuente en la traducción entre el francés y el español. Para ello, les proponemos actividades que les obliguen, aunque sea en determinados segmentos textuales, a traducir evitando la literalidad. Este tipo de ejercicio da pie a diferentes enunciados en los que se puede tener en cuenta, por ejemplo, las técnicas de traducción oblicua, como la transposición o la modulación:

8268-texto02-02-reformulación (Traducción económica, financiera y comercial (Daniel Gallego))	
<b>1.-</b>	<p>Traduce la siguiente oración trasponiendo el sustantivo "attentisme": Le premier semestre a été marqué par l'attentisme lié à la crise.</p> <p>El primer semestre se ha visto marcado por una actitud expectante relacionada con la crisis.</p>
<b>2.-</b>	<p>Traduce la siguiente oración trasponiendo el sustantivo "croissance": Au total, sur 2005, la croissance de la zone euro aura été d'à peine 0,2 %.</p> <p>En total, a lo largo de 2005, la zona euro apenas ha crecido un 0,2%.</p>
<b>3.-</b>	<p>Traduce la siguiente oración evitando el calco sintáctico: Au début de l'été toutefois, des signes d'amélioration sont apparus...</p> <p>Sin embargo, al comienzo del verano se han observado signos de mejora...</p>
<b>4.-</b>	<p>Traduce la siguiente oración trasponiendo el adjetivo "tardive": En France, la reprise a été plus tardive et moins marquée.</p> <p>En Francia, la recuperación ha tardado en llegar y no ha sido tan importante.</p>
<b>5.-</b>	<p>Traduce la siguiente oración trasponiendo el adjetivo "timide": La reprise de l'investissement des entreprises françaises est toutefois restée extrêmement timide.</p> <p>Ahora bien, la recuperación de la inversión de las empresas francesas se ha ralentizado en exceso.</p>
<p>Enviar Restablecer</p>	

Imagen 3. Ejercicio de traducción directa limitada

#### 4.3 Uso de fuentes terminológicas

El tipo de actividades que hemos presentado hasta a hora se basa en el dominio de la lengua materna. Ahora bien, teniendo en cuenta las reflexiones recogidas en la revisión de la bibliografía presentada anteriormente, en la práctica de la traducción inversa en contexto formativo y, en especial, en traducción especializada, también creemos que es necesario la inclusión de actividades previas a la traducción que guíen a los traductores en formación en la utilización de fuentes lexicográficas o terminológicas, que les acostumbren a emplearlas de manera sistemática, que les muestren sus ventajas y desventajas, que les den a conocer los repertorios de los que disponen, etc. En la actividad que mostramos a continuación, por ejemplo, instamos a los estudiantes a que empleen diferentes bases de datos terminológicas, como TERMIUMPLUS, Termcat, IATE, Euskalterm o Grand dictionnaire terminologique, y a consultar una serie de unidades aparecidas en el texto original que más tarde traducirán:



<b>8268-taxto01-03-terminología (BDT) (Traducción económica, financiera y comercial (Daniel Gallego))</b>	
<b>Instrucciones</b>	
Busca en las bases de datos terminológicas <b>TERMIUM PLUS, Termcat, IATE, Euskalterm</b> o <b>Grand dictionnaire terminologique</b> una propuesta de traducción al francés de los siguientes términos aparecidos en el <b>taxto01</b> , cuyo original se encuentra en el archivo <b>Sistemas financieros</b> . Cuando termines el ejercicio, evalúa las bases de datos en la carpeta de bases de datos terminológicas disponible en <b>Enleacos</b> .	
<b>1.-</b>	unidades de gasto <input type="text"/>
<b>2.-</b>	unidades de gasto con déficit <input type="text"/>
<b>3.-</b>	activos financieros <input type="text"/>
<b>4.-</b>	emitir activos financieros <input type="text"/>
<b>5.-</b>	acciones <input type="text"/>
<b>6.-</b>	obligaciones <input type="text"/>
<b>7.-</b>	corredor <input type="text"/>
<b>8.-</b>	mediador <input type="text"/>

Imagen 4. Ejercicio de explotación de fuentes terminológicas



Esta actividad, además de darles a conocer las bases de datos en cuestión e incitar a la reflexión en torno a conceptos terminológicos, les obliga a llevar a cabo un trabajo terminológico previo a la traducción y les hace ver que no siempre encontrarán una traducción o una definición de todos los términos, caso de *unidades de gasto con déficit*. Ello invita al debate en clase, por ejemplo, en torno a aventurarse a hacer una traducción literal y sus consecuencias, a buscar propuestas de traducción, etc.

#### **4.4 Búsqueda de paralelismos en textos paralelos en Internet**

Este tipo de actividades tiene que ver con el apoyo externo que, en forma de textos paralelos, los estudiantes pueden obtener de la red. A diferencia de los ejercicios de reformulación intralingüística, en los que los estudiantes parafrasean el español para facilitar la redacción de su traducción, la idea básica tiene que ver con la búsqueda de segmentos escritos en la lengua de llegada relacionados informativa o conceptualmente con los segmentos del texto original. Todo ello con el propósito de que, con las modificaciones oportunas, los estudiantes puedan redactar una propuesta de traducción. No se trata de ofrecerles los textos paralelos para que busquen paralelismos o hagan análisis de tipo contrastivo, sino de que sean ellos mismos quienes busquen los textos.

Estos ejercicios pueden tener varias posibilidades. En la siguiente captura de pantalla, por ejemplo, ofrecemos a los estudiantes posibles ecuaciones de búsqueda con las que pueden interrogar a Google y comenzar a buscar segmentos en lengua de llegada. En este caso concreto, no les invitamos a acceder a los textos enlazados en cada resultado, sino a leer los descriptores que devuelve el propio buscador con el propósito de localizar segmentos que puedan emplear en la redacción de su traducción:

<b>8262-texto06-02-búsqueda de paralelismos (motores de búsqueda) (Traducción económica, financiera y comercial (Daniel Gallego))</b>	
<b>Instrucciones</b>	Busca en los enlaces propuestos más abajo paralelismos conceptuales (parciales o globales) relacionados con cada uno de los siguientes segmentos originales del 8262-texto06:
<b>1.-</b>	<p>Traducciones Arcadia le ofrece dos ventajas muy difíciles de combinar: un trabajo de calidad y unos precios asequibles.</p> <p>Búsqueda: <code>qualité prix</code></p> <p><a href="#">Les services de Traducciones Arcadia se distinguent par un excellent rapport qualité/prix.</a></p>
<b>2.-</b>	<p>Nuestros excelentes traductores merecen una retribución a la altura de su talento.</p> <p>Búsqueda: <code>"rémunéré selon" "rémunérés selon"</code></p> <p><a href="#">Notre équipe de traducteurs est rémunéré selon ses mérites.</a></p>
<b>3.-</b>	<p>Le offrecemos unas tarifas muy interesantes.</p> <p>Búsqueda: <code>"nous vous offrons des tarifs"</code></p> <p><a href="#">Nous vous offrons des tarifs compétitifs.</a></p>
<b>4.-</b>	<p>Le offrecemos nuestros servicios en calidad de traductores autónomos, por lo que no incurrimos en gastos de salarios para personal administrativo ni de alquiler de locales.</p> <p>Búsqueda: <code>"pas de frais" traduction</code></p> <p><a href="#">ous vous proposons de nombreux services en tant que traducteurs indépendants, vous ne payez donc pas de frais d'agence.</a></p>
<b>5.-</b>	<p>Le offrecemos la ventaja de un contacto personal y directo.</p> <p>Búsqueda: <code>bénéficier contact direct</code></p> <p><a href="#">Nous vous offrons un service personnel grâce au contact direct avec nos traducteurs.</a></p>
<b>6.-</b>	<p>Confiamos sus traducciones a profesionales de lengua materna especializados en su campo. Ellos se encargan de la traducción y revisión final. Esto nos permite entregarle traducciones fluidas, precisas y listas para publicar, todo ello a un precio muy razonable.</p> <p>Búsqueda: <code>"vos traductions" "nos traducteurs"</code></p> <p>Búsqueda: <code>traduction prix qualité</code></p> <p><a href="#">Nos traducteurs sont des professionnels qualifiés travaillant dans leur langue maternelle et spécialisés dans leurs domaines respectifs, ce</a></p>

Imagen 5. Ejercicio de búsqueda de paralelismos en la web (búsquedas propuestas)

Esta actividad, además de retomar el tema de las estrategias de búsqueda (operadores, sintaxis, etc.), permite concienciar a los estudiantes de que en su traducción pueden emplear



frases, partes de frases, expresiones, etc., redactadas previamente por nativos en contextos o situaciones de comunicación parecidas a las del texto original.

En el siguiente ejemplo, en cambio, tras haber ideado una estrategia para localizar textos paralelos (en concreto, identificar un sitio que albergue varios textos), invitamos a los estudiantes a buscar segmentos paralelos como ellos consideren oportuno. Para ello pueden, o bien acceder a los textos en sí y localizar dichos segmentos en los propios archivos, o bien localizar dichos segmentos a partir de la lectura de los resultados que les pueda devolver Google, siempre que le interroguen con el operador *site*:

<p><b>7.-</b></p> <p>Navega ahora por <a href="http://www.info-financiere.fr">www.info-financiere.fr</a> y localiza un mínimo de tres textos paralelos en francés contenidos en el mismo macrogénero que el texto original asociado a este ejercicio.</p> <p><a href="http://www.info-financiere.fr/upload/ECO/2010/03/FCECO015303_20100329.pdf">http://www.info-financiere.fr/upload/ECO/2010/03/FCECO015303_20100329.pdf</a> <a href="http://www.info-financiere.fr/upload/CNS/8888/01/FCCNS026093_20100325.pdf">http://www.info-financiere.fr/upload/CNS/8888/01/FCCNS026093_20100325.pdf</a> <a href="http://www.info-financiere.fr/upload/CNS/8888/01/FCCNS026057_20100324.pdf">http://www.info-financiere.fr/upload/CNS/8888/01/FCCNS026057_20100324.pdf</a></p>
<p><b>8.-</b></p> <p>Navega ahora por <a href="http://www.plancomptable.com">www.plancomptable.com</a> e identifica aquellos enlaces que explican la información que deben contener las memorias de cuentas anuales en Francia.</p> <p><a href="http://www.plancomptable.com/titre-V/titre-V_chapitre-III_section-1.htm">http://www.plancomptable.com/titre-V/titre-V_chapitre-III_section-1.htm</a> <a href="http://www.plancomptable.com/titre-V/titre-V_chapitre-III_section-2.htm">http://www.plancomptable.com/titre-V/titre-V_chapitre-III_section-2.htm</a></p>
<p><b>9.-</b></p> <p>Localiza en cualquier texto paralelo redactado en francés un paralelismo respecto del segmento <i>se registran por su coste de adquisición</i>.</p> <p><a href="http://www.journal-officiel.gouv.fr/publi">Les immobilisations corporelles sont évaluées à leur coût d'acquisition; en http://www.journal-officiel.gouv.fr/publi</a></p>
<p><b>10.-</b></p> <p>Localiza en cualquier texto paralelo redactado en francés un paralelismo respecto del segmento <i>se amortizan linealmente en 5 años</i>.</p> <p><a href="http://www.adenclassifieds.com/uploads/File/adenc">Les logiciels acquis sont amortis linéairement sur 2 à 3 ans; en http://www.adenclassifieds.com/uploads/File/adenc</a></p>
<p><b>11.-</b></p> <p>Localiza en cualquier texto paralelo redactado en francés un paralelismo respecto del segmento <i>se contabilizan por el coste de adquisición de los bienes</i>.</p> <p><a href="http://www.stef-tfe.fr/espace-financier/informtdons-reglementees/rappo">sont évaluées à leur coût d'acquisition; en http://www.stef-tfe.fr/espace-financier/informtdons-reglementees/rappo</a></p>
<p><b>12.-</b></p> <p>Localiza en cualquier texto paralelo redactado en francés un paralelismo respecto del segmento <i>los bienes del Inmovilizado material se presentan valorados a su coste de adquisición</i>.</p> <p><a href="http://www.rac-f.org/IMG/pdf/RAPPORT">Les immobilisations corporelles sont évaluées à leur coût d'acquisition; en http://www.rac-f.org/IMG/pdf/RAPPORT</a></p>
<p><b>13.-</b></p> <p>Localiza en cualquier texto paralelo redactado en francés un paralelismo respecto del segmento <i>la Sociedad amortiza su Inmovilizado material siguiendo el método lineal</i>.</p> <p><a href="http://www.fondati">Les amortissements des immobilisations corporelles sont calculés selon la méthode linéaire; en http://www.fondati</a></p>
<p><input type="button" value="Enviar"/> <input type="button" value="Restablecer"/></p>

Imagen 6. Ejercicio de búsqueda de paralelismos en documentos (búsquedas elaboradas)



#### **4.5 Búsqueda de paralelismos en corpus *ad hoc***

En otros trabajos explicamos la metodología que seguimos en el aula para que nuestros estudiantes compilen sus propios corpus *ad hoc* (Gallego-Hernández, 2012: 259-336). La explotación tanto de los corpus que ellos mismos compilan como de los que, en ocasiones, ponemos a su disposición tiene, como es de esperar, una utilidad inminente en la práctica de la traducción inversa. En nuestro caso, procuramos que los estudiantes exploten los corpus con fines tanto terminológicos como fraseológicos, dependiendo del ejercicio. Se trata de una actividad que proponemos en último año, cuando los estudiantes ya han cursado o están cursando otras asignaturas, como terminología, en la que han aprendido a usar las herramientas que suelen ofrecer las aplicaciones de explotación de corpus, en nuestro caso, la aplicación Antconc y sus herramientas de concordancias, listados de palabras y n-gramas. La siguiente imagen muestra una captura de pantalla en la que instamos a nuestros estudiantes a buscar en un corpus propuestas de traducción de una serie de términos que aparecen en el texto original:

8268-Texto05-03-búsqueda de paralelismos II (Traducción económica, financiera y comercial (Daniel Gallego))	
<b>Instrucciones</b>	
<b>Identifica en el corpus paralelismos relacionados con los siguientes segmentos del texto05.</b>	
<b>1.-</b>	
lanzar una opa	<input type="text" value="lancer une OPA"/>
<b>2.-</b>	
oferente	<input type="text" value="initiateur"/>
<b>3.-</b>	
establecer condiciones	<input type="text" value="établissant les conditions; en présent les conditions"/>
<b>4.-</b>	
sujetas a condición	<input type="text" value="soumise à la condition"/>
<b>5.-</b>	
sociedad opada	<input type="text" value="société cible; société visée"/>
<b>6.-</b>	
sociedad oferente	<input type="text" value="société émettrice"/>
<b>7.-</b>	
contraprestación	<input type="text" value="prbc; contrepartie"/>
<b>8.-</b>	
folleto de la opa	<input type="text" value="note d'information"/>

Imagen 7. Ejercicio de extracción terminológica en corpus *ad hoc*

Este tipo de actividades permite, entre otras cosas, enfatizar en las estrategias de explotación de corpus (palabras clave, truncación, lectura ordenada de concordancias, etc.).

En la siguiente actividad, en cambio, les instamos a que busquen paralelismos que, aunque no puedan utilizarse tal cual en la redacción de sus traducciones, sí que puedan servir de material que, con las modificaciones pertinentes, ayude a reexpresar en la lengua de llegada los segmentos en cuestión:

8268-texto05-02-búsqueda de paralelismos (Traducción económica, financiera y comercial (Daniel Gallego))	
<b>Instrucciones</b>	
Identifica en el <b>corpus</b> paralelismos relacionados con los siguientes segmentos del <b>texto05</b> . <b>OJO:</b> No se trata de traducir, sino de identificar en el corpus segmentos que, con las adaptaciones necesarias, puedan servir para reexpresar a la lengua de llegada el segmento en cuestión.	
<b>1.-</b>	
ofrecen a todos los accionistas de una compañía cotizada la compra de sus acciones [...] a cambio de un precio.	
	<input type="text" value="proposer aux actionnaires d'une société l'acquisition de la totalité des titres composant le capital à un prix donné"/>
<b>2.-</b>	
Las opas redben distintas denominaciones	
	<input type="text" value="Les offres publiques peuvent être de plusieurs types :"/>
<b>3.-</b>	
la compañía deje de cotizar en bolsa	
	<input type="text" value="la société sera radiée du marché et ses titres ne seront plus négociables"/>
<b>4.-</b>	
se presentan por el 100% de las acciones de la compañía	
	<input type="text" value="doivent porter sur la totalité du capital de la société visée"/>
<b>5.-</b>	
El plazo para la aceptación de la oferta	
	<input type="text" value="La période d'offre"/>
	<input type="button" value="Enviar"/> <input type="button" value="Restablecer"/>

Imagen 8. Ejercicio de extracción de paralelismos en corpus *ad hoc*

Como se aprecia en la imagen, los segmentos que presentamos pueden ir más allá de la mera terminología o fraseología, lo que les obliga a tener una mentalidad abierta a la hora de buscar paralelismos, pues, en la mayor parte de los casos, no encontrarán equivalencias o paralelismos totales.

#### 4.6 Revisión de traducciones

Cerramos nuestra propuesta de actividades con ejercicios de revisión que, diseñados a nuestra conveniencia, pueden servir para que nuestros estudiantes desempeñen un papel activo en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje revisando o evaluando las traducciones de sus compañeros tanto en casa como en clase. La idea básica consiste en diseñar ejercicios de selección

múltiple sobre la base de las traducciones de los textos entregada por los estudiantes. En el marco de la traducción inversa la actividad puede no solo incitar al debate, sino también dar la palabra al alumnado de otras universidades extranjeras, que, entre otras cosas, puede guiar al alumnado propio en la corrección lingüística, pues, en el caso de aquellos, se trata de su lengua materna.

<b>8268-taxto12-06-revisión (votación) (Traducción económica, financiera y comercial (Daniel Gallego))</b>	
<b>Instrucciones</b>	
Selecciona la traducción o las traducciones de tus compañeros que mejor te parezcan para poder comentarlas después en clase.	
<b>1.-</b>	<p>De una parte, Don XXX, mayor de edad, con N.I.F. XXX, vecina de XXX, con domicilio en XXX ..., en adelante, el Vendedor ... Y de otra, Doña XXX, mayor de edad, con N.I.F. XXX, vecina de XXX, con domicilio en XXX, en adelante, el Comprador</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li><input type="checkbox"/> D'une part, M. XXX, majeur, titulaire d'une carte d'identité n° XXX, demeurant à XXX, rue XXX, ci-après le Vendeur... D'autre part, Mme XXX, majeure, titulaire d'une carte d'identité n° XXX, demeurant à XXX, rue XXX, ci-après l'Acheteur.</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> D'une part Monsieur xxx, majeur, carte d'identité n°xxx, domicilié au xxx à xxx, ci-après désigné vendeur ; et d'autre part Madame xxx, majeure, carte d'identité n°xxx, domiciliée au xxx à xxx, ci-après désignée acquéreur</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> D'une part, M. XXX, majeur, avec pièce d'identité numéro XXXX, domicilié au XXX, ci-après dénommé le vendeur... Et d'autre part, Mme XXX, majeure, avec pièce d'identité, domiciliée au XXX, ci-après dénommé, l'Acheteur...</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> Monsieur XXX, majeur, pourvu d'une carte d'identité dont le numéro XXX, domicilié à XXX, le Vendeur... d'une part. Et Madame XXX, majeure, pourvue d'une carte d'identité dont le numéro XXX, domiciliée à XXX, l'acheteur d'une autre part.</li></ul>
<b>2.-</b>	<p>El plazo de duración y vigencia del presente Contrato queda fijado en XXX años, a contar desde el día XXX.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li><input type="checkbox"/> La durée du présent Contrat est fixé pour XXX ans, à compter du XXX.</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> Le délai de durée et de vigueur du Contrat présent reste fixé sur XXX années, à compter depuis le XXX de ce mois.</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> Ce contrat a un délai et une validité de XXX ans, à compter dès le jour XXX.</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> Le présent contrat est conclu pour une durée de XXX ans, à compter de XXX.</li></ul>
<b>3.-</b>	<p>El aparejador y/o arquitecto técnico, podrá dar por rescindido el encargo, por alguna de las causas siguientes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li><input type="checkbox"/> Le métreur et/ou architecte technique, pourra résilier le contrat par les suivantes causes :</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> le monteur ou/et archtèqute technique pourra réliser le contrat grace a ces causes suivantes:</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> Le métreur et/ou l'architecte technique pourra considérer que la commande est résiliée par suite d'une des suivantes causes :</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> Le technicien du bâtiment peut résilier le contrat dans les cas suivants:</li></ul>
<b>4.-</b>	<p>El trabajador deberá preavisar al empresario con 15 días de antelación la fecha en que se reincorporará a su jornada ordinaria.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li><input type="checkbox"/> Le salarié doit prévenir l'employeur 15 jours avant la date de sa réintégration dans son poste de travail.</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> Le travailleur doit donner à l'employeur un préavis de 15 jours à la date sur laquelle il reviendra au travail.</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> Le travailleur devra prévenir à l'entrepreneur avec 15 jours d'anticipation la date dans laquelle il sera réincorporé à sa journée ordinaire.</li><li><input type="checkbox"/> Le travailleur devra donner son préavis 15 jours avant la date à laquelle il se réincorporera à sa journée habituelle.</li></ul>

Imagen 9. Ejercicio de revisión de traducciones

## 5 A modo de conclusión

En el presente trabajo hemos tratado de presentar una serie de actividades relacionadas con la traducción inversa en el marco de la traducción económica, comercial y financiera. La aplicación de estas actividades surge de las reflexiones que los investigadores y profesores de



la traducción inversa han dado a conocer en diferentes publicaciones durante los últimos años. En esencia, estas actividades se fundamentan en el dominio de la lengua materna que deben tener los estudiantes de segundo ciclo, así como en sus destrezas a la hora de utilizar de manera estratégica las tecnologías de la información, todo ello arropado por el análisis de los géneros textuales del ámbito de la economía y los negocios. Asimismo, las actividades presentadas están en consonancia con la opinión extendida de que, en el marco de la traducción inversa, conviene incluir diferentes tareas de preparación a esta modalidad que vayan más allá de la simple traducción de textos e intentar incitar al debate en clase, donde cada vez más los estudiantes nativos conviven con los no nativos. La experiencia en el aula con este tipo de actividades nos hace pensar que vamos por buen camino, pues, en líneas generales, el clima que se respira en el aula es de satisfacción y los estudiantes se muestran interesados por hacer actividades de reformulación, terminología y documentación complementarias a la traducción de textos.

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# **A qualitative inquiry into the dilemmas and challenges perceived by teachers in ESP instruction**

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## **Abstract**

In this article, the author explores six teachers' experiences of ESP instruction in order to better understand the nature of the professional knowledge needed to make use of conflict and to manage a particular teaching dilemma. The approach adopted for this study is interpretative, using the case study method. Six participating teachers were interviewed over a three month period at four universities in Taiwan. The frameworks of socio-cultural theory and grounded theory guided the data analysis. The author's intention is to show that such an inquiry can reveal ways in which those teachers' stories are telling cases that may enable others to respond and make meaning of their own experiences. Unraveling what constitutes professional knowledge in the practice of teaching is messy work, but the author hopes that when seen through the lens of six teachers' balancing act of managing dilemmas, blending practice and theory, improvising, and reflecting on these processes, some clarity will be revealed.

## **1 Introduction**

Given the role English plays around the world, it is not surprising that a substantial and growing number of universities in non-English speaking countries have started offering English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses to promote students' competency in English language in their own field of specialization, enhance their employability, and to increase their opportunities for professional mobility (Marginson & Mc. Burnie, 2004). However, ESP has developed at different speeds in different countries due to the varying needs and specifications that arise in each language-learning setting. Thus, it may not be considered a monolithic universal phenomenon (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

ESP with the focus on developing various branches of English language education is relatively new in Taiwan and most teachers do not have adequate formal training in this field (Huang, 1997). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) coined the term "practitioner" for ESP teachers since, they believe, many pivotal roles such as course designer, materials developer, researcher, evaluator, and classroom teacher should be taken on by an ESP instructor.



Therefore, ESP teaching requires a special approach to the training of the teachers who are supposed to teach English through content. It is estimated that roughly 95% of those currently teaching in the context of ESP are self-taught both in ESP and in the specific field in which they teach (Orr, 1995).

Canbay and Berecen (2012) point out that teachers' conceptions shape their instructional decisions in the classroom. "In other words, what teachers do in their classrooms is oriented by their conceptions of teaching which are derived from their beliefs including a teacher's prior experiences, school practices, and a teacher's individual personality" (Canbay & Berecen, 2012:71). Teachers form conceptions consciously and these guide their teaching throughout their careers. However, most of the literature on ESP is concerned with what should be taught and its implications for the syllabus and design of the material, with occasional forays into the role of the learner during the learning process. Research in teachers' conceptions of ESP teaching has often been ignored, with the result that research, exploring the decisions ESP teachers take in the teaching/learning process is relatively rare (Watson Todd, 2003).

### **1.1 Purpose**

The aim of this small-scale exploratory study was to disclose ESP teachers' perceived dilemmas, both with respect to the content and nature of the dilemmas (the 'What') and to the ways of coping with them through the selection and use of strategies for their resolution (the 'How'). Here, *dilemmas* are defined as "situations which caused the beginning teachers to make a decision between two equally important choices" (Sparrow, 2000:289). The result is a predicament in which "each of the available choices ... involves a choice of negative factors as well as positive ones" (Katz & Raths, 1992:376). Resolving the dilemma is a matter of compromise and ongoing management of the conflicts (Katz & Raths, 1992). By providing opportunities for teachers to report in their own words, we might gain some insights into their understanding of and attitude towards some of these difficulties and dilemmas in ESP instruction.

### **1.2 Significance of the study**

What is presently needed in the field of ESP is some instruction on how English teachers entering the domain of ESP for the first time can efficiently orient themselves to ESP as well as familiarize themselves with the profession of their ESP learners. This research is an attempt to assist those officials responsible for providing support to ESP teachers. This study will allow them to better identify the needs of ESP teachers, provide the appropriate in-service training and courses, including ESP teacher education development. It is also hoped that this study will provide some insight into the challenges facing those English teachers that are acting as curriculum developers of ESP instruction.

## **2 Literature review**

### **2.1 The origins of ESP**

The insights gained from the origin of ESP reveal three basic reasons: the demands of a brave new world, a revolution in linguistics, and a focus on the learner. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note that two key historical periods breathed life into ESP. First, the end of the Second World War brought with it an " ... age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale...for various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, the role [of international language] fell to English" (p. 6). Second, the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s resulted in Western



money and knowledge flowing into the oil-rich countries. The language of this knowledge was English. The general effect of all this development was to exert pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English had previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:7).

The second key reason cited as having a tremendous impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Whereas traditional linguists set out to describe the features of language, revolutionary pioneers in linguistics began to focus on the ways in which language is used in real communication. It was discovered that a variant of English will change within the particular context in which the language is used. Therefore, if language in different situations varies, then it is required to tailor language instruction in order to meet the needs of learners in specific contexts.

The final reason Hutchinson and Waters (1987) cite as having influenced the emergence of ESP has less to do with linguistics and everything to do with psychology. Rather than simply focusing on the method of language delivery, more attention was given to the ways in which learners acquire language and the differences in the ways language is acquired. Learners were seen to employ different learning strategies, use different skills, enter with different learning schemata, and be motivated by different needs and interests. Therefore, focus on the learners' needs became as equally paramount as the methods employed to disseminate linguistic knowledge. Designing specific courses to better meet these individual needs was a natural extension of this thinking. To this day, the catch-word in ESL circles is learner-centered or learning-centered.

## **2.2 Definition of ESP**

As with most disciplines in human activity, ESP was a phenomenon grown out of a number of converging trends of which we will mention the three most important: 1) the expansion of demand for English to suit the specific needs of a profession, 2) developments in the field of linguistics (with attention shifting from defining formal language features to discovering the ways in which language is used in real communication, causing the need for the development of English courses for specific group of learners), and 3) educational psychology (learners' needs and interests have an influence on their motivation and the effectiveness of their learning).

Definitions of ESP in the literature are relatively late in time, if we assume that ESP began in the 1960s. Hyland's statement about ESP is as follows:

“ESP's distinctive approach to language teaching is based on identification of the specific language features, discourse practices and communicative skills of target situation, and also on teaching practices that recognize the particular subject-matter needs and expertise of the learner (2002:385).”

Based on Hyland's statement, language is used to accomplish purposes, and what language concerns is communication rather than the language itself. Munby (1978) also defines ESP from a similar perspective as follows:

“ESP courses are those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learners, rather than by non-learner-centered criteria such as the teachers' or institution's pre-determined preference for General



English or for treating English as part of a general education (p.2).”

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define ESP as an *approach* rather than a *product* – meaning that it does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. The basic question of ESP is: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language? The purpose of learning English becomes the core.

Stevens’ (1988) definition of ESP makes a distinction between 1) **absolute characteristics** (language teaching is designed to meet the specified needs of the learner; related in content to particular disciplines, occupations and activities; centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, text, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of the discourse; designed in contrast with General English), and 2) **two variable characteristics** (ESP may be restricted to the language skills to be learned, e.g. reading; and not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology).

Robinson’s (1991:3) definition of ESP is based on two criteria: 1) ESP is normally ‘goal-directed’, and 2) ESP courses develop from a needs analysis which aims to specify what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English, and a number of characteristics which explain that ESP courses are generally constrained by a *limited time period* in which their objectives have to be achieved and are taught to *adults* in *homogenous classes* in terms of the work or specialist studies that the students are involved in.

Each of these definitions have validity but also weaknesses. Considering Hutchinson and Water’s definition, Anthony (1997) noted that it is not clear where ESP courses end and General English courses begin because numerous non-specialist ESP instructors use ESP approaches in that their syllabi are based on analysis of learner needs and their own specialist personal knowledge of English for real communication. Stevens’ definition, by referring to content in the second absolute characteristic, may confirm the impression held by many teachers that ESP is always and necessarily related to subject content. Robinson’s mention of homogenous classes as a characteristic of ESP may lead to the same conclusion. However, much ESP work is based on the idea of a common-core of language and skills belonging to all academic disciplines or cutting across the whole activity of business. ESP teaching should always reflect the underlying concepts and activities of the discipline.

Having all these in mind, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) modified Stevens’ definition of ESP by postulating two criteria: absolute characteristics and variable characteristics. For the absolute characters, there are three points mentioned. First, ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of the learner. Second, ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves. Third, ESP is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, and register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities. As for variable characteristics, they include that ESP may be related or designed for specific disciplines and use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English. In addition, ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation; it could also be used for learners at secondary school level. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced learners. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners as well. As a result, ESP is centered on how to use the language instead of exploring the language itself (Zhang, 2007).



Above all, ESP is viewed as an approach to language teaching which is characterized by prioritizing learner needs as the main objective of ESP (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Water, 1987; Hyland, 2002; Edwards, 2000; Zhang, 2007).

An overview of the origins of ESP illustrates the important role of ESP in English language teaching (ELT). In this study, by “English for specific purposes” (ESP), I refer to the wide area that concentrates on all aspects of the specific-purpose teaching of English, and encompasses the academic (EAP) and vocational /occupational (EOP) frameworks (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

### **2.3 ESP teachers**

Many teachers assigned to teach English for Specific Purposes are unprepared to handle the genres their students study. Although it is perceived that the lack of specialized knowledge of content is the main hindrance to teaching ESP effectively, the ESP literature (Strevens 1988; Swales 1988; Pholsward & Allen, 1988) as well as insights from genre studies (Swales, 1988; Freedman & Medway, 1994), and schema theory (Cohen et al., 1988) reveal that difficulties may be caused instead by unfamiliarity with professional genre forms and discourse conventions, their purposes and functions, as well as the values systems that underlie the discourse in various fields.

In addition to the routine tasks of a language teacher, the ESP practitioner may be required to deal with administrative, personnel, cross-cultural, interdisciplinary, curricular, and pedagogical issues that may be unfamiliar to ELT teachers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1990; Koh, 1988; Robinson, 1991; Waters, 1994).

The situation of most new ESP teachers can be more adequately described by a comparison with Bizzell’s (1986) description of the dilemma faced by basic writers entering college: basic writers experience a clash of dialect (Standard and non-Standard English); new ESP teachers experience a clash between standard English and technical English. Basic writers experience a clash of discourse forms (academic discourse and popular/non-academic discourse); new ESP teachers experience a clash between literary and scientific/technical discourse forms. Finally, basic writers experience a clash of ways of thinking (academic world view and home world view), while new ESP teachers experience a clash between inclinations to value imagination and emotion and the pragmatic/objective/unemotional demands of a technical/scientific world view.

Some ESP researchers emphasized possessing English language teaching knowledge more than possessing subject knowledge when it comes to becoming a qualified or competent ESP teacher. For example, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that ESP teachers needed to possess a sound English language teaching (ELT) knowledge to be able to make a series of decisions, but do not need to learn specialist subject knowledge as long as they met the following three requirements: (a) a positive attitude towards the ESP content, (b) a knowledge of fundamental principles of the subject area, and (c) an awareness of how much they probably already know. Yet, Hutchinson and Waters’ proposal is not entirely supported by some ESP researchers or studies (Kuo & Ung, 2008). The question, therefore, of how far ESP teachers’ knowledge should extend is not an easy one to answer.

Differing from the two aforementioned discrepant perspectives regarding how much subject knowledge and practical experience a qualified or competent ESP teacher should possess,



Richards (1996:281-2) points to the importance of understand teaching “from the inside”, i.e. of the “need to listen to teachers’ voices in understanding classroom practice” in order to be in a position to “understanding teaching on its own terms and in ways in which it is understood by teachers.” While some efforts have been devoted to studying ESP, the voice of the ESP teacher in the classroom has largely gone unheard.

### 3 Methodology

Since the aim of this study is to disclose ESP teachers’ perceived challenges and dilemmas, it was designed as a naturalistic, interpretive inquiry. The research did “not attempt to manipulate the research setting” (Patton, 1990:39), but rather, to elucidate the internal dynamics of relationships and situations. Hence, qualitative methods, with their capacity to emphasize contexts, meanings, and individuals’ interpretations, were adopted. More specifically, the research involved case studies of six ESP teachers with the researcher in the role of ‘participant-as-observer’ (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

#### 3.1 Participant

The study employed purposeful sampling (Merriam, 1998) and criterion-based selection (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). The participants of this study are four female and two male English teachers teaching ESP courses at four technological universities in Taiwan. They had been teaching ESP for a few years. None of the interviewees had received ESP pre-service training. The reason for including experienced ESP teachers from different teaching environments was to allow for a variety of dispositions on teaching, as well as working conditions (which was found to influence the deployment of teaching strategies; Kremer-Hayon & Tillema, 2002). Table 1 presents some information about the participants.

	Gender	Age	Highest degree	Years of ESP teaching	ESP course
T1	Female	38	Ph.D.in TESOL	4	Business English
T2	Male	56	M.A. in Professional Writing	6	English for Hospitality
T3	Male	32	M.A. in Translation	3	English for Tourism
T4	Female	28	M.A. in TESOL	3	Business English
T5	Female	40	Ph.D. in Media & Communication	5	English for Health Beauty
T6	Female	45	M.A. in TESOL	8	English for Nursing

**Table 1.** Background information of participants

#### 3.2 Data collection

Data collection was based on in-depth interviews (Kane et al., 2002), which were intended to explore in an open-ended manner the topics of the dilemmas experienced, as well as focus on the strategies of coping with dilemmas. At the beginning of the 2010 fall semester, a background interview with each of the teachers was conducted. The purpose of this interview was to obtain basic background information about the participants and to understand their initial views on ESP teaching. An appointment for an interview was made with each participant, and an interview package was given in advance. The package consisted of a cover letter stating the purpose of the study, an informed consent form, and a list of interview questions. A semi-structured follow-up interview with each of the teachers was conducted at



the end of the semester. They were designed to elicit reflections and descriptions of how each teacher carries out their ESP instruction.

### **3.3 Data Analysis**

The data collected through semi-structured interviews were coded through constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967:101-116), which refers to a process of repeated sifting through the data to distinguish similarities and patterns of reference in the transcripts of the interviews. Analyses of these similarities and patterns gradually led to an evolving coding system for the categories. This repetitive process continued until coherence and a saturation of understanding the data were accomplished.

## **4 Findings**

The findings show that several alternative ways exist for coping in an instructive manner with subject knowledge dilemmas in the ESP classroom. Teacher tensions came from additional demand in subject knowledge and special classroom skills, ESP assessment, heavy workloads and inadequate teaching preparation, lack of confidence, training and experience, and a number of dilemmas appeared between English and ESP instruction. In this study, all these tensions and dilemmas are grouped into one big category, because they are all related to teaching demands and changes. The teachers reported these problems together with a number of perceived reasons and suggested coping strategies, as described below.

### **4.1. Challenges in developing ESP teaching skills**

The participating teachers reported that they had made a wide range of mistakes in their early ESP teaching practices as illustrated below.

- T1: I had added ESP elements too much at the beginning and designed tasks which were too abstract and complicated.
- T6: I found out that I set problems which students did not have enough prior knowledge to tackle.
- T2: I didn't give students enough instructions for the tasks and developed materials that did not match their interests.
- T3: I used words which were too difficult to understand and allocated unsuitable roles to students in group work.

In analyzing their mistakes, the teachers found that they had overlooked certain factors or wrongly estimated student abilities or classroom situations before taking actions. They mainly attributed these mistakes to their inexperience in ESP teaching, their lack of training and preparation, and their underestimation of the difficulties of ESP teaching, or overestimation of their students.

However, in the teachers' responses, there was obvious evidence that they were learning from their own mistakes. In nearly all reported cases, they seemed to know what mistakes they had made and had proposed (or hinted) possible methods for improvement. They included adding in more examples, more warming up, simplifying their worksheets, using more daily-life materials, tailoring their tasks to students' interest and abilities, differentiating learning into high and low levels, and developing their teaching in a progressive way. On the whole, they did not express too much stress in this technical level of reflection. To many of them, it was only a matter of experience. In fact, the teachers seemed to be quite positive about this learning process, and had confidence in overcoming this transitional problem.



Quite unexpectedly, only three teachers in this study reported that they had difficulties in assessing ESP learning of students. Participants' comments on the test development process shown below provide insights into their experiences of ESP assessment.

- T1: Usually in the school environment many test papers have to be drafted in a short period of time, in the midst of other work, and so tailor-made subtests are used together with subtests produced by publishers, and the main consideration of test design is the content, format and level of difficulty.
- T5: It has been an isolated task for me to set an ESP assessment at my school as we seldom discuss with the colleagues or seek for their advice.
- T2: The greatest problem I had and this is spite of my having taught ESP courses for six years now, was in trying to estimate the approximate difficulty of items.

They were mainly concerned about its summative assessments, instead of formative ones. In their reports, participants made the point that test development in their schools is often a solitary task, with little thought given to test specification: tests are essentially cut and pasted from existing sources; and little moderation takes place. In general, little attention is given to issues of reliability and validity.

When considering the issue of tests feeding into a more formative feedback system, where the quality of the test informs the teacher and the teaching process, T6 makes the insightful point that:

“After teaching ESP, I realized that setting a test paper is not an easy task. Instead of testing what is easy to test, we have to construct test that we really can discover how successful the learning experiences had been for the students rather than to show in what respects they were deficient. In this way, it is hope that learners might be motivated towards future learning experiences. Thus, as a teacher, we have to be carefully plan and construct our test items. [A test] should also provide useful feedbacks for teachers to moderate our teaching and improve our teaching in the long run. “

No concrete suggestions for improvements in this area were found in the teacher responses.

#### **4.2 Dilemmas participants reported**

During their ESP teaching the teachers in this study faced a number of dilemmas that could be categorized in the following three areas:

- *pedagogical arrangements*
- *teacher role*
- *teaching style*

Each of these dilemmas is outlined in the upcoming sections and explicated along with examples from the situations and related interviews. They are discussed separately, yet are in fact related in complex ways that reflect the complexity of the teaching situations.

##### **4.2.1 Dilemma in pedagogical arrangements**

Apart from making some obvious mistakes in their teaching practice, the teachers also reported several pedagogical dilemmas, including in their time use, managing classroom discipline, providing guidelines, responding to student mistakes, coping with student differences and designing ESP activities. First, as teachers lacked teaching time, they faced



dilemmas in allocating adequate time to various classroom activities, and, in a wider sense, between teaching for English learning and teaching for subject content. Second, they were puzzled about how restricted the tasks should be and how detailed the instructions should be. At the beginning of the tasks, they found that if they gave too few instructions and examples, students might feel lost and did not understand the tasks. However, if they give too detailed guidelines, there was no challenge for the students. As commented on by T4,

It is important to provide instructions (the thinking frame) to students. But, how restricted should the frame be? If the frame is too strict, it may restrain students' thinking. If it is too loose, students may feel puzzled.

These ESP teachers often did not have sufficient background experiences to work in a learner-focused mode, even when they wished to do so. Hence, they found themselves facing the dilemma of having to choose between what they knew they could make work and what they felt inadequate to implement but which they felt might be a more effective approach. A similar teacher dilemma appeared in how to deal with structured teaching such as demonstration and lectures in the clinical area which interfere with the student's role as part of the work force in busy units. T6 indicated:

When teaching Medical English Conversation myself, I found it very difficult and I found the literature in this area not very helpful. It mostly dealt with 'teachable moments' without explaining how the teacher can ensure that she is there when the teachable moments occur.

Another teacher dilemma was how to cope with students' individual differences. Working with mixed-ability classes presented the teachers with numerous problems related to choice of overall goals, curriculum content, teaching strategies, and classroom management. In particular, a recurring dilemma that was mentioned within interviews was: "Do I concentrate on the less able students and ignore the rest, or should I aim for the middle range?" T2 reported that at the beginning, he made the task very challenging and expected it to stimulate student ESP learning. However, he finally found that the low ability students could not cope with it. Student differences in ESP tasks were great. How to take care of different ability groups might be a difficult question in ESP teaching. Generally, the teachers' initial resolution to the dilemma was to start everyone on the same task and then work more closely with the students having difficulties. The remainder of the class had to cope on their own, or if they were at the more capable end of the spectrum, they had to find something else to do when they finished.

The last dilemma found in this study was in designing ESP teaching. An example was noted by T5:

"When designing ESP teaching, I would try my best to align with the textbook so as not to affect the teaching progress. What pain and effort it costs to move students and get them really interested in studying their own practice. However, this restrained the design of the ESP activities and limited their possibilities."

The teachers were puzzled about the extent to which they should restrain the design of the ESP activities by the subject content. If they choose ESP activities that focused on the subject content, it might facilitate content learning, but reduce the effectiveness of the ESP teaching. How to teach English and subject content together, not at the expense of each other, is another unanswered question. On the whole, not too many teachers explicitly expressed their



dilemmas in pedagogies, and most of them did not suggest any method to cope with these dilemmas. Reflected from the teachers' responses, they showed more frustration and worries about the pedagogical dilemmas than about the teaching mistakes they made due to their lack of experience. It seems that technical mistakes are easier to handle than such pedagogical dilemmas. In most cases, the pedagogical dilemmas were related to the dilemmas in teacher role, style and values, which are discussed in the following paragraphs. Among all these teachers, only one suggested seeking a balance as a strategy to cope with the dilemma. T2 offered a different coping strategy –he highlighted the need to have gradual transition in the change process, from controlled imitating activities to open-ended free-expression activities. To a certain extent, teachers' coping strategies were related with their perspectives. Some teachers might take a dichromatic view, struggling between two extremes, whereas others might consider ESP teaching reform as a kind of balance or transition process.

#### ***4.2.2 Dilemma in the teacher's role***

Each profession socializes its members differently with regard to role, values, and practice. There may often be the tacit assumption that one's beliefs about the teaching and learning process are shared with others working in the same educational environment. Some teachers expressed tensions and dilemmas in their teacher role, teaching style, educational value and ethical choice. T3 described his teacher role dilemma in this way,

When teachers are conducting thinking activities, . . . the students should be allowed to discuss loudly, think in an unconstrained way and make mistakes. Teachers should not be in a hurry to correct their mistakes. This is the most difficult. This is also my largest struggle and conflicts in my ESP instruction. As a teacher, I should correct students' mistakes as soon as they make them. But when I do so, it may hinder their ESP learning. It is really not easy to strike a balance. . .

This teacher seemed to be struggling between a knowledge-transmitter role and a facilitator role in his ESP teaching. The following excerpt from T6 also supports T3's view.

With the medical English you need to cover so much of it is just vocabulary and the concepts behind the vocabulary. There is a time limit. It's not easy to do demonstrations/brainstorming. You feel like you have to work through the material/units quickly, so you have to modify the instruction.

It seemed that some of the teachers experienced role dilemmas between traditional ELT and ESP instruction.

Below are some of the statements about the role of "language" versus "subject" in the team teaching ESP classroom:

T4: "...the content basically drives the language instruction. My partner expected me to be able to find language activities that will coalesce with what she is trying to teach in terms of content. She leaves it up to me to decide what a particular group of students needs at that time. She doesn't in any way enter into those decisions. She thinks she shouldn't be usurping my role. "

T5: "For me content is important, but it seems to me language is more important. At some point, my content partner was saying that content should be the priority, so we were arguing for each other's position."

T4 and T5 revealed major differences in their partner's assumptions about language/content



priorities in the classroom, while T6 below points out the potential dangers of such distinctions.

T6: [A problem is] “a sense of territoriality – I’m the language teacher and this is my area and you’re not supposed to cross this boundary. And this is your area, content, and so you shouldn’t expect us to cross each other. I think this kind of rigid boundary between content and language gets in the way of getting things done. ... because when you start thinking “well, this is my stuff and I want to see it work,” ... as if it’s a competition for who is the better teacher. This kind of ego involvement is in the way of actually serving the students. “

The following comments show less of a concern about the distinction between language and content, suggesting that there isn’t a clear distinction (T1), or students are typically unaware of it (T2).

T1: “In this class ... the language is so integrated with the content it’s very difficult to draw a clear line. “

T2: “As the language person, I am very conscious of my need to defer to the content person when an issue about content comes up, when it’s really explicit. And I think my partner does the same when an issue of language comes up, but for the most part I think the students are unaware of that kind of division.”

It is not an easy job for them to handle subject-specific ESP courses. Spack (1988) illustrated the severity of this dilemma by saying that “even when they collaborate with content teachers, [they] find they have little basis for dealing with the content. They therefore find themselves in the uncomfortable position of being less knowledgeable than their students” (Spack, 1988:30). These statements underline a significant difficulty for the majority of the ESP teachers who have minimal or no knowledge of the specific subject areas.

#### ***4.2.3 Dilemma in teaching style***

Apart from change in their teaching role, the teachers also found that they were facing the tensions of changing teaching styles. One struggle of teaching styles was between an “all-knowing” and “all-answering” style and an open-minded and co-constructing style. In this study, the teachers expressed difficulties in accepting their own limitations in front of their students. T5 frankly reported that, in an open classification exercise of skin care products, she forbade her students to choose a classification which she herself did not know. However, in her reflection, she was aware that students should be given freedom to choose in this kind of tasks. To improve, amazingly, she suggested that teachers should gain rich knowledge and thorough understanding of the topic before they guided students in this kind of open-ended tasks. Very similarly, T6 expressed,

The lesson preparation (of ESP teaching) is more difficult because teachers need to collect a lot of materials in advance so as to answer the different questions raised by students.

Certainly, an “all-answering” style would exert extra tensions on teachers in ESP teaching. For a teacher who has already been used to this kind of “direct” teaching, what feeling would she/he have when waiting for students’ slow responses in ESP learning? T1 said,

“in designing the fast food restaurant games, some groups wrote down their ideas



quickly... However, some groups were quite hesitant. (They) wrote and then rubbed out again and again. Their progress was so slow. I was quick-tempered and could not help giving them hints... “

It might be quite difficult for ESP teachers to change from a dominating and quick style to a patient and “waiting” style. This study revealed that, in ESP teaching, teachers experienced tensions in changing their teaching style, especially for those teachers whose original style was quick, dominating, strict, critical, all-knowing and all-answering. Teachers experienced dilemmas between the ESP teaching style and the traditional Chinese teaching style.

## **5 Conclusion and implications**

This study reveals that teachers experienced tensions in seeking/developing teaching skills, time, energy, training and confidence for ESP teaching, and also faced dilemmas in changing their pedagogies, roles, and styles. These tensions and dilemmas were found to be highly related among themselves, and they were also related with resources, student learning, cultural and school factors. Among them, the ESP assessment, resources allocation, and success in ESP teaching were found to be highly related. In analysis, all teacher dilemmas mainly originated from the discrepancies in the traditional and ESP education. Though the dilemmas are highly related, they are distinguishable from each other. Pedagogical dilemmas are the struggles in making pedagogical arrangements for seemingly opposite or competing demands (e.g. between giving detailed guidance and leaving room for free exploration). Role dilemmas are the conflicts between two different teacher roles, e.g. knowledge transmitter and ESP facilitator. Style dilemmas refer to the difficulties in adopting two kinds of teaching styles or changing from one to another, for example, from quick to patient, skeptical to accepting, etc.

In establishing a personal pedagogy of ESP education, ESP teachers are faced with numerous dilemmas. Developing strategies for dealing with dilemmas calls for a high level of professional thinking as it involves weighing alternatives for action and deciding on the one that best meets specific needs (Windschitl, 2002). Dilemmas may be a useful trigger for an ESP teacher’s thinking and acting, but they may also frustrate, present difficulties and impede the course of teaching. Consequently, it appears that the study of ESP teachers’ dilemmas is apt to enrich professional knowledge and serve as a basis for a pedagogy to improve the teaching of ESP (Loughran & Russell, 1997). The professional dilemmas that ESP teachers recognize and resolve might reveal how they succeed in connecting their views on ESP teaching to their actual teaching (Lampert, 1985). It is therefore of interest to gauge these professional dilemmas in order to understand what governs the relationship between conceptions of ESP teaching and actual teaching itself.

The identification and elaboration of the dilemmas and difficulties faced by the teachers of ESP courses suggest three main points concerning teacher education and related research:

- The impact of English teacher education programs needs to be examined, particularly with regard to ways to bridge the gaps between ESP instruction and prevalent classroom practices.
- In pre-service ESP teacher education, teachers need more opportunities to examine the inherent complexities and conflicts of ESP teaching alongside a wide array of potential resolutions and their related advantages and disadvantages.
- More mentoring or other forms of support are needed by beginning teachers as they



‘survive’ their initial placements and the many challenges they face in ESP curriculum planning and implementation, classroom management, and personal professional self-esteem.

- Teachers’ perceptions of their students’ behaviors had a strong influence on pedagogical beliefs and practices, yet this has not been an area of focus within the research literature on teacher beliefs.



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# Electronic Word-of-Mouth communication and consumer behaviour: an exploratory study of Danish social media communication influence

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## Abstract

The rapid adoption of social media, along with the easy access to peer information and interactions, has resulted in massive online word-of-mouth communication. These interactions among consumers have an increasing power over the success or failure of companies and brands. Drawing upon word-of-mouth communication and consumer behaviour theories, this paper investigates the use of word-of-mouth communication through social media among a group of Danish consumers. The findings suggest that electronic word-of-mouth communication among friends and peers affect consumer behaviour. Additionally, peer communication is perceived as more objective and therefore found more reliable than companies' brand communication. Furthermore, negative word-of-mouth is perceived as more trustworthy compared to positive messages, which are often believed to be too subjective. The research findings emphasise the importance one has to assign to social media as a source of reputation for companies and brands, which eventually impact consumers' choices. Furthermore, according to our study, Danes indicate they don't prefer anonymous communication on Social Media and they still prefer traditional word-of-mouth communication instead of electronic word-of-mouth.

## 1 Introduction

Due to advances in technology, people with similar interests, backgrounds or attitudes can join communities of like-minded people and share views, exchange information and build relationships, regardless of where they are in the world. This form of online word-of-mouth communication seems to offer new opportunities and challenges for businesses because consumers' interests in brands have grown rapidly; they therefore communicate more extensively about their experiences as consumers – affecting the images of these companies and brands. Hence, although companies may consider their website to be the primary place that people will visit to find information about them, this is no longer the case (Bradley, 2010). Additionally, the rapid spread of information via the Internet and the growing impact of the media have broken down physical and geographical boundaries and caused organisations to become even more cautious about their reputations (Deshpande and Sarkar,



2010). People tend to believe what they hear through their social networks and peers<sup>i</sup> not merely what they are told by the companies. In the marketing literature, the term word-of-mouth (WOM) was coined by Bass in 1969 to identify a consumer-dominated communication channel. WOM is defined as the communication between consumers about a product, service, or a company in which the sources are considered independent of commercial influence (Bass, 1969; Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007; Litvin, 2008). Marketing and communication scholars have long stressed the potential of these “unstructured social relations like gossip, WOM, and lately online sociality to function as a medium of communication” (Hansen et al., 2011, p. 2). The assumption is that highly satisfied or dissatisfied customers are very likely to share their experiences within their social networks, among friends or colleagues, and in doing so influence consumer behaviour (Reichheld, 2003). Consumer behaviour incorporates processes of browsing and selection, purchase, use, evaluation and sometimes influencing others (Varey, 2001, p. 42). Therefore, the influence of WOM can be investigated at different levels of the purchase process. For instance, a negative review about a product can dissuade some consumers from buying a product and/or lead others to extend their browsing process. Electronic-WOM (eWOM) is a new communication phenomenon which, as WOM, has a powerful force in persuasion of digital consumers and which require further investigation (Sen and Lerman, 2007). eWOM is a less personal but more ubiquitous form of WOM which has spread recently with the advent of social media and extensive Internet use. Drawing on studies related to WOM, e-WOM communication (Kozinets et al., 2010), consumer behaviour theory (Varey, 2001, Reichheld 2003) and social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954, Prendergast et al., 2010) the study investigates e-WOM and attitudinal changes in consumer behaviour in Denmark.

In particular the article aims to investigate extremely relevant questions, such as: Why are word-of-mouth messages from friends and peers through social media felt to be more trustworthy than messages from companies? How do word-of-mouth messages from friends and peers influence consumer behaviour? Is there a difference in the influence of positive and negative word-of-mouth messages? Are negative word-of-mouth messages communicated online to a greater extent than positive messages? Given the increasing relevance of customer to customer communication for companies, this paper investigates the use of word-of-mouth communication through social media. More specifically, this article focuses on the implications of word-of mouth-communication on consumer behaviour in Denmark. This exploratory study aims to contribute to the better understanding of the digital culture and the associated digital consumers’ behaviours and their implications on how eWOM influence consumer behaviour decision making.

The paper is organised as follows: the next section outlines the theoretical foundations of our study and the research questions. In this section, we describe the relevance and peculiarity of new social media sites as communication channels. After introducing the main theories regarding traditional word-of-mouth communication, we delineate the new issues of debate in regard to online word-of-mouth and we state our research questions. In the second section, we explain our research method and data collection process. Finally, we present and discuss our empirical findings in light of their implications for the companies.

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<sup>i</sup> The word “peers” here refers to people who are equal in areas such as age, education or social class as well as fellow consumers.



## 2 Theoretical background and research questions

### 2.1 Social media and the social technographics profile (STP)

The concept of social media refers to all the web-based technologies (also termed social software or social technologies) that enable people to connect, share, communicate and co-create content online (Mayfield, 2008; Kietzmann et al., 2011). Social media include social networking sites (e.g. LinkedIn, Facebook), wikis (e.g. Wikipedia), forums (e.g. Adult Fans of Lego (AFOL)), podcasts, content communities (e.g. Flickr, YouTube), blogs and microblogging (e.g. Twitter).

These tools allow people to share their personal experiences and share knowledge easily (Razmerita, Kirchner and Sudzina, 2009) and thus to articulate their personal knowledge into collective knowledge, while at the same time enable users different levels of control and interactivity over the level of personal disclosure through the shared content depending on the type of technology they use (Razmerita, Kirchner and Nabeth, 2014).

Social media allow people around the world to communicate without regard for the limitations of geography and time, to find each other and gather in groups based on a wide range of cultural and subcultural interests and social affiliations (Kozinets et al., 1999). People like to know about the good, the bad, and the ugly side of other people, places, and situations, as well as to share this information with others, often as quickly as possible (Safko and Brake, 2009).

Digital consumer behaviour on social media is an important topic of research for marketers which may also contribute to the design and implementation of social media tools, campaigns and strategies effectively. However, there are differences in the ways consumers approach the new technologies in terms of type of activity and level of participation that must be taken into account. One of the more recent studies investigating the digital behaviours of consumers was proposed by Forrester Research (Li and Bernoff, 2008). The study has introduced the Social Technographics Profile (STP), which is a way to classify people based on the type of social media activities in which they engaged in the last month. The Social Technographics Profile is proposed as a useful tool for social media marketing campaigns or brand monitoring taking into account the online behavioural pattern of social media users. The social media users are placed into one of the following groups according to their type of activity and level of involvement:

- **Creators:** publish web pages, write blogs, upload videos and music, write articles and post them.
- **Conversationalists:** update status on a social networking site, post updates on Twitter.
- **Critics:** post ratings, write reviews, comment on blogs, contribute to online forums, contribute to/edit wikis.
- **Collectors:** use RSS feeds, add tags to web pages and photos
- **Joiners:** use social networking sites
- **Spectators:** read blogs, watch videos, listen to podcasts, read forums and customer ratings/reviews.
- **Inactives:** are online, but do not participate in social media.



The underlying objective of STP is to be able to conduct a successful social media campaign based on the assumptions that you can better engage with the digital consumers, knowing their usage patterns and knowing that these usage patterns vary from country to country. However these types are not exclusive and some people fit in one or more categories based on their activities. Furthermore it is known that only a very small percentage of the populations on the web are creators. In our study we use STP as a reference model and we map a group of Danish consumers and their identified online behavioural patterns and electronic word-of-mouth communication into this model.

## **2.2 From 'Old' to 'New' media communication and digital culture**

Creating, sharing and transforming content is something humans have always done, but capturing and sharing through digital technology is relatively new (Lessig, 2004). Social media facilitate new ways to interact with each other online and people use these technologies in ways that enable and extend their traditional means to communicate and produce cultural objects. Online media have enabled two-way, many-to-many communication at a massive level and a shift away from the old mass media communication paradigm centred on top-down communication processes. Traditionally, public opinion was thought to be channelled by a number of important media institutions such as newspapers, radio and television stations, and corporate communication was to a large extent conceived as the practice of using these institutions in order to convey a desired message about a company. The general assumption of this paradigm was that the receiver was highly passive.

In the online world today, the new media allow many-to-many interactions and facilitate multilateral communication among users. Therefore receivers can be more active in creating and sharing online content, either bilaterally or multilaterally through several interconnected channels (Bruns, 2008; Benkler, 2006; Rafaeli and Sudweeks, 1997). While the democratic power of users' bottom-up online content co-creation has been challenged at the theoretical-conceptual level (Jensen and Helles, 2011; Van Dijck and Nieborg, 2009) and through empirical studies (Colleoni (2013) has shown the poor level of interactivity between users and companies; Hargittai and Hsieh (2010) have shown the relationship between social background and the Internet usage), still the word-of-mouth mechanism has proven to be effective and disruptive in several cases in the last decade, as in the case of Dave Carroll vs. United Airlines. In 2008, United Airlines broke Canadian musician Dave Carroll's guitar because of wrong handling of luggage. Dave recorded a video (United Breaks Guitars) about his experience and posted it on YouTube. The video quickly went viral and within a few weeks the video had been played more than 3.5 million times resulting in both reputational brand damage and an economic crisis for United Airlines. This and other cases of corporate's loss of control over its image, has raised the attention to the relevance of the digital channels as forms of consumers' online expressions.

Denmark is a country at the forefront of New Media usage. According to the Internet World Stats, 93% of the Danish population have Internet access in mid-year 2012. A recent report from Statistics Denmark suggests that 51% of 16-74 year old Danes have a Facebook account. The second-largest online social network service in Denmark is LinkedIn, is trailing far behind at only 8% of the population, and Twitter is used by only 4% of the population. Furthermore, 68% of Danes purchased goods and services online in 2010, according to findings from Statistics Denmark's Statistical Yearbook 2011. The percentage reached 83% among those aged 20 to 39 years old. However, according to our knowledge and literature review, little is known about Danish electronic word-of-mouth and online information



consumer behaviour. An exception is represented by the work of Jepsen (2006), who has focused on virtual communities in Denmark. Her goal was to assess whether consumers' opinions are replacing or supplementing traditional information source in consumer behaviour. Following Kozinets framework (1999) for segmenting consumers participating in a virtual community, she has identified four types of users: "Insiders have strong ties to other members of the community and the consumption activity is central to the person's self-image. Devotees only have ties to the product, Minglers only have ties to the other members of the community, and Tourists have neither" (Jepsen, 2006: 249). She carried out an online survey in which 103 respondents were recruited from four consumption-oriented newsgroups on the Danish Usenet section. She found that "virtual communities, to some extent replace commercial sources such as sales personnel, brochures, and advertisements distributed by mail, but only replace primary reference groups as sources of product information to a very limited extent" (Jepsen, 2006, p. 247). Therefore, this study suggests that personal networks, online and offline might be of great relevance to understand new consumption patterns. Indeed, while consumers newsgroups are shaping in part the way consumers search for product information, there is a great deal of product opinions and comments that are shared in online social networks. As pointed out by Fieseler et al. (2009), in their social networks users tend to share different set of experiences and opinions, including their experiences with brands and products. This article focuses on how Danish consumers use new media to share product information and on the implications for companies by investigating consumers' word-of-mouth in online social networks.

### **1.3 Word-of-Mouth communication**

Word-of-mouth communication (WOM) has existed for many years and was originally defined as oral, person-to-person communication between a receiver and a communicator. Furthermore, WOM was described as having a fleeting nature because it occurred spontaneously and disappeared as soon as it had been uttered (Breazeale, 2008). As illustrated in the previous sections, the first change brought by the WOM in social networks is the loss of control over the messages distributed on the web. This is in contrast to the traditional integrated communications paradigm where traditionally companies have a high degree of control (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). Throughout history, WOM theory has developed from (a) an Organic Inter-consumer Influence Model, where the influence occurs between one consumer and another, across (b) a Linear Marketer Influence Model, where the marketer actively attempts to influence the consumer, to (c) a Network Coproduction Model, where consumers are regarded as active co-producers of value and meaning and whose use of WOM can be creative and even resistant (Kozinets et al., 2010). More recently, the notion of electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) has been introduced in order to capture the new online interactive dimension and to account for the consumer empowerment that this has entailed. Electronic word-of-mouth refers to all "the consumers' options for gathering unbiased product information from other consumers and [...] the opportunity for consumers to offer their own consumption-related advice" (Henning-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh and Gremler, 2004, p. 39) by engaging in online conversations. These online social interactions, in the shape of online communities, represent a space where groups of consumers with similar interests actively seek and exchange information about prices, quality manufacturers, retailers, company ethics, company history, product history and other consumption-related characteristics (Kozinets et al., 1999). Electronic word-of-mouth within communities such as Internet forums, newsgroups and consumers' recommendation websites, provides consumers with the ability to share real-time experiences in the form of opinions and knowledge almost anywhere to almost anyone connected. Additionally, eWOM differs from traditional WOM as

the sources of information are often individuals who have little or no prior relationship with the information seeker, as in the case of online consumer to consumer communication (Xia and Bechwati, 2010). In this article, we refer to eWOM communication as “any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or a company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet” (Henning-Thurau et al., 2004, p. 39). As for traditional word-of-mouth, eWOM has been associated with some specific consumers’ behavior. In the following, we present general and well-recognized assumptions and theories about eWOM. While these assumptions are widely recognized, only few studies have investigated the applicability to the Danish context. Therefore, we consider it relevant to investigate eWOM communication among friends and consumers to assess whether these assumptions apply to the Danish context.

### ***2.3.1 The role of anonymity in Electronic Word-of-Mouth***

A feature of the traditional definition of WOM is that it was not anonymous. While traditional WOM is very private, eWOM is much more public and can reach several people and at the same time can be highly anonymous. As pointed out by Breitsohl et al. (2010), a crucial dilemma for contemporary studies is the role played by anonymity. In her seminal work on online identities, Turkle (1995) explained how people explore new identities online in which they act-out facets of their personalities. For instance, women have discovered that there can be consequences from revealing one’s gender online (Turkle, 1995). According to Preece and Maloney-Krichmar (2002), who have investigated online communities’ dynamics, online communication in general and eWOM in particular can be a valuable channel of communication because those who lack confidence in face to face situations become more confident online and lose their inhibitions (Preece and Maloney-Krichmar, 2002, p. 7). On the basis of this, the following research question has been formulated:

*R<sub>1</sub>: Does the possibility to communicate anonymously increases the preference for electronic WOM?*

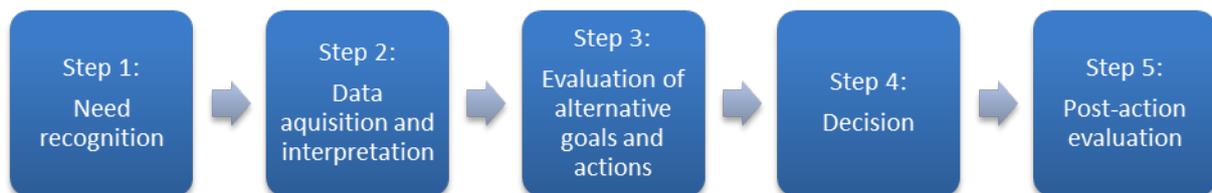
### **2.4 Social Comparison**

The American social psychologist Leon Festinger’s theory of social comparison proposes that people evaluate their opinions and abilities by comparing them with those of others (Festinger, 1954). However, “[a] person does not tend to evaluate his opinions or his abilities by comparison with others who are too divergent from himself” (Festinger, 1954, p. 120). People with similar characteristics and interests tend to form ties, i.e. homophily. The same applies to online environment. As shown by Best & Krueger (2006), consumers online steer their social interactions towards consumers similar to themselves by selecting certain topics and participation in virtual communities. According to Prendergast et al. (2010), social comparison theory suggests that similarity ought to be positively related to the persuasiveness of the information being communicated and to behavioural intentions as well. Persuasiveness is a mechanism through which similarity between the forum’s members influence each other’s purchase intentions. As shown by Wang et al. (2008), homophily plays a significant role in determining credibility perceptions and influencing the persuasive process online. Accordingly, Mangold and Faulds (2009) suggested that consumers perceive social media as a more reliable source of information about brands than marketing-content. Thus, it can be assumed that a peer relationship between sender and receiver of eWOM plays an important role in the reliability and persuasiveness of the communicated message. On the basis of this, the following research question can be formulated:

*R<sub>2</sub>: Do Danish users find electronic word-of-mouth communication from peers and members of the online communities more trustworthy than messages communicated by companies?*

## 2.5 Consumer behaviour and purchase decision

Consumer behaviour does not involve only the act of purchase itself. As Fig. 1 suggests, purchase decision-making also involves processes before and after the decision:



**Figure 1.** Steps to ordered decision-making (adapted from Varey, 2001, p. 56)

According to Varey (2001), some consumers may readily recognise their needs while others may influence other consumers in identifying new needs. The latter is often what happens with eWOM: a consumer hears about a product from other consumers and afterwards recognises the needs that the product may offer. The purpose of the search process is to find general ways that are available to meet the recognised needs, and once a particular way of satisfying the needs has been identified, we can seek more specific options, alternatives products and evaluate which is best. Once an alternative is selected, the purchase can take place, and during or after consumption we can make a judgement about the extent to which the purchase and consumption experiences are satisfactory. The fifth step is important in connection with eWOM because we tell our friends about our likes and dislikes, and we may try to dissuade them from buying the products we dislike. If we feel satisfied with a product, we may be more inclined to remain committed to that supplier and/or product when next we have a similar need. By contrast, if we feel dissatisfied, we may respond and express dissatisfaction, and according to Singh (1988), these negative responses need not be limited to those directed towards the seller (i.e., manufacturer, retailer, etc.) but can also involve third parties or even friends and relatives, i.e. negative eWOM. The last step of involving friends and relatives (and additionally peers) is central to this research. Another interesting aspect is the effect that this negative eWOM has on the receiver of the message. On the basis of the above, the following research questions are formulated:

*R<sub>3</sub>: Do Danish users communicate negative electronic word-of-mouth messages through social media to a higher extent than they communicate positive messages?*

*R<sub>4</sub>: Do negative electronic word-of-mouth sentiments have more influence on consumer behaviour of Danish users than do positive sentiments?*

## 3 Research Methodology

The research included a two-stage data collection process. Firstly, quantitative data has been collected through a questionnaire distributed via Facebook. Facebook is the most widely used social network among Danish Web users (*Danmarks Statistik*, 2011, p. 25). The survey consisted of 14 questions and reflected the empirical operationalization of our research hypotheses, as presented in the Appendix. Furthermore, the questionnaire requested users' background information, such as age, gender and educational background. Snowball sampling technique (Goodman, 1961) was used in order to select the sample. Snowball sampling is based on a non-probabilistic approach where existing subjects recruit future subjects among



their social networks. Therefore, snowball sampling technique does not lead to a representative sample of the population, but it is particularly suitable for exploratory studies in “hard-to-reach” populations (Coomber, 1997). In this case, the technique seems particularly useful to capture the role of informal communication in online environments, given the particular “networked nature” of Facebook. Facebook has severe restrictions policies for what concerns users’ privacy that do not allow the researcher to have an overview of the population of interest. In order to create the sample, we sent the questionnaire to a group of Danish Facebook users in the age range of 15-50 years. We then asked the initial group of users to forward the questionnaire to their Facebook social connections. A methodological limitation of this study concerns the fact that the Facebook respondents were asked about their general eWOM habits and not only their Facebook usage in relation to WOM communication and friends-based recommendations of products and services. This could have biased the responses, which we could only partially control with the subsequent in-depth interviews carried out. The questionnaire was answered by 110 respondents.

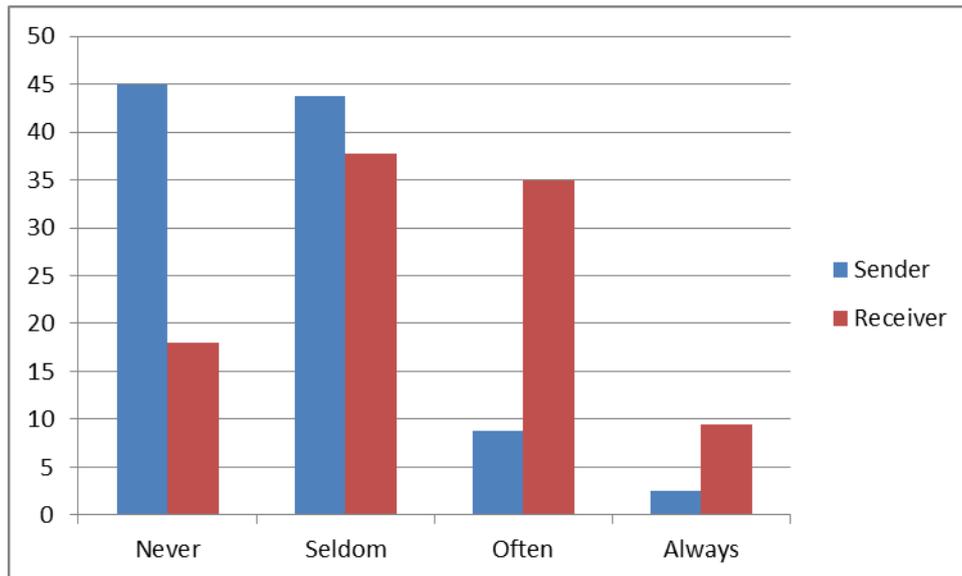
The quantitative data was gathered from 22 July 2011 to 22 August 2011. In a second stage, semi-structured interviews were carried out. Five interviewees were selected among the survey’s respondents. The interviewees were selected according to gender, both men and women, age between 25 and 30, and from a diverse educational background, and therefore they constitute a convenience sample for our study. The interviews were designed in order to clarify results from the quantitative analysis and to explore more in-depth elements of eWOM behaviour. Furthermore, the interviewees did not focus on Facebook but on their use of social media in general. The interviews have contributed towards making sense of the questionnaire data and interpreting the results from both a cognitive and a behavioural perspective.

## **4 Data Analysis**

### **4.1 Anonymous social media communication vs. identified or offline communication**

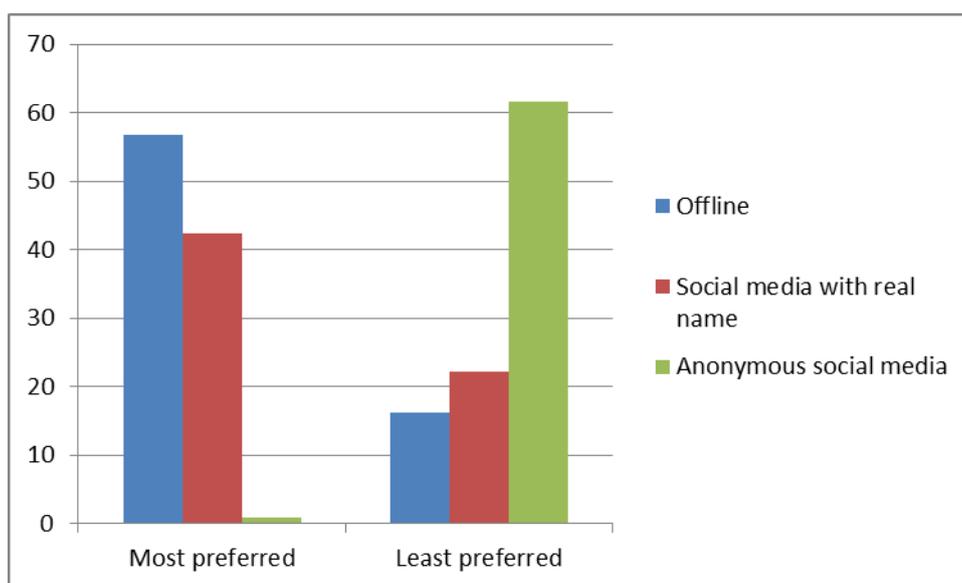
The goal of this exploratory research is to investigate to what extent and why consumers engage in eWOM through online social media. First of all, we analysed a group of Danish consumers’ behaviour based on the Social Technographics Profile (STP), both as senders and receivers (Fig. 2). In Fig. 2, the blue line represents users who have at least once recommended something and the red line users who have at least once received recommendations. Almost 50% of our sample have recommended or dissuaded people from buying a product at least once using online social media (Fig.2). For a large extent, consumers do actively write online messages and read other people’s messages about products and companies.

Nevertheless, the majority of the respondents communicate through social media rarely or seldom, rather than when they are proactive (11%) and communicate their experiences as consumers often or always. Furthermore, we have about 45% respondents who are lurkers, joiners and spectators according to STP. Moreover, by comparing this trend to how often the respondents search for information from peers about products and companies of their interest (Fig. 2 “Receivers”), it appears that consumers prefer to be receivers of eWOM to being senders. In relation to STP, the results above show that the respondents are mostly joiners and spectators who seldom choose to communicate their own experiences online but instead read and monitor the opinions of others.



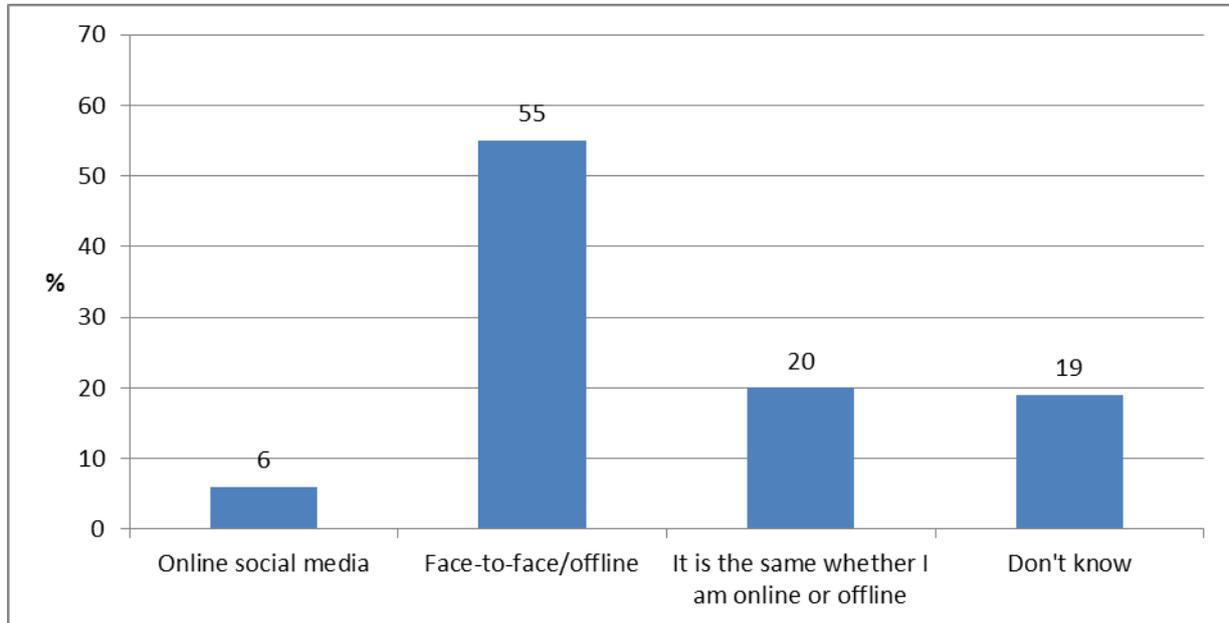
**Figure2.** Frequency of consumers sending and receiving recommendations in the form of eWOM in social media -percentage

In order to investigate how eWOM is used vis-à-vis offline communication, the respondents were also asked about their favourite communication channel for giving and receiving information about products and companies from other peers. Figure 3 shows that the vast majority of the respondents prefer to communicate either offline or through social media where they know the receivers of the messages and are themselves known by these receivers. As can be seen in Fig. 3, 59% of the consumers prefer face to face communication, 44% of the respondents prefer to communicate through online social networks and only 1% of the respondents prefer anonymous communication using social media (e.g. discussion forums). Surprisingly, the possibility of anonymous communication, which is thought to be one of the most important features provided by digital platforms, is not perceived as relevant when communicating personal consumer experiences.



**Figure 3:** Preferred eWOM channels (percentage)

Fig. 4 emphasises consumers' propensity to engage in offline WOM in comparison with online communication. As it can be seen, 55% of the respondents prefer to communicate face to face instead of using social media sites (6%); 20% of the consumers do not perceive any differences between the different communication channels, while 19% are undecided.

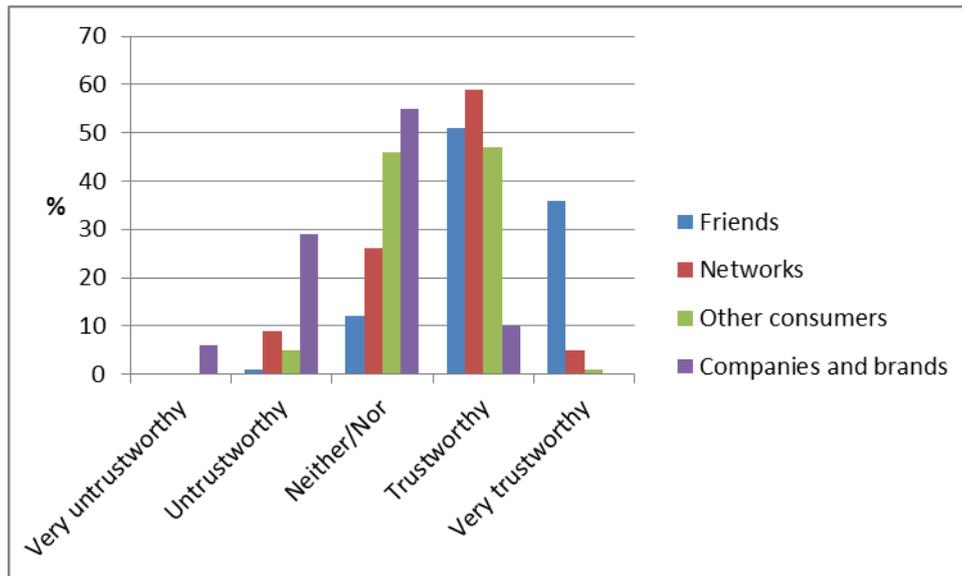


**Figure 4:** Consumers' preferences of eWOM channel (percentage)

The users' preference to communicate face to face instead of using online social media was also confirmed through qualitative interviews. One of the interviewees argued that more people communicate about products and companies offline because of the level of informality, i.e., "when communicating face to face you do not have to reflect that much about what you are saying because the situation is oral and most often very informal as opposed to online communication, which is mostly written and therefore seems to be more formal". The group of Danish social media users involved in our survey do not prefer the anonymity of social media for eWOM over face to face/offline communication.

#### **4.2 Trustworthiness and persuasion of online communication**

In relation with trustworthiness and persuasion of different online information sources (formulated as  $R_2$ ), the majority of the respondents answered that offline friends are the most - trustworthy source of information, followed by social network friends as compared with corporate communication. However, it is relevant to notice that consumer to consumer communication is perceived as trustworthy by half of the sample, while only 5% find them unreliable. Finally, only a small proportion of the respondents find companies and brands trustworthy (less than 10%), the majority are neutral while over a third finds companies and brands untrustworthy or even very untrustworthy. Thus, a majority would appear to believe that individuals – friends, peers or unknown consumers – are more trustworthy than companies and brands.



**Figure 5:** Trustworthiness of online sources (percentage)

Some respondents' qualitative statements support this argument:

- 'If I use this kind of information, it is because it is more trustworthy what my friends say than the company itself.'
- 'Because I trust that what they say about their experiences is true.'

Messages communicated by friends and peers about a product or company are more trustworthy than messages communicated by companies, and therefore they are assumed to have a greater effect on consumers' purchase behaviour, thereby supporting H<sub>2</sub>. The study suggests that the most trustworthy sources are friends and social network friends, because they are known by the receiver. However, the relationship between sender and receiver of the eWOM message is also important when defining the reliability of the messages written by other consumers. In this case, interviewees argue that other consumers are more trustworthy than companies because they share the same needs.

As explained by Festinger (1954) the belief of sharing a similar condition increases trust among people, even if they are strangers, as in the case of consumers' reviews. Following Festinger's (1954) theory, people do not normally hold their opinions up against that of others who are too divergent from themselves, and the tendency to compare oneself with another person decreases as the difference between that person's opinion and one's own increases. If the receiver does not seem to be similar to the sender, persuasion will not be successful. It is generally believed that people who write product reviews online do not benefit financially when writing positively about a product or a company. Thus, friends and other consumers (peers) are more trustworthy than companies because their opinions about products and companies are considered to be more neutral and objective. Furthermore, the amount of information and opinions available from other consumers is an important factor because it enables people to compare a lot of different statements and thereby obtain an overall view of the quality of about a product or company. This may also be why the interviewees all express a need to read a range of different consumer statements before expressing an opinion about what is most reliable. When asked how they would measure the reliability of a message, the interviewees agreed that they would always read more than one statement. This suggests that

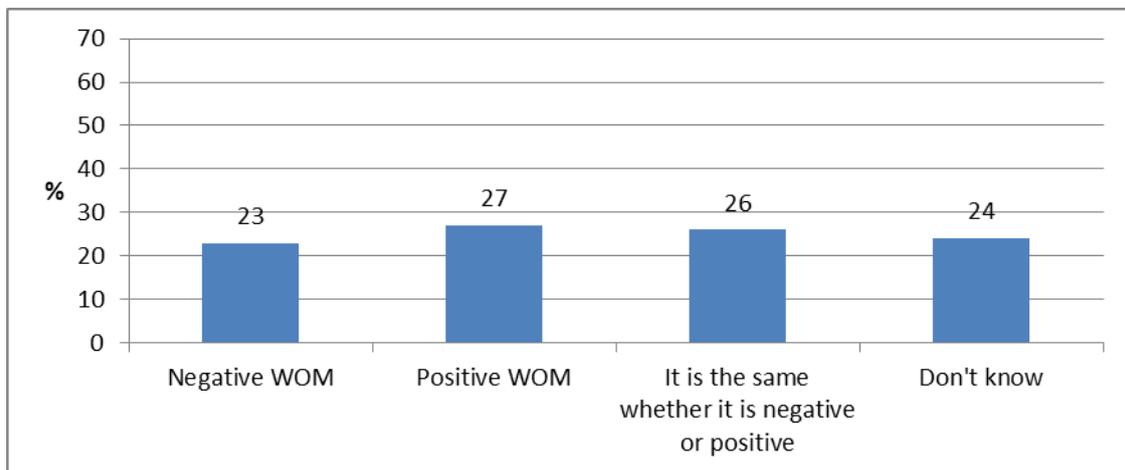
parts of the opinion-making process are socially constructed and that users have become active participants in the process of sense making. They adopt and modify the sentiments of others in order to construct their own. Additionally, in some of the textual answers it emerged that offline communication about products and companies is sometimes preferred, or is perceived to be more trustworthy than online communication:

- ‘If the persons are a part of my circle of friends (offline) I generally welcome good advice and if they criticise/praise a product/company I am interested in, I trust them...’
- ‘It depends on the source of the recommendation. Testimonials on the company websites can be more or less trustworthy. [...]. But if it is another consumer I meet on the street or overhear on the metro, I trust it more.’
- ‘I ask other people who are not in my online network but whom I can talk to face to face, e.g. good friends/parents and then reconsider the purchase after receiving new information.’

In general, the questionnaire respondents and the interviewees for the most part do not write or communicate eWOM themselves, but often read other people’s messages. The question then is if users engage more in positive or negative WOM.

#### 4.3 Negative vs. positive sentiment in electronic word-of-mouth

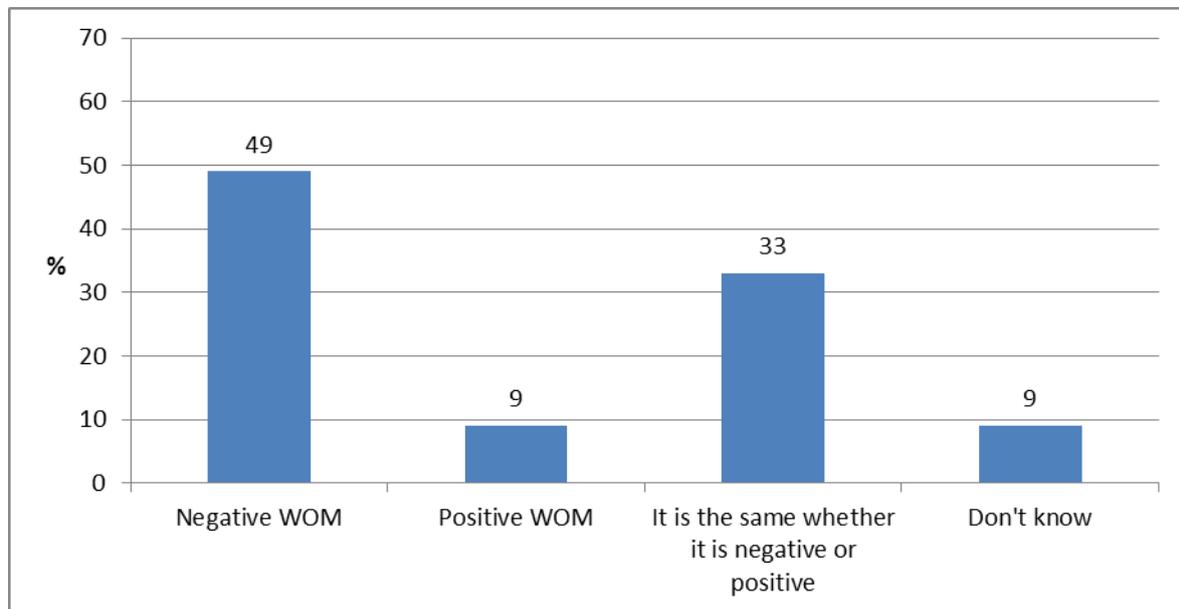
Concerning the affective orientation of communication, this study has investigated propensity of negative versus positive eWOM. The answer to the question 5 of the questionnaire included in the appendix 1: “Do you think that you communicate negatively about products and companies more than you do positively?” reveal a fairly equal distribution. Fig. 6 shows no evidence of a predominant emotional attitude. The respondents choose to share positive and negative experiences more or less to the same extent.



**Figure 6.** Affective orientation of eWOM (positive versus negative communication in percentage)

Qualitative data based on the interviews specify that consumers rarely remember or reflect on positive experiences with products or companies unless they are extraordinary. “If I have experienced really good or really bad service, I will either recommend a company or warn against it.” However, the consumers mainly emphasise negative sentiments as driving eWOM, particularly when the brand or the company did not meet their expectations.

- “If I am very disappointed with the product (...) to warn others”.



**Figure 7.** The influence of negative versus positive messages on consumers' behaviour (percentage)

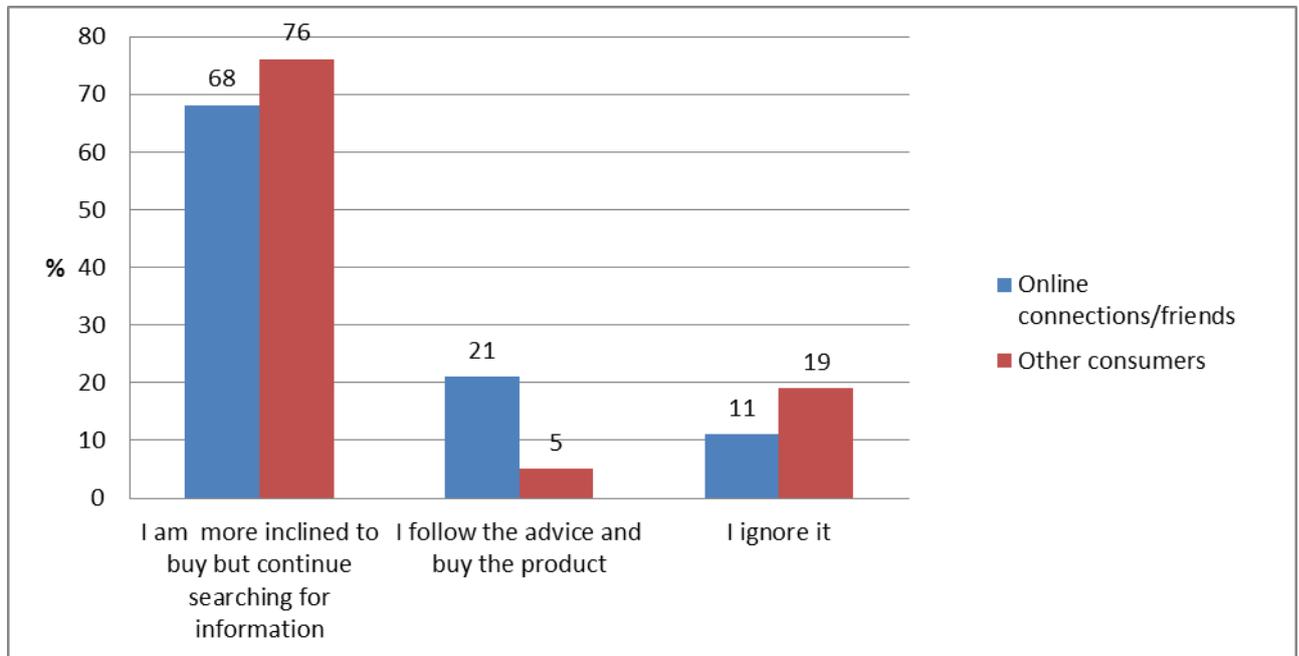
The influence of negative messages on purchase decision-making is clear when users have to evaluate other people's messages. This issue was investigated in question 9 of the questionnaire: “Do you notice more the negative messages from friends and other consumers about products and companies that you notice positive messages?”

Indeed, as shown in Fig. 7 negative comments are noticed more than positive and, interestingly, that the interviewees do not always find positive messages trustworthy. These positive messages may be too subjective and not supported by facts. Indeed, positive statements are perceived as more personal and therefore less reliable, while negative comments are perceived as objective and therefore more trustworthy. The respondents communicate negative sentiments through social media to a higher extent than they communicate positive sentiments. However, the perceived degree of objectivity or subjectivity interpreted in a eWOM would appear to have a great effect on perceived reliability.

#### **4.4. The impact on consumer behavior of electronic word-of-mouth communication**

In the following, we focus on how the respondents use social media and eWOM for pre-purchase decision-making and if the recommendations and dissuasions by peers have any effect on consumer behaviour and purchase intention. Knowing and trusting the source of the eWOM has a great influence on persuasiveness. As previously stated, there is a difference in the perceived reliability of advice from friends as compared with that from other consumers. However, it is important to understand if and to what extent these two sources of information differ. The graph represented in Fig. 8 shows the distribution of responses to positive sentiments from friends and online connections vs. other consumers. The answers are responses to products that the respondents have already intended to purchase and not for browsing.

The majority of the respondents (68 and 76 %) take into consideration positive comments about a product during the purchasing process and will be consequently be more inclined to buy the product. However, while a positive comment from a friend directly leads to conclude the search and buy the product for 21 % of the respondents, the search is concluded for only 5 % if the comment is made by another consumer.

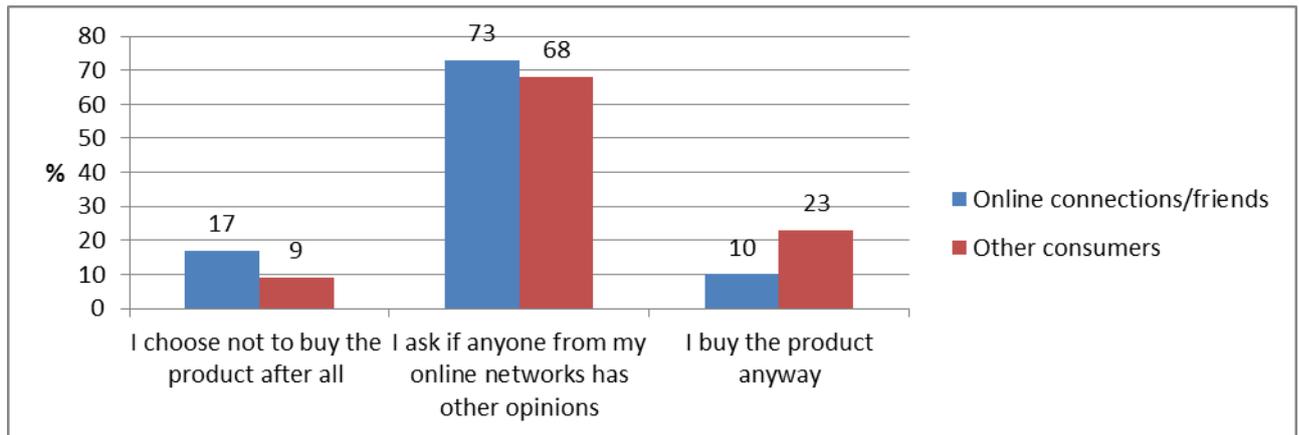


**Figure 8.** Influence of eWOM recommendations on consumer behaviour (percentage)

Almost 20 % of the advice from other consumers is ignored during the decision-making process, while only 11 % of respondents would not consider message from friends and personal networks. In relation to messages from other consumers one respondent answered:

- ‘I will reflect on it, but not in the same way as when a friend recommends the product.’

The above results are responses to positive eWOM. Next, responses to negative communication are illustrated in Fig. 9, which shows the responses to communication from friends and online connections and other consumers respectively.



**Figure 9.** Influence of eWOM dissuasions on consumer behaviour (percentage)

Again, it is evident that statements from friends and online connections have most influence on conclusive purchase decision-making, but advice and reviews from other consumers is massively considered. Only a very small percentage of respondents choose to buy the product if it has been dissuaded by others while by far the majority searches for further information. 17 % of the users choose not to buy the product if a friend or online connection dissuades it, while 9 % refrain from buying it if another consumer reports a negative experience with the product. Also, more respondents choose to ignore messages from other consumers than those from friends and connections. Based on these results, it can be argued that eWOM has an influence on consumer behaviour and purchase intentions. One respondent directly replies that he/she uses social media to read information about relevant products or companies because

- ‘[...] hearing other people’s opinions about products/companies has an influence on my choice’.

However, the results presented in Fig. 8 and Fig. 9 have in common that the majority of the respondents express a need to continue their information search. One message alone rarely changes consumer behaviour. This is also connected to what was previously stated, that the sheer volume of statements seems to be important in relation to reliability and thereby persuasiveness. This is also evident when reading the text-based answers. Here are some examples:

- ‘I continue my information search, but take the recommendation into consideration’
- ‘I want to have more opinions’
- ‘I research more thoroughly, depends on the type of product’
- ‘I will seek more information on the Internet’
- ‘Then I would investigate more about that product and then make my decision’
- ‘I will further investigate the product specifications [...]’

Thus, both negative and positive eWOM influences users’ information-seeking behaviour and purchase decision-making in the sample. However, when we compare this result to our previous results stating that negative sentiments are both communicated and noticed to a higher extent than positive sentiments, it is clear that negative sentiments are also more effective than positive sentiments.



#### **4.5 Discussion on digital information culture**

Web users employ eWOM communication to share their opinions and to find other users' opinions about a product or a company. These opinions can then be used to make a decision, to confirm an already formed opinion or to alter it. A report by Harvard Business Review Analytic Services states that the average amount of time spent on particularly social networking sites increased 82% in 2010 (Harvard Business Review). In Denmark, the percentage of population (aged 16-74 years) connected to at least one type of social network has increased from 42 % in 2009 to 54 % in 2010 (*Danmarks Statistik*, 2011). This is for example supported by a 2007 survey by Deloitte which states that 82 % of purchase decisions have been directly influenced by consumer reviews (Deloitte & Touche, 2007). The new social media offer opportunities for companies because “[n]ever before have companies had the opportunity to talk to millions of customers [...]. [However,] never before have millions of consumers had the ability to talk to each other, criticizing or recommending products – without the knowledge and input from a company” (Harvard Business Review, 2011). This creates challenges for companies because they are no longer the single source of information, and the influence of their communicated messages has decreased in favour of the influence of the consumers. However, a study conducted by Harvard Business Review Analytic Services found that “[m]any organizations seem to operate under old paradigms, viewing social media as one-way flow marketing messages, instead of capitalizing on the opportunity to monitor, analyze, and participate in the millions of conversations between consumers” (Harvard Business Review, 2011).

At the same time, our findings suggest that consumers are also sceptical about online communication channels and prefer traditional face to face communication. When asked why they choose to search online, the respondents mention the easy access to a lot of information from a variety of sources that the Internet and social media have to offer as opposed to the offline world:

- ‘It is easy to google e.g. the products name and then ‘review’ etc. [...] By googling I have access to millions of people’s buying experiences – not only that of my close friends/family. Then I will investigate more about that product and then make my decision.’
- ‘You can ask a lot of people the same question at once and quickly get information from sources whose reliability you can easily judge.’
- ‘It is the easiest way to get an honest opinion about the product. Well, the Internet is the way to go and it has a larger amount of information.’

This shows that people participate in the digital culture and choose to make use of easy access to information and the possibilities that the Web 2.0 offers for multilateral communication. It is easy to find information from other consumers online even though you do not know exactly where or on which website to begin because all online resources are available by just one click in a search engine.

#### **5 Conclusions**

The aim of this paper was to investigate to what extent and how eWOM through social media influences Danish consumers’ behaviour. According to our knowledge and the literature review, so far little has been published about Danish consumers’ online communication practices and in particular about eWOM. The only exception is represented by Jepsen study



(2006), who have studied consumers' newsgroups and whose results suggest that online social networks must play an important role in Danish consumer behaviour. The goal is therefore to investigate the relevance of social networks consumer communication for Danish users by challenging common assumptions about users' engagement and media usage through the investigation of the real behaviours and preferences of a group of Danish users in regard to WOM communication patterns (online versus offline). The study is grounded in communication and consumer behaviour theory (Festinger, 1954; Varey, 2001; Preece and Maloney-Krichmar, 2002). We have carried out an exploratory study to investigate four theoretically-derived research questions. The first research question investigated eWOM and types of Danish users' communication (online versus offline). Our results highlighted that a personal level of knowledge as in face to face communication (offline) is preferred by the group of Danes involved in our study because of the informality of this type of interaction as compared with social media communication. A similar behaviour was identified in online communication because the Danish users involved in the study prefer to communicate using their real identity rather than being anonymous. Thus, the possibility of anonymous communication, which is conceived of as one of the most important features provided by digital platforms (Preece and Maloney-Krichmar, 2002, p. 7), seems not to be perceived by the users as relevant when communicating personal consumer experiences. Furthermore, based on our sample we found that the majority of users prefer to read and monitor other consumers' messages or to answer them only when their opinion is asked. Hence, with respect to the Social Technographics Profile, the users were mainly joiners and spectators and rarely senders (creators or critics) of eWOM.

Not surprisingly, Danish social media users involved in the study find eWOM from friends and peers (including anonymous recommendations) more trustworthy than messages from companies. This is mainly because they are perceived as sincere and objective, which provides support to Festinger's theory of social comparison which states that the belief of sharing a similar condition increases trust among people, even if they are strangers. In addition, knowing and trusting the sender of the eWOM increases the persuasiveness of the message and thus influences consumer behaviour. However, even though friends are regarded as more trustworthy than other consumers, the latter still have an impact on consumers' choices, particularly when the products are evaluated negatively. According to our survey, eWOM results in additional information seeking and in many cases also in a change of opinion about products and companies and consequently a change of purchase decision. As expected, negative eWOM plays an important role in consumers' decision-making. First of all, Danish social media users communicate negative eWOM through social media to a higher extent than they communicate positive messages. Negative experiences are remembered more often than positive experiences and are also shared to a greater extent. We also investigated the difference in persuasiveness of negative vs. positive messages. We found that the more negative the message, the more it influences the Danish consumers' behaviour from our sample. By contrast, positive messages are most often perceived as too subjective and consequently less trustworthy. Accordingly, positive reviews are less persuasive and less successful in influencing consumer behaviour.

Overall, our findings emphasize the increased influence that eWOM in online social networks has on consumer behaviour. We foresee that eWOM will increasingly impact the reputation of businesses in the future and therefore consumer satisfaction will be more and more important. Particularly, our study supports the idea that Danish users rely to their personal online social networks to search for information about products and brands. In line with Jepsen research,



who found that consumers' newsgroups are primarily able to replace commercial sources and not primary reference groups, we found that online and offline social networks are the most relevant sources of information. Our study highlights also how product and brand communication of the companies is often perceived as untrustworthy compared to other information sources (e.g. WOM or eWOM consumer reviews) by the Danish users. As pinpointed in Li et al., 2008, "people use technologies to get things they need from each other instead of companies". Furthermore, literature acknowledges the role of culture in consumer behaviour and engagement.

This trend is acknowledged not only by the Danish digital consumers in our study but also by a growing interest in emerging trends such as reputation management, big data and social media analytics research. Therefore, it is of great importance for companies not only to monitor the social media discourse that surrounds them in order to react quickly accordingly, but also to build new forms of legitimacy in the digital world. Different strategies to regain company's legitimacy are emerging. First of all, companies increasingly participate and engage in the online discourse in social network, as stakeholders. This dialogical nature of social media allows companies to establish what Morsing & Schultz (2006) called involvement and endorsement strategies. The involvement strategy implies no boundaries for the organization that co-creates meaning, sense and vision together with its stakeholders. Another response to the crisis of legitimacy is through the endorsement of opinion leaders. The endorsement strategies are used to diffuse content and get feedbacks, while avoiding potential consumers' criticisms (Morsing & Schultz, 2006). Through the endorsement strategy, companies target a minority of users in digital media, called *influencers*, who are able to impact on public opinion.

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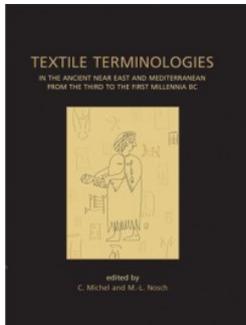


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## Review of the book:



### **Textile terminologies in the ancient near East and Mediterranean from the third to the first millennia BC**

Cécile Michel and Marie-Louise Nosch (eds.)

Oxbow Books. Oxford. 2010. 444 + ixi p.  
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ISBN : 978-1-84217-975-8.

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This title in the Ancient Textile Series is a collection of twenty-two papers in English and French on textile terminologies in the Semitic and Indo-European languages. It focuses on the written records of the Eastern Mediterranean area from the 3<sup>rd</sup> to the 1<sup>st</sup> millennia BC. The papers result from a workshop jointly organized in 2005 by the center for textile research of the Danmarks Grundforskningsfond in Copenhagen and a research laboratory on archeology at the Centre national de la recherche scientifique in Nanterre, France.

The editors' interdisciplinary approach is creative (they bring together archeologists, philologists, terminologists.), and the book gives a good overview of the terminological problems encountered within the investigation of ancient languages' specialized vocabularies. Although this is not stated explicitly, the book is indeed a substantial collection of examples that show how hard it is to grasp a concept from a term alone: a basic problem of terminology. The practical difficulties encountered during the investigations provoke the reader's attention and illustrate only too well that terms cannot be studied in isolation from the concepts they denote. Throughout the book, tiny bits of information are brought together with the general aim of solving a perplexing puzzle—i.e., reconstructing concepts from terms. At times, puzzle pieces appear to be oddly shaped, and too often, a piece will not interlock with the other to complete the overall picture.

Let us introduce a few illustrative examples from the book. Michel and Veenhof (paper 12) underline the lack of transparency of terms as well as the difficulty of deciphering a term's meaning from its etymology alone. The term *ṣubātum* is derived from a verb meaning “to seize, to grasp,” and it denotes a fabric that holds the body or is attached to it. However, this “guessed” meaning holds true for most garments, and one does not know whether the term *ṣubātum* designates a garment that is untailored (textile) or one that is ready to wear, or both. Further evidence against the reliability of etymology is provided by Wisti Lassen (13). She



mentions a possible shift in meaning of the term *ktn/kutānum*, which could have been originally used exclusively to refer to a type of textile made of flax (*kitū* in Akkadian and *ktn* in Aramaic), but later denoted other types of textiles with the same weave, color, and texture, as shown, for instance, by the Hebrew term *kuthnoh* (not meaning “flax,” but “cotton”). Similarly, in Modern English, the term *linen* has undergone a shift of meaning and only rarely refers to a textile that is specifically made of flax. Luján provides another example of misleading transparency (18). In ancient times, groups of workers were identified thanks to a personal name in the genitive case, a place name, or the name of the item produced by the group. For example, the *ko-u-re-ja* was a group of workers that produced *ko-u-ra* items, the *te-pe-ja* group *te-pa* items, and the *e-ne-re-ja* group *e-ne-ro* items. But, interestingly, the *ko-u-re-ja* and the *te-pe-ja* groups also produced *tu-na-no* items. This clearly shows that there is not necessarily a univocal relationship between a term and the concept it denotes.

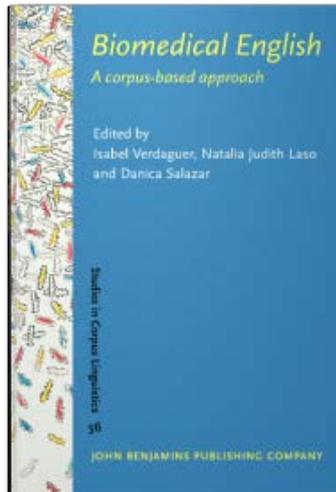
The major issue the readers encounter as they wander throughout the book, however, is that linguistic items seem to have survived better than referential ones. (Terms, or texts, have survived better than concepts, or textiles.) Many excavations have yielded little or no archeological remains (see, e.g., Michel and Veenhof, 12; Lassen, 13; or Villard, 19). Therefore, researchers have no choice but to adopt a corpus-driven approach to terminology. “When most of the primary evidence is missing...we must be creative in order to reconstruct the past. We must tease out bits and pieces of information from different sources and put them together with the hope of getting the broader picture” (Lassen, 13). Often, a term is the first piece of the puzzle. Domain experts then proceed step by step to collect information on the concept. Interestingly, if researchers do succeed—even if only partly—in unraveling the meaning of a term and its concept, they still face a major challenge: How can a concept from ancient times be expressed using today’s vocabulary? Finding an equivalent term or wording in our modern languages sometimes amounts to untying the Gordian knot. Joannès (20) gives the example of the Akkadian term *lubāru*, which can mean a fabric, a cloth, a garment, or a dress or suit. According to Beaugeard (14), the current textile vocabulary refers to concepts that are so different from those that existed in ancient times that each translation endeavor raises more problems than it provides solutions.

I hope the reader will have by now a good sense of the ground covered by the book, although I have elucidated only a few of the numerous issues it addresses. This title is a blueprint for a close collaboration between experts of several domains. Through it, it becomes immediately clear that experts of ancient times can benefit from collaboration initiatives, and that teamwork is necessary in order to assemble a complete puzzle.

Having mentioned the positives of the book, I would be remiss not to mention the drawbacks. Michel and Nosch’s general aim was to attempt a comparative and diachronic study of ancient textile terminology. In this, they are taking a big step forward in the march toward integrative interdisciplinary approaches, although they certainly do not fully succeed. The book is for the most part a collection of descriptive corpus-based studies of terms at different periods of time and in various cultures, languages, and geographical areas. The assemblage of papers has a coherent structure and starts with an introductory contribution to the discipline of terminology, which is followed by background papers dealing with essential concepts of textile production. These first papers are extremely useful to the terminologist who is not acquainted with ancient textiles. Nevertheless, I would have expected an overview both of the languages and of the alphabets and other writing systems at stake (non-historians are left to unlock the mysteries of, e.g., Linear A, logograms, and graphemic classifiers). There is an



introductory paper on terminology for non-terminologists; given the interdisciplinary perspective of the editors, there should have been a short introductory paper or an appendix on ancient languages and writing systems for non-historians as well. Furthermore, while the editors' introductory thoughts provide an accurate summary of the contents, they suffer from a lack of overt reference to the respective chapters and thus fail to help the reader contextualize the papers. I was also disappointed to see no convincing conclusion, but all in all, I found the book incredibly stimulating, and a worthy addition to the terminologist's bookshelf. When one considers the (thousands of) hours spent looking for a concept on the basis of a term and bits of contextual information—hunting for clues to support the supposed definition of the concept—it is simply astounding. It can only be a further incentive not only to reconcile text and textile but also to enhance the collaboration between domain experts and terminologists.



### **Book review:**

#### **Biomedical English: A corpus-based approach**

Isabel Verdaguer, Natalia Judith Laso and Danica Salazar (eds.).

John Benjamins. Amsterdam 2013. 214 p.

<https://benjamins.com/>

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English for specific purposes is a sometimes neglected discipline which, nonetheless, has important practical implications for many sectors of society. From the first studies in the 1960s and 1970s on what were then considered almost distinct language varieties of English, this field has witnessed a shift of focus towards considering the students, and not the varieties taught, as specific and distinct from one another (Robinson 1991). Nowadays, medical English, business English, legal English, aviation English and English in science and technology, *inter alia*, are considered registers which use almost the same grammatical features but make an uneven use of them in varied patterns and constructions. Even though claims on the status of these Englishes as separate registers is controversial, specialized studies, dictionaries and online resources, *SciE-Lex* being among them, facilitate the tasks of the members of those communities whose job crucially involves English.

Dictionaries in the field of biomedicine including the online *Diccionario Médico-Biológico, Histórico y Etimológico* and the Stedman's and Dorland's dictionaries are numerous and well-known to researchers, as pointed out by Navarro (*IntraMed* 2010). A few and more scarce published volumes touch upon the linguistic skills needed by biomedical scientists writing in English including Ribes, Iannarelli and Duarte (2009), Ross (2008) and Roubík, O'Neill and Smith (2005). However, their approach is usually less focused and exclusively monolingual (in English), without specific applications to the Spanish-speaking scientific community. That makes *SciE-Lex*, on which *Biomedical English* reports, one of the first attempts to ease and facilitate the task of Spanish researchers in that field. This project serves as a guiding point in their English academic skills through a simple and accessible, yet fully equipped, interface. One of the corollaries of this volume is to show how dependent meaning is on the context in which speakers use it (Barnbrook 2007: 291) and on the function for which they use it. Features such as the discourse function, the collocational environment and real examples of some of the lexical units in the database boost the usefulness of *SciE-Lex* and the informativeness of the volume with regards to the project. An added asset is its dynamic and



concrete use in the writing process, less like that of the lexicographic volumes cited above.

The volume is comprised of 10 chapters (numbered here for convenience). A bibliographic review of phraseology, collocations and their application in the field of biomedicine serves as an introduction to the following three chapters, which present the *Health Science Corpus* (HSC hereafter) and the database *SciE-Lex*, the authors' main project within the context of the *Lexicology and Corpus Linguistics Research Group*. The bulk of the book comprises six chapters dealing with practical applications of those two resources. Some of them target different constructional features, such as collocations of abstract nouns and adjectives in chapter 4, negation in chapter 6, passive and active sentences in chapter 7 and gender in chapter 8. Some others target specific lexical units including the verb *describe* in chapter 5 and the adjectives *(un)likely*, *(un)clear* and *(un)able* in chapter 6. Chapter 9 describes some of the argumentation in the HSC texts in metaphorical terms. The final chapter offers a follow-up on the current stage of development of the *Spanish Framenet* (SFN hereafter) and stresses new efforts placed on developing the syntactic interface and constructional patterning of Spanish in the project.

The volume starts with a bibliographic note on notions including collocations and “lexical bundle” (Biber *et al* 1999) as well as on the distinction between corpus-based and corpus-driven studies. Laso and Salazar acknowledge the need of varied approaches to multiword units of meaning so as to create effective tools adapted to specific purposes. An example of that is the use of Sinclair's idiom principle, of *FrameNet* and of other tools from cognitive linguistics in the analysis of biomedical discourse in *SciE-Lex* as presented in the volume. Sinclair's theoretical backbone is his “idiom principle”, which states that:

[A] language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analysable into segments. To some extent, this may reflect the recurrence of similar situations in human affairs; it may illustrate a natural tendency to economy of effort; or it may be motivated in part by the exigencies of real-time conversation'.

(1987: 320)

The authors overview three approaches to the study of collocations. The London School of Linguistics, headed by Firth, Halliday and Sinclair, take statistical frequency as the crucial factor whereas the other dominant approach, that of Russian lexicography, focuses more on the grammatical patterns and taxonomy of collocations. A third approach, Gledhill's pragmatic-rhetorical one (2000), is also brought forth in the chapter to point out that *SciE-Lex* made use of all three at different stages of the construction of the database. One of this project's limitation is, as acknowledged by the authors, its corpus-based nature, that is, the analysis (although inductive) of tokens from a pre-established set of lemmas in the corpus and via a set of pre-established grammatical patterns known in English. Finally, Laso and Salazar make reference to “lexical bundles”, recurrent units whose meaning is not always idiomatic but which instantiate particular structural correlates (e.g. pronoun + verb + complement). Lexical bundles, however, do not come without drawbacks since it is not clear how they are to be taught or how they are to be included in lexicographic works.

Chapter 2 focuses on the actual development of *SciE-Lex*. As Verdaguer, Laso, Guzmán, Salazar, Comelles, Castaño and Hilferty acknowledge, although the technical scientific lexis in English has been compiled in several specialized dictionaries, no tools facilitate the translation of non-technical scientific terms from and to English. First of all, the authors



undertook the morphological, syntactic and semantic annotation of the data in the *ad hoc HSC*, composed of 718 health science research articles in English. They use the coding letters *C* for ‘word class’, *M* for ‘morphological variant’, *E* for ‘Spanish equivalent’, *S* for ‘clarification of senses’, *Ver* for ‘cross-references to related entries’, *C* for ‘patterns of occurrence’, *L* for ‘list of collocates’, *Ex* for ‘examples of real use’ and *N* for ‘notes to clarify usage’, as illustrated with the headword *approach*. Since ‘having a good command of the characteristic word combinations of a specific genre is crucial in order to establish the author’s membership within the scientific community’ (2013: 29), the second step targeted phraseological units. The headword *see*, in this case, illustrates this second tagging process, with the categories *Bundle*, *Discourse Function*, *Text Distribution*, *Example* and *Note* structuring the database at the syntagmatic level. The practical uses and applications of the *SciE-Lex* database described here are presented in the rest of chapters along the volume.

“Formal and Functional Variation of Lexical Bundles in Biomedical English” addresses a stage of functional organization in the process of the construction of *SciE-Lex*. In the first part, the authors explain how they changed from grouping lexical bundles according to frequency, in which case very frequent bundles had very infrequent variants, to grouping them according to their keyword, that is, the central item in the multiword units. Morphological (in number, tense, polarity, voice and person) and lexical variation (in different nouns, verbs, adjectives and prepositions being used) was taken into account to group these bundles. For example, *results show that*, *our results show that*, *these results show that* and *the results show that* were all taken to be variants of the prototypical bundle *results show that* (Salazar 2011). *It is clear* and *it is not clear*, however, are not taken as variants of a prototypical bundle because their positive and negative polarity establishes a functional difference. In the second part, a series of features and techniques used to search functional variation in the bundles including an innovative drop-down list with options for each function are detailed. Field of study, sentential position, textual position and surrounding words (Salazar & Verdaguer 2010) are used to discriminate those functions. An enhancement therein cited with regards to prior functional taxonomies of bundles is the bottom-up approach of ‘assigning lexical bundles to functions rather than linking pre-established functions to individual bundles’ (2013: 51). The authors endorse a view of language, in general, and English collocations, in particular, which contrasts with some logical- and generative-oriented frameworks based on *a priori* philosophies. Their project is effectively enhanced by the creation of the taxonomy from the data, that is, descriptively, and not to fit the data, that is, prescriptively.

Stemming from, a prior study of the noun *conclusion* of one of the authors (Verdaguer & Laso 2006, Laso 2009), Laso and John present in chapter 4 a study of that and other abstract nouns (*agreement*, *comparison* and *decision*) together with their concordance lines and collocations. The authors mostly find them with either descriptors indicating size, opinion, quantity and extent, or with classifiers indicating topic or relation. *Agreement* and *conclusion* frequently collocate with the former ones as in *They are in broad agreement* or *A similar conclusion was reached when the morphology of double-mutant plants was examined*. These nouns are then at odds with the general tendency for scientific language to be objective and unbiased. *Comparison* and *decision*, however, appear more frequently with relational and topical adjectives as in *direct comparison* and *behavioral food-sharing decision*. This fact is in agreement with Biber *et al*’s (1999) belief that the use of neutral adjectives like relational and topical ones reflects the attitude of describing and discussing evidence in scientific writing more than the use of descriptive adjectives.

Chapter 5, the most extensive in the volume, presents over 31 pages a very thorough analysis of the verb *describe* in scientific texts from the *HSC*. A strong preference for the verbal instantiations of *describe* (95.3%) rather than its nominalized forms (4.7%) is found in these texts. From a lexeme-specific perspective, *described* outranks any other form by being overwhelmingly used in 90.93% of cases. One of Ventura's main points, following Pattern Grammar (Hunston & Francis 2003), is that the different senses of a word will appear in different patterns, and different words instantiated in the same pattern will exhibit some core shared meaning. In one of the sections the four main patterns displayed by *describe* are discussed. On the one hand, he shows that the more prototypical meaning of *describe* as 'to depict in words' appears very frequently in patterns with active and passive verbs, with adverbs and prepositions pre- and post-modifying it, and as discourse markers or, as he labels them, "spatial and temporal guiding patterns". An instance of the former active pattern is *In conclusion, this report describes a novel pathway for the regulation of ion transport in PDEC*. On the other hand, *describe* as 'to identify and label' appears only with the pattern [ (N) V-ed as N ] as in the sentence *The animals described as wild type were C. elegans, variety Bristol, strain N2*. Ventura's descriptive contribution to the volume undoubtedly helps exemplify the varied range of syntactic and semantic patterns captured by the *HSC*.

"Negation in Biomedical English" offers some observations on the behaviour of negation, especially in relation to the adjectives *(un)likely*, *(un)clear* and *(un)able*. Interestingly, *unlikely* is more common than *not likely*, probably because its appearance with the pronoun *it* makes it more tentative and evasive with regards to scientific commitment, as Laso, Comelles and Verdaguer point out. It is also noticeable that both are used mostly when indicating the consequences of a phenomenon and illustrate the function of textual hedging. With the function of showing (un)certainty, *clear* and *unclear/not clear* show very similar results in terms of frequency in the *HSC*. The latter is usually followed by a *wh*-clause and shows up in the discussion, but not the results section, evincing the more assertive attitude of scientists in their results than in the discussion stemming from those results. As with *unlikely*, *unable* is favoured against *not able* with regards to frequency, and it is usually accompanied by modals in the function of hedging devices. A notable use, as illustrated by *Although the rate was low, we were able to recover three clone from cell lines*, is that of *able* with human subjects in the superordinate clause to indicate success of the authors. Overall, negative bundles are frequently used in constructions indicating cause and consequence, being affixal negation more common than clausal one. The section where these adjectives in their negative manifestation feature more prominently are the results and discussion sections.

Chapter 7, the only one in the volume that analyzes data coming from a language other than English, addresses the frequency, type of verbs, functions and language- and field-specific preferences of personal and impersonal (active/passive) constructions. Journals in medicine and mathematics in English and Spanish are used to extract data that show 'the prevalence of passive features that serve to reduce the authorial presence in the description of scientific procedures' (2013: 121) and the 'marked preference for personal rather than impersonal forms in the more abstract, logic-based discipline of Mathematics' (*ibid*). The former may be, according to Salazar, Ventura and Verdaguer, due to the medical focus on research procedures instead of in the researchers themselves, a captured by Tang and John's (1999) role of "recounter". The latter may be due to the more needed role of the researcher as guide and "originator" (in Tang and John's terminology) in the reasoning of mathematical argumentation, as attested by the frequent use of mental, existence and communication verbs



in the articles on mathematics. The authors evince as well the propriety of each type of construction, personal and impersonal ones, for different types of field. They note the enhancing feature that *SciE-Lex*, their self-designed database for Spanish scientists, presents by providing information on, among others, the contexts in which passive constructions may be adequate in scientific biomedical discourse.

Guzmán deals with what she labels “assigned gender” in chapter 8 as expressed deviantly in nouns denoting animals in English Zoology journals. She manually inspects 47 nouns with anaphoric reference, illustrating what the author calls “Units of Anaphoric Reference”. Among those nouns, the most common ones are *gorilla*, *bugs* and *rhinoceros*. Although overall a 65.73% of them have *it* as their anaphora, the remaining percentage of *he/she* prevents us from considering the neutral anaphora as default. Following Quirk *et al*'s (1985: 314-318) taxonomic scale, the author notes that the category comprising names of bugs, amphibians and fish use *he/she* predominantly. Similarly, nouns of mammals and birds use *he/she* as well when there are proper nouns, gender-marked nouns or sex-specific activities being referred to such as being pregnant. The evidence from these nouns extracted from the *HSC* shows that, at least in the academic register in zoology journals, neuter anaphora is not the default one.

The metaphoric pattern DISCOURSE IS A FORM OF MOTION ALONG A PATH INFLUENCED BY FORCED DYNAMICS, originally presented in Castaño's (2012) doctoral dissertation, is introduced in chapter 9 to explain discourse organization in scientific texts. Castaño, Hilferty and Verdaguer's analysis focuses on six abstracts from articles in the *Journal of Cell Biology*. After an abridged account of the interacting image schemas “Force Dynamics” and “Source-Path-Goal”, the authors provide the ontological correspondences of the metaphor, that is, the links between one entity and its corresponding entity in the target domain, and the epistemic correspondences, that is, the inferences drawn from those ontological correspondences. According to these correspondences, the source is the previous knowledge, obstacles are knowledge gaps, the path is the scientific method and forces are evidence pushing towards the destination or conclusion. For instance, in [...] *much effort has been directed towards defining their molecular organization. Unfortunately, major uncertainties remain regarding their true structure in living cells*, the knowledge gap entity in the target domain is illustrated because *major uncertainties* are obstacles in the path where efforts have been moving. Similarly, in *We have applied this technique to define the structure of TIs operating from [...]*, the method, that is, the way of carrying out the research, in the metaphoric target domain is instantiated by the *technique*, which corresponds to the means, that is, the way in which the trajector moves, in the MOTION ALONG A PATH. After their revealing analysis, the authors conclude by asserting that ‘the rhetorical structure of scientific abstracts in the field of biology is shaped by the topology of source-path-goal and force-dynamics image schemas’ (2013: 182), thus conforming to the metaphorical conceptualization of discourse as a path on which entities move.

The last chapter of the volume, “Frames, Constructions and Metaphors in Spanish FrameNet”, offers an informative presentation of the most updated features of the *SFN* by its director, Carlos Subirats. First he presents an automatic semantic-role program for labelling sentences, the so-called “Shalmaneser” (Erk & Padó 2006), that requires prior syntactic tagging of the data. That program is useful in the current step of *SFN*, that of storing grammatical patterns associated with frames. This chapter shows how the aim of the Framenet project to account for the syntax-semantics interface, in Spanish in this particular case, can be attained through a



detailed analysis of grammatical constructions and their constructs or fillers stemming from the consideration of the semantic frames those constructions instantiate. New notions such as “construction evoking element” (CEE), “construction daughter” (CD) and “construct phrase type” (CstrPT) are used in the syntactic-constructional analysis of sentences. The author illustrates the *Comparison\_equality* construction through the Spanish example *Este niño es tan alto como su padre* ‘This kid is as tall as his father’, which contains the “construction daughter marker” *tan* and the “construction daughter base expression” *alto*. Finally, Subirats illustrates how metaphors can be explained through frames. For instance, the still unregistered frame *Penetrating\_into* captures the source frame of a metaphor where by penetrating into a place is trying to understand a difficult topic as in *En esta novela el autor se adentra en la particular problemática del exiliado político* ‘In this novel the author delves into the special problems of political exile’. The future horizon of the SFN points towards ‘working on developing more ways to integrate semantic and constructional annotation’ (2014: 207).

Even though some of the chapters fit into the traditional categories of morphology (chapter 8) and syntax (chapters 4 and 5) or in the interface of both (chapters 6 and 7), others do not. The pervasive cognitive operation of metaphor that was brought about with the publication of Lakoff and Johnson’s seminal work *Metaphors we Live By* (1980) explains much of chapters 9 and 10. The former accounts for scientific discourse being metaphorically understood as movement along a path. Another tool from cognitive linguistics, the *FrameNet* database originally developed by Fillmore and his collaborators, serves as the basis for Subirats proposal, which applies frames to the analysis of metaphors. As the variegated topics covered by Verdaguer, Laso and Salazar’s volume show, language entails more than form. Those forms, the most visible part, are mapped onto systematic meanings in entrenched patterns, giving rise to collocations, lexical bundles and multiword units in, among other types of texts, English articles in biomedical journals.

Overall, this volume shows that *SciE-Lex* can be a useful tool for Spanish scientists in the field of medicine, biology and related disciplines. Its taxonomic criteria for English collocations and expressions could be enhanced by tools such as the *BioLexicon* (Thomson *et al* 2011), which is used in text mining tasks such as processing of biomedical texts, linguistic tagging and text extraction of events and facts. Notwithstanding such minor gains, the human component in the process of selection and classification of collocated units is amply justified and proven successful. The reviewed volume and the project involved, *SciE-Lex*, represent, without a doubt, a concise, well-structured and encompassing attempt to facilitate the task of Spanish scientists reporting their research in English. Not only are the benefits of this enterprise directed towards individual researchers and teams whose credibility and ease of communication will be enhanced but also towards Spanish research in the field of biomedicine in general.



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