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IN MEMORIAM

**Benno Hübner
(1931-2016)**

IN MEMORIAM

Benno Hübner
(1931-2016)

Benno believed in many things: friendship, dialogue, tedium, leisure, the goodness of mankind (especially womankind, I hear him add). And he strongly disbelieved in other things, dogmas, for example, nationalisms, 'competitive consumerism', high-handedness in all its shapes and forms... High on his list of good things was the pleasure of conversation, whether in traffic-stopping *capazos* or at *cierzo-*chastised *chaflanes*, art galleries, bars or classrooms. (On occasion it might be difficult to know whether the session was a walkabout class or a pub-crawl). A genuine peripatetic and a true urban *flâneur*, he liked nothing better than to progress through the Casco Viejo, visiting key points and key people, taking the pulse of the city, seeking 'l'éternel du transitoire' (as he once put it).

Benno was a born conversationalist and I have often thought that he had something of the Pied Piper of Hamelin magic about him. What he had to say was often not fully intelligible to his audience (it was high-flying philosophy with non-German and non-Latin speakers limping behind), but they/we would ask for more. We instinctively felt that here was a man who when he talked, talked of things very close to him, a man whose life was congruent with what he was saying and consequently what he said was *ipso facto* important.

Towards the end of his life Benno spent more and more time working on Heidegger's philosophy. Heidegger had been Benno's teacher and Benno felt that there was unfinished business between them. (In an interview he said that he had

come to bury his erstwhile master). At weekly lunches with Benno we would raise the question (already knowing the answer) "Who is the third who walks *always* beside you?" and he would admit —yes— that he and Heidegger were coming close to a showdown. Eventually the day came when Benno felt moved to stand up in the restaurant and proclaim *urbi et orbi*, arms outstretched "¡El Ser no es – el ser no es!" He added by way of a footnote "¡La Metafísica es Antropología! ¡La Teología es Antropología!" In 2009 Benno wrote *Heidegger, un loco del ser* and his last (unfinished) book was on the same subject. Heidegger at least served us as a catalyst for the exchange of the much prized *Streicheleinheiten*, as an 'objective correlative' for many an intellectual excursus.

Benno by all accounts was adept at finding common ground with his students —half and eventually one quarter his age. He and I paradoxically found comfort in the common ground of having both 'taken part' in World War II: Britain was blitzed by the Luftwaffe and we children, standing in the blackout, listening to the planes overhead, learned from the drone of their engines to distinguish friend (outward bound Lancaster bombers) from foe (incoming Luftwaffe heavy bombers). Meanwhile, on the other side of the channel, Benno aged 14 was sent with his school to Pforzheim, a zone of relative safety near the French border. In virtue of his age, he was appointed a *Jungenführer* and on the last day of the war, 1945, since he could speak French, he was designated to go to the house where the French officers were billeted, knock politely on the door and then say, loud and clear: "Messieurs, la guerre est finie".

The war is over: may he rest in peace.

<div align="right">Timothy Bozman</div>

A Benno lo conocí en 1992. Entonces ejercía de profesor de lengua alemana para historiadores (¿o era para geógrafos?). Eran los tiempos en que, según Benno, "los que querían aprender aprendían y los que no… aprobaban". De esta época recuerdo sobre todo los cafés en el bar de la Facultad y que estos iban casi siempre acompañados de conversaciones sobre filosofía alemana. Por su parte, al menos que yo recuerde, sobre Kant. No puedo presumir de haber entendido todo lo que decía. Eso sí que lo recuerdo bien.

Recuerdo el día que lo jubilaron con fecha del día de su cumpleaños (6 de abril). Antes de lo que él esperaba, ya que le habían asegurado que podría terminar el curso académico. La noticia lo sorprendió recién operado del corazón. Cualquier otro probablemente se habría encerrado con una manta y un brasero en su casa a rumiar su descontento y amargura. Pero alguien que en su niñez había aspirado

a ser Papa no podía reaccionar así. Benno inauguró una nueva etapa en su vida: aprendió ruso, se fue a Rusia (¿o era Bielorrusia?), estableció y revitalizó sus contactos con la intelectualidad y el mundo del arte (bielor)rusos...

Las historias de esta nueva fase son apasionantes y reflejan tanto sus ganas de vivir como su capacidad para hacer pensar a los demás. De esta época es la historia de su brillante intervención en un congreso de Culturología. Creo que no exagero si digo que llegó a ser un referente de la nueva filosofía rusa del post-marxismo. Le gustaba mencionar con orgullo más que justificado que sus obras estaban recogidas en la *Biblioteca de los Filósofos*, junto con los autores rusos consagrados. Benno no fue profeta en su tierra, no. Pero sí más allá de sus fronteras. Este es el periodo más fructífero en cuanto a publicaciones se refiere, y es una lástima que no llegara a ver su último libro traducido al español.

A pesar de sus muchas publicaciones en alemán, español y ruso y a pesar de las conferencias que dio, más que al intelectual y filósofo, en el último Benno yo seguía viendo al niño curioso que en la casa paterna de Moncada y Reixac movió un mueble (con la ayuda de su hermano, eso sí), para descubrir un tesoro inesperado: una pistola y unas fotos en blanco y negro que no entendió hasta muchos años después. Estaba también el casi adolescente al que hicieron formar en el patio del internado al final de la guerra para dar vítores a un Tercer Reich que ya se estaba desmoronando ("zum letzten Mal: Sieg… Heil!... y por delante del colegio veíamos pasar los tanques de los aliados"). Seguía habitando el alumno y exdiscípulo de Heidegger. Un alumno que despertó en cuanto tuvo tiempo (algo bueno tenía que tener la jubilación forzada) y que se dedicó a revisar el concepto del *ser* y el *devenir* en Heidegger; a cuestionar las teorías de su maestro hasta el final. Hasta que finalmente lo "asesinó" (Benno dixit).

Si hay algo que recuerdo de Benno es su capacidad para estar en contacto con la realidad sin dejar de cuestionarla nunca. Y si hay algo que admiro en él es su energía y curiosidad (no solo intelectuales) y su valor al reconocerse vulnerable ante los demás. Es lo que hace que lo eche de menos. Yo, cuando sea mayor, quiero ser como él.

<div align="right">Clara Ubieto</div>

Articles

DYSARTHRIA AND TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A CASE STUDY[1]

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1. Introduction

In this article we present a case study carried out with a student with dysarthria in the English language classroom. Dysarthria refers to "a group of speech disorders resulting from disturbances in muscular control" (Darley, Aronson and Brown 1975: 2). We will focus on how to assess students with dysarthria based on diagnostic tests in L1 (first language) and FL (foreign language) that describe the student's abilities regarding the production of both languages.

As part of a larger project on the assessment of oral skills, our case study has been conducted in order to evaluate ways in which students with dysarthria could be assessed in the English as a Foreign Language classroom. In order to do so, we will first need to define what is understood by "assessment". Assessment as a process can be defined as:

> An ongoing process aimed at understanding and improving student learning. It involves making expectations explicit and public; setting appropriate criteria and high standards for learning quality; systematically gathering, analyzing, and interpreting evidence to determine how well performance matches those expectations and standards, and using the resulting information to document, explain, and improve performance. (Angelo 1995: 7)

Our concern is to find a way in which teachers may deal with a specific diversity type in the higher education classroom. This educational level is in clear

disadvantage as regards research and materials when compared with lower educational levels, especially when compared to the amount of material that may be found for working with school students. In Figure 1 below we illustrate how we envisage speech diversity assessment within a Higher Education functional diversity framework. Each functionally diverse student (i.e. a student with learning difficulties and disabilities) has specific needs that need to be fulfilled in order to achieve their educational goals. In our case, we focus on the skills that are needed for language learning, specifically speaking skills. Even though adequate assessment is essential, it is also important to plan and design any adaptation that is needed in the day-to-day learning experience. Thus, a language teacher with a functionally diverse student will first need to identify which language skill will pose more difficulties for the student and start planning his/her teaching adaptations accordingly. A second step will then be to determine the type of instruction that may be necessary to improve this skill, the environmental adjustments, material and instruction adjustments and the possible ways to elicit responses from the student (both in and out of the classroom in the form of assignments). Here technologies (Almond et al. 2010; Fichten et al. 2009; Nganji and Brayshaw 2014) may play an essential role (e.g. programs that read computer-based texts for people who are blind, a tool that works quicker than having these texts translated into Braille and available for the students).
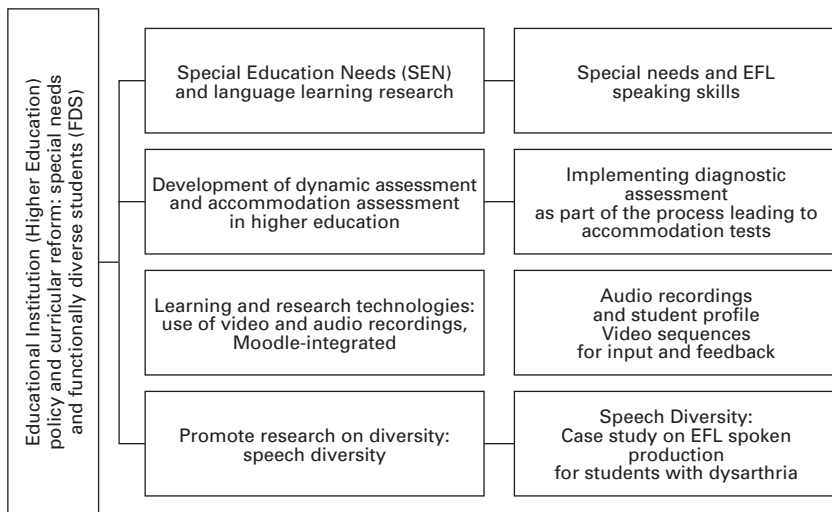
Figure 1. Assessing students with speech diversity in Higher Education.

The following natural step would be deciding the assessment type to use. The three basic assessment types are diagnostic, formative and summative, which typically happen before, during and at the end of a learning phase. Thus, we can say that:

a) Diagnostic assessment is used to assess student's knowledge and skills prior to instruction. It provides indicators for both the student and teacher to become aware of the student's language proficiency profile and to be able to devise an organized learning plan that suits the student's needs.

b) Formative assessment is carried out while learning is taking place. It has an interactional nature in the sense that both student and teacher provide feedback to each other during the learning process and adjustments are made according to this information.

c) Summative assessment is used at the end of a learning phase or to evaluate students according to specific standards. Summative assessment tells us whether a student has reached an acceptable level that is requested to pass a subject or a standardized test.

Although we may employ all or any assessment type, in the case of students with speech disorders or speech diversity, we believe that diagnostic assessment is an essential part of the process because it may lead to a formative assessment with clearly established learning goals. It would give both teacher and student a more detailed and accurate idea of the student's language proficiency and it would also help the teacher to ascertain whether his or her original planning was suitable.

Finally, as suggested in Figure 1, research and sharing of teaching practices are essential if we are to develop effective educational tools that are now missing in higher education and that could be used by teachers following a common methodology based on research results.

2. Learning Difficulties, Learning Disabilities, Physical Disabilities, and Functional Diversity

To our knowledge, most Spanish University teachers do not have specific guidelines with detailed information to deal with functionally diverse students, other than an explanation of the problem and general recommendations in the form of general guidelines. But following this kind of specifications does not help the students achieve any specific goals nor does it motivate them or their teachers to improve their skills, in our case spoken skills both in their own language and in a foreign language. What is lacking is a *protocol* that allows students and teachers to *define the activities or tasks that could be problematic* and state why these activities are problematic, and *determine the specific solutions* (or diverse paths) that may be followed. To this end, a diagnosis of the difficulties students may face due to their condition and an evaluation of the

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kinds of problems that they may work with are vital. In this sense, both teacher and learner have to become aware of the possible difficulties, they need to set a learning plan and they need to set a goal they want to achieve.

Let us give a specific example. If we ask our students to give an oral presentation, we may —among other assessment criteria— use a rubric to assess their performance. Below, we exemplify speech-related and non-verbal criteria included in rubric samples for oral presentations that show items where physical speech diversity may interfere:

Voice: clarity, pace, fluency	Presenter occasionally spoke clearly and at a good pace.	Presenter usually spoke clearly to ensure audience comprehension. Delivery was usually fluent.	Presenter spoke clearly and at a good pace to ensure audience comprehension. Delivery was fluent and expressive.
Pronunciation	Pronunciation occasionally correct, but often hesitant and inaccurate.	Pronunciation and intonation is usually correct.	Pronunciation and intonation is correct and confident.

Table 1. Oral presentation rubric Sample 1 (www.education.vic.gov.au/languagesonline) 06/05/14.

Nonverbal Skills	4 – Exceptional	3 – Admirable	2 – Acceptable	1 – Poor
Eye Contact	Holds attention of entire audience with the use of direct eye contact, seldom looking at notes or slides.	Consistent use of direct eye contact with audience, but still returns to notes.	Displayed minimal eye contact with audience, while reading mostly from notes.	No eye contact with audience, as entire report is read from note.
Body Language	Movements seem fluid and help the audience visualize.	Made movements or gestures that enhance articulation.	Very little movement or descriptive gestures.	No movement or descriptive gestures.
[…]	[…]	[…]	[…]	[…]
Verbal Skills	**4 – Exceptional**	**3 – Admirable**	**2 – Acceptable**	**1 – Poor**
Speaking Skills	Uses a clear voice and speaks at a good pace so audience members can hear presentation. Does not read off slides.	Presenter's voice is clear. The pace is a little slow or fast at times. Most audience members can hear presentation.	Presenter's voice is low. The pace is much too rapid/slow. Audience members have difficulty hearing presentation.	Presenter mumbles, talks very fast, and speaks too quietly for a majority of students to hear & understand.

Table 2. Oral presentation Sample 2 (http://www.uwplatt.edu/system/files/UW-Mad%20Oral_presentation_rubric.pdf) 06/05/14.

If a teacher uses the above or similar criteria to assess students and has to assess a student with dysarthria (or other speech difficulties), these criteria need to be contrasted and valued in relation to the student's abilities in their mother tongue. This is so because speech disorders may influence, for instance, aspects of the presentation such as pace, fluency and intonation. The foreign language teacher needs to be aware of the specific difficulties of the student, since they may vary among students with dysarthria. This awareness should lead us to effectively implement accommodations or modifications in the syllabus and testing methods when necessary. In order to find out the student's abilities, a diagnostic test is needed. These adaptations in the diagnostic phase may carry on during formative assessment and will enable us to develop an informed design of a final or summative adapted assessment. It is these accommodations or adaptations that are difficult to carry out unless clear criteria have been previously designed and practiced.

In the educational environment, studies on learning disabilities[2] (Fuchs and Fuchs 1998; Gunter, Denny and Venn 2000) point out that few modifications are carried out in the curriculum for students with learning disabilities (particularly at post-secondary level, Newman and Madaus 2015) and when they do occur, they are mainly based on acknowledging the degree to which the demands required for a specific subject are lowered. Newman and Madaus (2015) also point out differences and similarities across states in the US, thus identifying considerable variability across states in the same country. Common modifications relate to the amount of time allowed to perform specific tasks, changes in the student-teacher ratio (1:1) and providing some alternate curriculum or assessment formats (Sireci, Scarpati and Li 2005). Some more recent studies, however, present more in-depth needs analysis for functionally diverse students and implementation criteria (Wexler and Luethi-Garrecht 2015). Likewise, materials have been designed for students with a particular specific difficulty (see, for instance, Kormos and Kontra 2008; Kormos and Smith 2012; Nijakowska et al. 2013).

Among the possible modifications that are implemented for functionally diverse students we can speak of test accommodation (Sireci et al. 2005). Test accommodation is an educational practice that consists in the modification of a standardized test. These changes are made in order to adjust the tests to the various needs of functionally diverse students (sensorial, physical or cognitive functionally diverse students). But test accommodation is not very useful unless students are prepared for such tests and teachers know how to train their learners to get the best possible results. Likewise, accommodation tests should be designed not only for standard tests but also for those subjects the functionally diverse students may take as part of their curricula. It is also important to note that validity criteria and accessibility of tests may also be questioned when accommodation takes place (Hansen et al. 2005).

In order to improve test accommodation practices, Fuchs and Fuchs (2001) propose what they call Dynamic Assessment of Test Accommodations or DATA, which helps teachers to obtain a better judgment of the validity of their accommodation, allowing them to compare learning achievements between functionally diverse students and those with no functional diversity. To this aim, short texts are administered under varying conditions (for instance, standard and extended timing) and are mostly group administered. The resulting database is used to determine accommodation validity. These accommodation practices, however, are complex in nature and pose many questions, as these authors later point out:

> In sum, the research base examining differential effects of test accommodations is lean and fails to provide a basis for conclusions about the validity of testing accommodations for the group of students with LD [learning disabilities]. Of course, even if we could point to a well-established literature that documented differential effects for students with LD, findings would represent average performances. And because students with LD demonstrate a variety of underlying deficits, there is tremendous heterogeneity in the population. This means that many students with LD do not conform to "average" findings in the research literature. In fact, although some accommodations may ultimately reveal comparable "average" effects, some students with LD undoubtedly will profit from those very accommodations substantially more than do nondisabled students. For this reason, individual diagnosis of accommodations is necessary for students with LD. (Fuchs and Fuchs 2001: 178)

Types of accommodation usually include: timing (increased), settings (where test takes place), presentation (how instruction is given) and type of response allowed or available (written, spoken, online etc.). But even if these practices are needed and implemented, they are too wide and not enough, because of individual differences among students with special needs that may be marked by they sociocultural environment, learning styles and personal motivation. As Moriña, Cortés and Melero (2014:45), talking about functionally diverse students in Spanish Higher Education (HE), rightly point out:

> for truly inclusive education to become a reality, a shared learning space and timetable are not enough; new approaches to learning and teaching (curriculum design and assessment) are also required. Reform may rouse resistance rooted in the notion that change will have a negative impact on curriculum quality, or that excellence will not be achieved.

Opinion and personal experience (Inahara 2013) should also be reflected in the terminology used to refer to students. Thus, the *Independent Living* approach to "disability" uses the term "functional diversity", which corresponds to a reality in

which a person functions in a different or diverse way from the majority of the members of a society. In the educational environment this social model is the one that fits our approach to language teaching. Teachers need to know how students approach a task and be able to provide feedback according to the students' diverse approaches to language learning. Both institutions and teachers should also approach these students using those terms that better adjust how we think of our students. Thus, the words "disability" and "disorder" refer to the "lack of (dis-)" something, focusing on the medical perspective. The term "diversity" refers to different types of students and how we deal with individuals in the classroom. We will henceforth use the terms "functional diversity" and "speech diversity" in the rest of this article.

Our case study focuses on the difficulties a student with dysarthria may face when confronted with the task of giving an oral presentation in English. It is important therefore to define dysarthria in order to understand how it may affect oral production in an English as a Foreign Language subject. Dysarthria is defined as:

> a collective group of neurologic speech disorders that reflect abnormalities in the strength, speed, range, steadiness, tone, or accuracy of movements required for the breathing, phonatory, resonatory, articulatory or prosodic aspects of speech production. The responsible neuropathologic disturbances of control or execution are due to one or more sensorimotor abnormalities, which most often include weakness, spasticity, incoordination, involuntary movements, or excessive, reduced or variable muscle tone. (Duffy 2013: 4)

When translated to the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom, this means that the student will have difficulties with the spoken part of the subject. In foreign language learning, attention is paid to the four basic skills of reading, listening, speaking and writing. In the case of dysarthria, speaking skills will be complicated due to the speaker's characteristics. Depending on the symptoms a speaker may present, the difficulties can be as varied as a slow speech, changes in vocal quality, limited tongue, lip and jaw movement, hoarseness or slurred speech. Students may also have difficulties related to the ability to physically write due to muscular problems. In the present study we want to focus on a specific task that is meant to be assessed in an EFL subject and we will solely discuss spoken skills. More specifically, we are concerned with spoken skills needed for oral presentations. Since oral presentations are also a common university practice, we believe that some of the findings in this article will be relevant to achieve a better performance for oral presentations in other subjects.

When asked to give an oral presentation, assessment criteria in the EFL classroom may include some or all of the concepts summarized in Figure 2:

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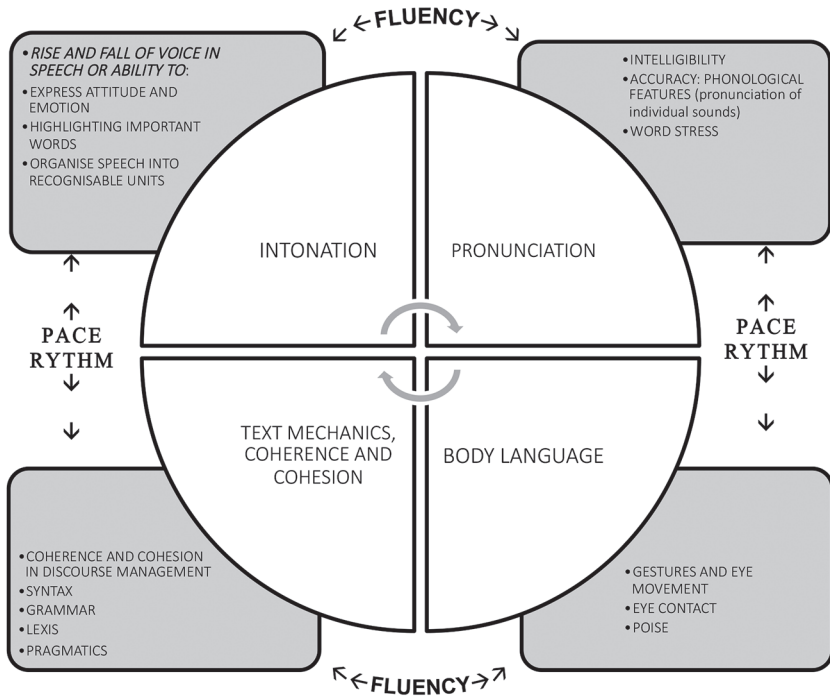
Figure 2. Assessment criteria for oral presentations in EFL.

All the features in this figure join to form spoken discourse; they are not isolated features that are activated separately. Thus, body language and intonation may support each other. Also, a correct pronunciation is needed for words (lexis) to be understood. Being able to communicate one's ideas combining the four main criteria outlined in Figure 2, without needing to stop and think too much about what one is saying, produces fluent speech. Fluency can be described as a smooth flow of words, a good speech rhythm, and an adequate speech rate or pace, and a discourse that is more or less free of hesitations, containing natural pauses.

The aim of this study is to find out how dysarthria relates to oral presentations in a foreign language and how a student with dysarthria could be assessed through special accommodations and yet be consistent with the demands placed on the whole group of students in the classroom. To that end, we will conduct an evaluation of the oral features requested in oral presentations to determine (1)

which may pose a problem to our student, (2) which features may be achieved, (3) which aspects of communication (including gestures) may be improved and how.

This study is innovative because no such attempt exists for dealing with dysarthria in the language classroom and it opens the door to better assess students with speech diversity and to find ways to determine whether these students should or should not be asked to perform spoken tests. Thus, the tests developed for the present study provide relevant feedback for the oral presentation criteria mentioned above that may be affected by speech difficulties in students with dysarthria, namely: intonation, pronunciation, body language and fluency.

3. Method

3.1. Subject

This is a case study in which a subject with dysarthria participates. The subject is a 33 year old postgraduate student and holds a Bachelor's Degree in Humanities. Our student has a cerebral palsy with tetraparesis leading to reduced mobility and speech diversity (dysarthria).

3.2. Settings and Equipment

The subject was asked to participate in two interviews and a number of language tests (described below). She was recorded for both interviews and tests. All audio and video recordings were carried out in a computer room at the university the student attends. A *Canon HD Camcorder LEGRIA mini* was used for all the interviews and tests. All the tasks were simultaneously recorded by the computers using an external microphone. The candidate was video recorded because the readings and the interviews to the candidate could possibly reveal the subject's ability to compensate speech difficulties with gestures and intonation.

3.3. Procedure

As commented above, the aim of this study is to design a protocol that could be used in order to assess a student with speech diversity and serve as a model for other students with similar speech diversity characteristics. It should be born in mind that dysarthrias as well as any other speech problems are complex in nature and the way they affect speech production in both first and foreign language may vary from one individual to another. In order to work with a student with dysarthria, the steps explained below are a proposal for a diagnostic profiling that may aid in developing an organized learning plan according to the student's needs. This diagnostic profiling would promote student's oral skill proficiency awareness

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in order to devise a progress plan in the foreign language subject. Several tests were performed as part of the diagnostic assessment. The tasks are meant to test speaking skills abilities and oral proficiency and range from orthoepic competence (read aloud words, phrases and text) to more complex tasks like picture description and interview. The steps followed are outlined below:

1) Administration of a placement test
2) Online questionnaire to get information about the subject's profile
3) Opening interview in Spanish
4) Tests in Spanish
   4.1. Test list of words in Spanish
   4.2. Test phrases in Spanish
   4.3. Read text in Spanish
   4.4. Talking about a picture in Spanish
5) Tests in English
   5.1. Test list of words in English without audio file help
   5.2. Test list of words in English with audio file help
   5.3. Test phrases in English
   5.4. Read text in English
   5.5. Talking about a picture in English
6) Closing interview in English with the subject discussing a journey to an English speaking country.

4. Results

Test results are analyzed and compared in both languages, Spanish and English, explaining where the subject's difficulties lie. After the analysis, recommendations for the classroom are given based on the student's performance in the tests. For all the tests that follow, the researcher introduced and explained each one before the student started to carry them out. The word reading tests and the reading phrases tests were interpreted by four Spanish and four English language native speakers. It should be pointed out that this could be considered a small number of listeners if we aim at analyzing speaker intelligibility from a medical point of view. But the aim of this article is to provide tools that may help teachers interpret students' abilities so as to design a learning plan. Working with bigger numbers would be unfeasible for the majority of teachers. If test results provide us with sufficient data to understand and interpret our students' abilities, then they might be considered useful tools to work with.

4.1. Placement Test

In order to determine the student's English language proficiency level according to the Common European Framework for languages, she was administered a quick placement test[3]. This test was implemented in *Moodle* to facilitate the task for the test taker. The test consists of 60 questions on the use of English and allows test givers to get a quick reference level for the students they work with. Our student obtained 26/60 corresponding to level A2.

4.2. Online Profile Questionnaire

After the placement test, the subject completed a questionnaire that was used as a reference before the first interview was conducted. The aim of this questionnaire was to obtain a basic student's profile and help the researcher design interview questions. Question choice was meant to yield a more spontaneous performance on the part of the speaker during our first interview with her. It should be noted that the use of the placement test with participants in this study is merely a starting point to identify overall language level. Participants participated in oral tests later on in the study.

5. Results

5.1. *Results for the Tests in Spanish*

5.1.1. Interview in Spanish

The researcher conducted an informal interview with the student before the tests were carried out. The aim of both the opening and closing interviews was to get a sample of more or less spontaneous speech production. Only the interviews and the task in which the student describes a picture allow for fluency and body language observations.

At the beginning of the recording sessions the subject was interviewed and was asked about her learning experience and how she thinks her functional diversity is perceived by classmates and teachers within educational settings. There was no difficulty on the part of the student to make herself understood. The most interesting data recorded in the interview were those related to non-verbal communication. The camera recording of that interview allowed us to observe and annotate gestures used by the student, some of which are shown in the images below. The captions under the images indicate what the subject was saying in her L1 while using the hand gestures:

a) "Other kids overprotect them"

c) "Get adapted to" (hand twist)

b) "If we go after her"

d) "There's no integration"

Figure 3. Sequence for gestures in the interview in Spanish.

These above are some samples of the many gestures the subject performed while speaking in her own mother tongue. Some face gestures were also employed mainly to express emphasis, but are not reproduced to keep our subject anonymous. Due to her cerebral palsy, there are facial muscle restricted movements and face gestures are more difficult to perform, but this was not an impediment for our subject since she communicated through face gestures to the extent of her abilities. Hand gestures proved to be used to their full potential, something that does not always happen with all students/speakers. This means that this particular subject is good at communicating through gestures, at backing her verbal communication with her non-verbal communication resources.

5.1.2. List of Words in Spanish

The Spanish test was considered a tool to determine both the student's areas of difficulty when saying a word and those in which the student is able to reach proficiency. This test consisted of a list of 50 frequent words in Spanish that the subject had to read out loud. This list was designed in a way that included all possible phonemes in Spanish. Each phoneme is repeated twice in different word positions. Words in which the same phoneme appeared in initial and final position

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were also included. For instance, /k/ in the words "**c**afé" and "chi**c**o", with /k/ in initial and final position, respectively, were included in the list of words to be read. Where applicable, this was also done in the English counterpart test (reading a list of words in English), for example: "cold", "chocolate" and "quickly", the last word having the phoneme twice in the same word. The list of words in Spanish was read by the subject and the recordings were interpreted and transcribed by four listeners whose mother tongue was also Spanish.

Regarding the word reading test, average test scores of listeners for the word reading test in Spanish was 90% (SD ±9.52). These scores indicate high word intelligibility as well as a high listener agreement. It can be observed that the group of phonemes that is best performed is that of vowel phonemes with just one error detected for one vowel phoneme. The group of diphthongs shows no error production.

Consonants show a greater range of problems, listed below:

1) Vibrant: this is the group where more substitution and omission errors are detected, since pronunciation of /r/ requires a greater articulatory precision.
   a) Alveolar trill /r/ substitution errors are found for this phoneme, which is changed to plosive bilabial sound /b/ or by voiced velar plosive /g/ when the phoneme appears in initial position both in the first and the second syllable.
   b) Alveolar flap /r/ (/ɾ/) is sometimes omitted and replaced by alveolar lateral approximant /l/ when the phoneme appears in final position both in the first and the second syllable

2) Plosives: some substitution errors are observed.
   a) plosive bilabial sound /b/ is changed to nasal bilabial /m/
   b) voiceless plosive:
      • bilabial /p/ is changed to nasal bilabial /m/
      • dental /t/ is changed to voiced alveolar plosive /d/

3) Voiceless alveolar: some omission errors are found. Sibilant alveolar /s/ is omitted in the first syllable (gastar/galtar) and in final word position, sometimes leading to another word with similar letters and sounds (martes/madre)

4) Affricate. Voiceless postalveolar affricate /tʃ/ is changed to voiceless velar plosive /k/

5) Nasal. Palatal /ɲ/ is changed to nasal alveolar /n/ and diphthong (nio)

6) Consonant clusters: Substitution and omission errors are found when the consonant cluster is formed by a plosive phoneme (/t/, /g/) and a trill phoneme /r/.

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To sum up, it can be said that the vowel phoneme group presents no errors. Difficulties are observed mainly in the simple and compound trill phoneme in their different positions within a word. Plosive consonant phonemes show substitution errors in which these consonants are replaced by phonemes with a different articulation point. Consonants with a lower error frequency are fricatives (with some omission errors), affricates and nasals.

5.1.3. Phrases in Spanish

Twenty phrases in Spanish were recorded and then transcribed by four different listeners. Each phrase had one recording unit and they were thus interpreted as a whole unit. The number of phrases that were not understood by one or more of the listeners was significantly lower in comparison to those of the word reading test. The average percentage of phrases correctly identified by the listeners was 95% (SD± 4.08), indicating a high intelligibility of phrases in Spanish and a small variation among listeners.

In this task only a couple of phrases created comprehension problems. This is due to problems in pronouncing final /r/, which is omitted in "por favor" (*po favor /* please), using an aiding vowel in "pues claro", because of the difficulties to pronounce initial /k/ (*pues oclaro /* (yes), of course). There are no major intonation problems causing unintelligibility for the list of phrases. These are all short sentences but we chose a number of sentences that demanded intonation (questions, exclamative phrases, pauses for commas, etc.) and the subject showed no problem in those phrases for the Spanish test.

5.1.4. Text Reading in Spanish

Following the phrase reading tests, a dialogue[4] was presented to our student and she was requested to read it trying to interpret the role of the two people in the dialogue. The aim of this test is similar to the previous one (isolated phrase reading), but in the case of the text, there is more context, and therefore the subject might try to produce utterances according to the situation she was asked to perform. This may provide the reader more information that lets her consider possible intonation options. In the text reading test, the subject was asked to read a dialogue between two persons. The sentences in the dialogue were short (1 to 14 words). The original text was written in English and it was translated into Spanish for this task. Both language versions are comparable in terms of vocabulary, phrase length and intonation patterns. Conversational intonation posed no important problem for the speaker in the Spanish dialogue. Intonation was more demanding and tiresome than phrase reading, but there were no comprehension problems reported by the Spanish listeners other than one word that was difficult to understand due to difficulty with

the "r" sound that was not uttered, thus resulting in long /ee/ (te<u>rr</u>emoto (Sp)/ earthquake (En)), though it could be understood because of the context.

5.1.5. Talking about a Picture in Spanish

In this test, the subject was asked to work with a picture and try to describe what she could see (healthy food and fast food) and what she thought about the two types of food. This task was more demanding than word, phrase and text reading. As opposed to the interview in Spanish, the only gesture used was face expressions (laughter) to evaluate her attitude towards fast food (positive, in this case the student laughs because she is aware that liking fast food is not supposed to be the recommended answer).

5.2. Results for the Tests in English

The same procedure followed with the subject's mother tongue (Spanish) was used for the tests in English. Taking the English tests after the Spanish ones allowed the student a better comprehension of the task when dealing with the foreign language, thus reducing anxiety.

00:13 "Fine. And you?"

00:10 "It's very green"

01:30 "I eat salmon always"

02:00 "I like it because it is a beautiful university"

04:58 "very, very cold"

05:55 "Valencia-Madrid, Madrid-Dublin"

08:11 "He travelled around the country"

09:58 "He always drinks a beer"

Figure 4. Time sequence for gestures for the interview in English.

5.2.1. Interview in English

The final interview was a series of comments and questions on the student's experience when she travelled to an English speaking country. Gesture usage significantly differed from that of the interview in Spanish. Figure 4 above shows eight pictures reflecting hand gestures along the interview. As can be seen from the images, the first half of the interview yields no gestures due to the fact that the subject is using a foreign language and it takes her a long time to start using spontaneous gestures. It is not until minute 04:58 that gestures start to appear, the first one while saying that a place she visited "was very, very cold", the second one indicating a flight transfer from one city to another, minute 08:11 drawing a circle with the hand to explain the idea of travelling around and finally a drinking gesture while saying "and drink beer".

When compared to the gestures in English (contrast Figures 3 and 4), it should be pointed out that gestures in Spanish are not only iconic (closely related to the semantic content) but also metaphoric (representing abstract concepts such as *integration, adaptation, overprotection*), thus indicating some kind of correlation between language proficiency and use of complex gestures.

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Regarding pronunciation, there were a few mispronounced words that initially complicated comprehension, but they were finally understood with the speaker's rephrasing when the listener showed problems in comprehension. In the case of conversational tasks, both the speaker and the listener have the opportunity to reformulate their speech. This does not happen with the reading tests and it implies questions from the listeners in the case of oral presentations. Task choice is thus very important in the assessment of oral skills for students with speech diversity.

5.2.2. Lists of Words in English

Two word reading tests were carried out in English. The first one consisted of a list of 65 words and no input was given regarding their pronunciation. The second test included another 65 words the student was presented with that had to be read and recorded after listening to each word individually in the *Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary CD-Rom*. Words were chosen from the keywords of the Oxford 3000™ (a list of important and useful words that should be given priority in vocabulary study). The design of the two lists of English words considered the following criteria:

1) Word frequency and/or usefulness.

2) Word difficulty, bearing in mind the word in English may influence whether the subject pronounces it correctly, no matter whether speech diversity may interfere or not.

3) The fact that student proficiency or lack of it could affect pronunciation.

4) Designing two word reading tests, one in which the student is given no instruction on how the words are pronounced, and another one in which the student models the words after listening to them in the *Cambridge Pronouncing Dictionary* (CD version).

Providing audio input in one list and no input for the other would enable us to infer whether the subject's mispronounced words in cases where the same sound appears were due to speech diversity or to her (un)familiarity with those words.

In order to design a more reliable test, we first tested the whole list (130 words) with two groups of students. Twenty-four students with no speech difficulties were selected after performing the same placement test as our subject. Only those who had the same score in that test as our subject were recorded. Our premise was that students would be more liable to mispronounce, for instance, even basic words like "cheese", since they seldom know or remember that there is a long /iː/ in that word or that the sound /ɜː/ is contained in "first". Students were divided into two groups: Group A was asked to read and record the whole list without any previous instruction. Group B was instructed to read and record the whole list after listening to each word in the *Cambridge Pronouncing Dictionary* (i.e. reading and immediately recording each word after listening to it).

This was the way to ascertain whether students had mispronounced the words due to lack of knowledge of the word or inability to pronounce specific sounds or words. The results of the tests determined our inclusion in one list or the other (with or without the help of the pronunciation dictionary) of the total words selected for this study.

The researcher played and paused each word in a computer with headphones that the subject had on while performing the task and the performance was recorded in video and audio format. The recordings were listened to by four different native speakers of the English language[5]. Word intelligibility was counted for each listener, thus counting understood and misunderstood words percentages.

5.2.2.1. List of Words in English without Dictionary Instruction

The list of words without dictionary input included 65 words. The percentage of words that were correctly identified by the listeners was calculated. The intelligibility analysis in the four listeners (57.7%, 28.8%, 63.3% and 45.6%), with an average percentage of 48.9% (SD± 15.35), indicates moderate to low intelligibility problems resulting in slightly below average speech understanding of words in English. It should be pointed out that one of the listeners obtained a very low score when compared to the other three listeners. This fact is particularly important when dealing with students with dysarthria, since it reminds us that listener ability

and listener training are essential issues for educational institutions that want to promote good practices among their teachers. It is the responsibility of both speaker and listener to develop strategies in order to promote mutual understanding. The person with no speech diversity should be as cooperative in the interaction as the person with speech diversity. Thus, the listener's side should not be forgotten: communicative efforts should not be placed on the part of the speaker alone.

5.2.2.2. List of Words in English with Dictionary Instruction

The list of words with dictionary instruction input included 65 words. The percentage of words that were correctly identified by the listeners was calculated. The intelligibility analysis for these words resulted in an average percentage of 50.38% (SD ±7.67). This score indicates moderate intelligibility problems of words in English. The interesting fact about the second test in which audio input was given, is that the listener who had more problems to understand the previous task (no dictionary use) is now able to understand a higher percentage of words (from 28.8% in the test with no input to 44.61% in the test with audio input).

Although there is not a big difference in overall results between the word reading task with and without input (dictionary audios for word pronunciation), these results indicate that there is a space for improvement when relevant input is provided.

5.2.3. Test Phrases in English

When comparing the English tests, it becomes clear that while the word tests reflect pronunciation problems, the phrase tests are related to comprehension problems, that is, being able to understand the phrase as a whole as a conveyor of an easy message. But in the case of phrases there are two possible reactions on the part of the listener, or two ways to interpret the message. The listener may misunderstand one word in the phrase but still transcribe the rest without trying to make sense of it (*I work very hard* → transcribed as → *I walk very hard*), transcribing the phrase with one misunderstood word even if it does not seem to make sense. But the listener may also try to make the utterance fit into a phrase that makes more sense or that is a more common expression (*I work very hard* → transcribed as → I was very hot). In the case of our experiment, the second option (*I was very hot*) would mean a total misunderstanding of the phrase. In a real communicative situation this may lead to misunderstanding in cases in which the listener is not aware of the context or has no ability to fit the phrase into a particular context or situation. This type of listener, however, may be more willing to communicate or understand what is being said and will perhaps prove to be a

better listener because he/she is trying to make sense. This will probably disclose a listener who is more prone to co-construct meaning with the speaker.

This test included 20 short phrases. Each phrase was counted as a unit and there was a high average percentage of understood phrases (80%, SD ±10.80). There is thus a high phrase intelligibility which may indicate that word modulation in phrases could possibly aid comprehension, and also that the co-text in which the words appear aids overall comprehension of the phrase.

5.2.4. Text Reading in English

The subject read the original English text (the same text that was translated in 5.1.4. for the Spanish task). Before reading it aloud, she was given a couple of minutes to read it to herself. The student made full use of her intonation abilities in this task, which enhanced comprehension. Only the mispronunciation of one word (*earthquake*) was reported. This is a difficult word for speakers with dysarthria due to the long vowel, diphthong, and two plosive consonants all in the same word. It is also a difficult word for most Spanish EFL students.

5.2.5. Talking about a Picture in English

The student used the same picture as in the Spanish task. Compared to previous tests, this was the task in which comprehension proved to be more challenging. The student was requested to talk about the picture[6] in English and try to say as much as possible; she was told to say any idea it may suggest or bring to mind. Even though the student was not given any time limit in order not to put any pressure on her, the type of test (describing a picture) cannot go beyond three minutes and what goes beyond that time would not come out naturally for the student considering she had an A2 level in the pre-test. The usual timing in this spoken test type ranges from 1 to 4 minutes in different institutions and language services. The student simply attempted to explain what she saw and she was not given any extra time. Several difficulties came out in this task. The most obvious one was language level; since the student could not find the words to explain her ideas, it was difficult to follow her explanations. The scarce vocabulary that came to her mind was also mispronounced, thus making it even more difficult to follow her. Finally, the topic did not seem to motivate her too much for a speaking task. Bearing in mind that she did not have as many problems in the final interview and in the text reading test, it seems that difficulties in this test are more related to a language level problem than to a speech problem. No gestures or other non-verbal communication were shown in this task on the part of the student.

6. Interpretation of Main Findings and Implications

We will first explain the findings regarding the comparison of Spanish and English difficulties. Then, we will analyze the differences between the two English language word reading tests: the one using dictionary and the one without any dictionary input.

As can be seen in table 3, this particular speaker has few difficulties with her Spanish vowels while the pronunciation of English vowels and diphthongs pose a serious challenge. Plosive, vibrant and affricate phonemes are balanced in both languages in terms of difficulty, indicating direct relationship with dysarthria. Fricatives and consonant clusters are identified as problematic foreign language phonemes.

Spanish	English
Vowels	
/**a**/ → /o/ Campo→ combo (central →back)	/ɜ:/ first → fast , past /ɜ:/ → /ɑ:/ Central mid low /ɜ:/ to central back low /ɑ:/ Pref**er** → prep**are** /-fɜ:r/,/-ˈpeər/
	/ʊ/ → /u:/ "full" is pronounced "fool" (Spanish learner of English common mistake) from central-back to back
	/ʌ/ difficulties with this vowel /ʌ/ Run → /ɒ/, /æ/ wand, bun /ʌ/ Must → vowel is pronounced too long and understood as long vowel /ɑ:/, /æ/,/o:/ /ʌ/ Love → lelft : /ʌ/ → /e/
	/**e**/ Second → thicken From mid to high vowel Initial /se/ understood as /θi/
	Difficult word: *horrible* *Vowels are changed by diphthong* aʊ: ho / kaʊ; r·i/daʊ
	Aiding vowel: school → sukul /u/ placed between /s/ and /k/ due to difficulty in pronunciation in *school* (speaker says "sukul")

Spanish	English
Diphthongs	
	/əʊ/ Difficulty with diphthong. Changed to other diphthong or vowels /əʊ/ *toast → turn, flu, turist* /əʊ/ *Go (down) → count/come/get/run* /əʊ/ vs. /au/,/ʌ/,/e/ Central to front vowel, plosive /g/ complicates pronunciation of the word /əʊ/ → /ɒ/ Outside → ontsj diphthongs not pronounced, initial position makes diphthong even more difficult, also diphthong followed by "ts" and a second diphthong /ai/
	/**ei**/ Fail → fall, full Diphthong changed to long vowel or back vowel /ei/ → / o:/, /ʊ/
Consonant phonemes	
Plosives	
/**g**/ → /s/ plosive → fricative 1st consonant, 1st syllable /s/ is more salient when pronouncing word and subject uses it to initiate word Gastar → saltar /**p**/ → /b/ Voiceless/voiced bilabial substitution Campo → combo	/**b**/ → /p/ Voiced- voiceless Better → pita /**t**/ → /d/Voiceless-voiced Talking → dokey /**t**/ → /tʃ/ Plosive → voiceless palate alveolar affricate Meet → mich Dirty → delf cheese; delchieve; delcheese
Vibrants	
/**r**/ → Ø Ruido → uido; reina → eina; torre → toe Omits /r/ in 1st and 2nd syllable /**r**/ → /v/ Burro → buvo Substitutes vibrant /r/ for /v/ in 2nd syllable /**r**/ → /l/, /d/ when /r/ appears in CVC position Martes → maltes Barco → balco Martes → madre	**Initial** /**r**/ →/b/, /w/, /br/ Run → bun, wand Rest → best, brest Red → bread **Final r** → ər/ə, reduction Danger → ninja

Spanish	English
Consonant phonemes	
Nasals	
/ɲ/ → /ia/ Voiced palatal nasal → alveolar nasal and diphtong Leña → le**nia**	
Fricatives	
/**s**/ → /l/ in 1st syllable (CVC) Ga**s**tar → ga**l**tar; sa**l**tar*	/**f**/ → /p/ Fricative → plosive in 2nd & 1st syllable Prefer → prepare First → past /**s**/ → /ʃ/ Gla**ss** → ru**sh**; la**sh** Probably due to trying to make a long /s/ due to word spelling and to long /ɑː/ /**s**/ → /θ/ Second → thicken Initial /se/ understood as /θi/
Affricates	
/tʃ/ postalveolar affricate → velar plosive /k/ Chino → quino	/tʃ/ → /t/ postalveolar affricate →plosive Cheese: tease
Consonant clusters	
Initial cluster /**gr**/, /**tr**/ (Cluster with /r/) Gracia → glacia Traje → taje	Initial cluster /**pl**/ Play → pay → reduction /**gl**/ Glass → rush →reduction Lash → reduction Middle cluster /**tr**/ trəs / tes → reduction -tr- in**tr**esting interesting → intestine / destini Initial and final cluster /**dr**/-/**nk**/ Drink: dink → reduction Ding → reduction and /nk/ → /ng/ /**fr**/-/**nd**/ Friend: fern → reduction and deferred "r" Final cluster /**bl**/ Horrible → coldobon

Table 3. Pronunciation difficulties in Spanish and English.

Table 4 below exemplifies problematic sounds in English and whether they can be improved with audio input (as when using the CD dictionary for the test in this case study). Data show that there is space for improvement since, when given some input, only in 9 out of 20 cases the same phoneme or the pronunciation of a specific phoneme in problematic graphemes and adjacent consonants were mispronounced.

Problematic sound	Mispronounced sound without input	Correct sound after dictionary input	Mispronounced sound after dictionary input
ks	a**cc**ident	ex**c**use	
/oː/, /eI/	**a**lw**ay**s, expl**ai**n, s**ay**	short, play	
Initial /ə/, /oI/	**a**nn**oy**	**a**gainst (correct pronunciation of diphthong in Spanish "hoy", "voy")	
/θ/	au**th**or	ba**th**room	
/d/ (d+ a/e) → /l/, /n/	**d**ance, deep, dentist, foo**d**	**d**anger, **d**irty	
/aI/	f**i**nd	r**i**ght	
/əʊ/	g**o**	br**o**ken, c**o**ld	
/aʊ/	**ou**t	d**ow**n, h**ou**se	
/h/ → /g/	**h**elp	**h**eadache	
/l/ → /m/	**l**ittle	**l**augh	
/ʃ /	**sh**ower		**sh**ort
br	**br**ead (monosyllable ending in consonant is more difficult than: *breakfast* correctly pronounced)	**br**ief	
dr	a**dd**ress, chil**dr**en		**dr**ink
sk	a**sk**		**sk**ool
kl	**cl**ean		climb (though *qui**ckl**y* –final position- is understood by most listeners)
fr	di**ffe**rent		**fr**iend

Problematic sound	Mispronounced sound without input	Correct sound after dictionary input	Mispronounced sound after dictionary input
pr, bl	**pr**o**bl**em	possible	/kl/ is pronounced /bl/ in *climb,* and *drink* is understood by one speaker as *blink*; so these can be used to improve sound
/s/	**s**it down		**s**econd
/ɜː/ t+u	turnon		turnoff
ght	toni**ght**		all right

Table 4. Comparison of results with and without dictionary input.

7. Concluding Remarks and Recommendations

The data analysed in this study help us to define an aptitude profile for our student. It should be born in mind that including different listeners for the interpretation of test performance has reflected the existence of both an intelligibility and a listener ability range. Listener ability is an important factor when dealing with people with speech diversity. For the language class, the teacher's (and classmates') ability to understand the student could perhaps be used as a reference to design student's progress along the course and the listener's progress when developing their ability to understand a person with speech sensory diversity.

7.1. Assessment Tools

The word reading tests designed for this study have proved useful to detect specific language problems and identify where the speaker is able to improve regarding pronunciation. The rest of the tests show, in different ways, how this particular speaker has successfully used communicative devices (intonation, gestures) to support her speech.

Task choice is also seen as a factor that may influence speech diverse students' performance. Thus, open-ended tasks where content cannot be predicted by the student posed a higher degree of difficulty and lower success rates. In our case study, student intelligibility was also influenced by her confidence on the issues being explained. Talking about a personal experience when content mastery and general vocabulary were present was easier when compared to talking about a topic where her vocabulary stock was low and in which the student had to improvise on content.

Regarding assessment rubrics, they could reflect the improvement experienced by the student along the course. We propose the following sample as a model:

	Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	Excellent
Pronunciation	No improvement is observed in oral presentation for those sounds that were identified as likely to be improved (to observe progress see last cell in this row)	Efforts are made to improve at least half of the problematic sounds and words (to observe progress see last cell in this row)	There is an observable improvement throughout the presentation and the speaker's ability with problematic words has significantly improved **Observe progress in the following**: Correct pronunciation of /ks/; /θ/; /d/ (d+ a/e); /h/; /l/; /ʃ /; /br/; Correct pronunciation of /oː/, /eI/; Initial /ə/, /oI/; /aI/; /əʊ/; /aʊ/ /KI, br, pl/ are correctly pronounced or gestures are used to enhance communication when these sounds appear
Body language	No movement or face expression is observed	Some gestures and expressions enhance presentation when word pronunciation or sentence intonation are challenging	Speaker compensates speech difficulties with gestures when word pronunciation or sentence intonation are challenging. Speaker backs verbal communication with non-verbal resources, enhancing presentation. Speech difficulties are compensated with body language and intonation
Fluency and pace	Speaker occasionally speaks clearly Pace could be improved (more *practice*, integrate pronunciation, intonation, text mechanics, coherence, cohesion and body language)	Speaker shows fluency improvement and used some of the strategies practiced for intonation, fluency and pace (use of ICT and classroom practice shows in resulting presentation). Adapts sentence length (shortens) for better intonation results	Speaker reached desired fluency and clarity, using all the strategies to their full potential to be understood by the audience

Table 5. Progress rubric.

This rubric implies that the diagnostic assessment has been used to determine the student's abilities regarding pronunciation, fluency and pace and body language. The teacher would then provide opportunities for the student to improve these aspects of oral communication. It should be noted that this rubric is personalized and may be used and adapted for future similar cases for students with speech sensory diversity.

7.2. *Further Recommendations*

7.2.1. Specific Advice

Depending on the speaker's difficulties, teachers could provide suggestions with the help of the Higher Education Diversity Services / Equality Challenge Unit. In the case of our student, specific advice would include the following suggestions:

– Slow down or utter syllables separately (p/b campo/combo). The student had difficulties to pronounce "campo" and said "combo" instead. These difficulties could be lessened if she slowed down and pronounced the two syllables slowly.

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– Compare to other words that sound similar in the student's mother tongue, for instance:

• The letter β (pronounced /beta/ in Spanish) for problems to pronounce "better" (better/pita)

• Spanish interjections "¡ey!", "¡ay!", "¡au!" could be used to practice with problems with English diphthongs /ei/, /ai/, /aʊ/

– Recommend the use of gestures for words that have a problematic sound for the speaker when this is possible: hand gestures for "run", "meet", "rest", "drink", or face gestures for "horrible". These are examples of words that have appeared in our tests and may be accompanied by gestures. In an oral presentation (prepared speech) the speaker may choose which words or utterances to back up with gestures if he/she is aware of their pronunciation difficulties. In fact, when the speaker used the word "drink" in the English interview, the "drink gesture" removed all possible misunderstandings for this particular word, while in the word-reading test it was one of the problematic words.

7.2.2. Training Suggestions

The use of new technologies can help to provide a model for pronunciation and intonation that may be followed by the student. Since the task performed with the aid of a pronunciation dictionary clearly shows improvement, any training in this line will probably give good results.

Specific advice on speech production to increase intelligibility should include:
– Slow down speaking speed
– Break down units
– Rephrase long sentences
– Rephrase phrases that include pronunciation difficulties (e.g. from "healthy food" to "food that is good for you/for your health)

When setting spoken tasks as part of a subject in the curriculum or as part of a test, test accommodation may include changes in the difficulty or quality of the spoken task such as changing from spontaneous to prepared (e.g. from role-play to oral presentation).

Assessment tools such as the ones used in this study should be part of faculty training that teachers follow before the student with diversity starts tuition with the teacher. Such training should facilitate the student/teacher cooperation and assessment implementation that needs to be achieved in all educational levels, including university level.

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Notes

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[2] According to Hammill et al. (1988: 217), learning disabilities is a generic term that refers to a heterogeneous group of disorders manifested by significant difficulties in the acquisition and use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, reasoning or mathematical abilities. These disorders are intrinsic to the individual and presumed to be due to central nervous system dysfunction.

[3] *Die VHS Volkshochschule Quick Placement Test v.1.* Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate UCLES 2001.

[4] The original text was written in English and it was translated into Spanish for

this task. Both language versions are comparable in terms of vocabulary, phrase length and intonation patterns. The content of the dialogue posed no complex interpretation (i.e. it has no complex ideas, metaphors or other issues that could make a difference when processing the text in a foreign language in terms of content).

[5] All listeners were familiar with Spanish as they had been involved in the teaching of Spanish as a foreign language at some point in their career. They all belonged to the same state (Michigan, MI, USA) as did

most teachers our case study subject had as foreign language teachers.

[6] For this exam format see for instance: British Council. Learn English Teens. Describe a photo or picture. http://learnenglishteens.britishcouncil.org/exams/speaking-exams/describe-photo-or-picture (accessed 10/30/16); or Cambridge English Language Assessment. UCLE 2016. Cambridge English: Preliminary PET. Exam Format. http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams/ preliminary/exam-format/ (accessed 10/30/16).

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CULTURAL VALUES AND IMPOLITE BEHAVIOUR. THE CASE OF SPANIARDS AND NORTH-AMERICANS

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1. Introduction

Geert Hofstede's (1991) "individualism" cultural dimension is related to the concept of the *self*, namely the way in which individuals from a particular culture define their own identity and their relationship with other people. This dimension may be explained as a *continuum* along which cultural groups may show preferences in terms of 'individualistic' and 'collectivist' cultural orientations or, in other words, "concern for yourself as an individual as opposed to concern for the group to which you belong" (Hofstede 1991: 51).

The Dutch engineer and social psychologist Geert Hofstede analysed a large database of information collected from IBM between 1967 and 1973, covering more than 70 countries, related to the cultural values of their employees. He used the data to measure the degree of individualism or collectivism of people from different countries in the world using a 0 to 100 scale (0 corresponding to the most collectivist society and 100 to the most individualistic one). The results gave Spain and the USA a score of 51 and 91 points respectively, confirming a strong cultural difference between both countries. According to this, Spanish society may be considered a moderately individualistic culture, whereas North-Americans seem to hold highly individualistic cultural values.

Advances in social anthropology and social psychology in the last few decades of the twentieth century coincided with the reaction against the alleged universalism

of certain linguistic theories formulated by Anglo-Saxon academics (e.g. Brown and Levinson's 1987 politeness model). In the 1970's this resulted in the emergence of the new discipline *intercultural pragmatics*, which focuses on the descriptive and contrastive analysis of the culture-specific pragmalinguistic conventions ruling speech acts, social interaction and discourse strategies across languages (e.g. Wierzbicka 1991; Márquez-Reiter 2000; Hickey and Stewart 2005). More specifically, the correlation between Hofstede's individualism cultural dimension and linguistic behaviour has been of central concern for some linguists in recent times (e.g. Prykarpatska 2008; Loukianenko-Wolfe 2009; Ivorra-Pérez 2015).

Hofstede's cultural dimension of individualism may be related to communicative styles and (im)politeness. Although the term 'impoliteness' has been traditionally defined as the 'lack' or 'opposite' of politeness, we agree with Culpeper (1996), Kienpointer (1997) and Bousfield (2008) when they assert that utterances are neither inherently polite nor impolite but dependent on the conditions under which they are used. This supports the socio-cultural and pragmatic perspective proposed by Kaul de Marlangeon (2008) by which (im)polite behaviour is idiosyncratic to each culture.

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Regarding research on linguistic impoliteness, it is worth mentioning the works of Culpeper (1996), Gómez-Morón (1997), Kienpointer (1997), Alba-Juez (2000, 2008), Kaul de Marlangeon (2008), Bernal (2008), Bousfield (2008, 2010), García-Pastor (2008), Graham (2008), Garcés-Conejos (2010), Haugh (2010), and Haugh and Bousfield (2012). Areas of research covered by these authors include linguistic impoliteness in different text types and discourses such as media and political discourse, bilingual code-switching sequences, emotionally charged argument sequences or computer-mediated communication.

The cross-cultural studies on the use of linguistic impoliteness are not as numerous as those concerning linguistic politeness. Most of the studies in this field have drawn comparisons between the uses of impoliteness strategies in different varieties of English (e.g. Culpeper 2008; Locher and Bousfield 2008) as well as between linguistic impoliteness in English and in other languages like Japanese, Chinese, Greek, German or Polish (e.g. Wierzbicka 1991; Spencer-Oatey 2000; Limberg 2009). As regards cross-cultural research on linguistic impoliteness comparing English and Spanish, the works of Alba-Juez (2006), Guerra-Bernal (2008) or Kaul de Marlangeon and Alba-Juez (2012) stand out.

The present research takes as its point of departure Kaul de Marlangeon's (2008) typology of verbal impoliteness behaviour for the Spanish cultures[1]. Drawing on that taxonomy, Kaul de Marlangeon and Alba-Juez (2012) conducted a comparative analysis of impolite acts in English and Spanish and reached the conclusion that the categories of impolite acts included in Kaul de Marlangeon's

taxonomy can also be used to describe and classify the same phenomena in English. We also assume that the impoliteness types might appear in the two cultures under study. However, we will take a step further in this research: to analyse, quantitatively, the frequencies in the use of impolite acts in the particular corpora chosen for the study. This will enable us to appreciate whether there are statistical differences between Spaniards and North-Americans as regards linguistic impoliteness.

2. Purpose and hypotheses

Our aim is to analyse the impact of Spaniards' and North-Americans' individualism index (Hofstede 1991) on the types of impolite acts (Kaul de Marlangeon 2008) uttered by the characters appearing in six well-known international movies (three from Spain and three from the US) along with the linguistic strategies through which those acts are expressed.

We hypothesise that the different individualistic cultural orientations held by Spaniards and North-Americans may promote different frequencies in the use of impolite acts as well as divergent linguistic strategies to convey the former. We also hypothesise that the level of social distance and affect existing between the speaker (henceforth S) and the hearer (henceforth H) in a particular situation could have an impact on these differences. Hence, Spaniards and North-Americans are likely to have different perspectives and interpretations as to the way impoliteness is realised and interpreted in their respective cultures.

3. Data Collection

Scripts from a small sample of movies made either in Spain or in the US were analysed. From the US we selected *Fatal Attraction* (1987), *Pretty Woman* (1990) and *Maid in Manhattan* (2002), whereas from Spain we chose *La ley del deseo* (1987), *Jamón, Jamón* (1992) and *3 Metros sobre el cielo* (2010). We agree with Kaul de Marlangeon's and Alba-Juez (2012: 72) when they claim that "fictional language can be considered as authentic within its genre", as the impolite utterances observed in movies may be recognised as such by the speakers from the corresponding culture. In fact, film scripts have been used for research on linguistic analysis (e.g. Alba-Juez 2006, 2008; Dynel 2013).

The main reason for choosing these movies is because their plots reveal frequent disagreements and their characters engage in frequent arguments due to their different social backgrounds, envy, competitiveness or unrequited love. This gives rise to the frequent use of linguistic impoliteness.

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4. Data Analysis

An observational analysis of the movie scripts was carried out to examine the similarity or difference in the use of impoliteness types (Kaul de Marlangeon's taxonomy 2008) along with the linguistic strategies through which these types are expressed. In order to interpret the scripts more accurately, the movies were also watched. Whereas the analysis of linguistic strategies was observational, the one related to the types of impolite acts was not only observational but also quantitative. This enabled us to calculate the absolute frequency of occurrence of each type of impolite act as well as the relative frequency, i.e. the absolute frequency divided by the total amount of utterances contained in each corpus. As these were, inevitably, of unequal size (PenSp movies: 4,263 utterances; AmE[2] movies: 5,712 utterances), the absolute frequency of each type was computed per 1,000 utterances, which is a conventional way of standardising results of corpora of different sizes.

We would like to point out that we only examined those types of impolite acts which we found more recurrent in the scripts analysed: (a) formally impolite acts with a polite purpose; (b) formally polite acts with an impolite purpose; and (c) fustigation impoliteness. Other types such as overwhelming silence acts, involuntary impolite acts, the S's voluntary stint on the politeness expected by the H and self-impoliteness acts were discarded because of their non-existence or very few instances found. Nevertheless, they would deserve to be examined in future studies with a selection of different corpora.

The results were also submitted to statistical analysis using the Chi-square test of homogeneity in a contingency table by means of the computer program SPSS Statistics 22 Software. In this regard, when the statistical difference between both data sets was equal to or below $p < .05$, this was interpreted as significant. If the statistical difference was below $p < .01$, it was considered highly significant.

Variables like *social distance* (Scollon and Scollon 1995) and *affect* (Spencer-Oatey 2000) were considered as potential factors impacting both on the use of impoliteness types and on the linguistic devices used to convey each type. As a result, four different situations were taken into account: a) contexts where the S and the H are not acquainted with each other but the S feels physical attraction towards the H. In this particular situation it might be preferable to use 'physical attraction' rather than 'affect' as it is the first time they meet (+D/+A); b) contexts in which the S and the H are not acquainted with each other but for whatever reason (e.g. difference of social status, envy, competitiveness, unrequited love) they show negative affection towards each other (+D/-A); c) contexts in which the S and the H know each other and show reciprocal affection, namely interactions involving friends and colleagues, family members or couples (-D/+A); and d)

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contexts in which the S and the H know each other but a moment of conflict makes them lose their mutual affection. This last situation also includes cases in which although the S and the H are acquainted, they simply do not like each other or they have never liked each other (-D/-A).

5. Findings

In the following subsections we describe the main findings obtained in our study and illustrate these from excerpts from the movie scripts analysed:

5.1. Formally Impolite Acts with a Polite Purpose

This type of impolite act consists in exploiting 'jocular or humorous insults' (Haugh and Bousfield 2012) on the part of the S to create solidarity with the H. The intention of the S is not to insult or swear but to express admiration, involvement and positive appreciation of the relationship with the H. Table 1 shows the results obtained in relation to this type of verbal impoliteness behaviour:

Formally impolite acts with a polite purpose	PenSp		AmE		Chi-square test
	Absolute frequency n= 4,263 utterances	Relative frequency (x 1,000 utterances)	Absolute frequency n= 5,712 utterances	Relative frequency (x 1,000 utterances)	
+D/+A	19	4.4	2	0.3	13.908 (.000)*
+D/-A	—	—	—	—	—
−D/+A	40	9.3	11	2.1	16.922 (.000)*
−D/-A	—	—	—	—	—
Total	59	13.8	13	2.2	30.486 (.000)*

Table 1. Formally impolite acts with a polite purpose. Frequencies obtained for the PenSp and the AmE corpora.

The general results indicate that the characters from the PenSp movies use formally impolite acts with a polite purpose with much greater frequency than their AmE counterparts, revealing highly significant statistical differences (X^2=30.486, p<.000). This applies either to situations in which the S and the H are of different social classes, but the former feels physical attraction towards the latter (+D/+A)

and to contexts in which there is no social distance between both participants who show mutual affect (-D/+A). The observational analysis shows that the strategies used to convey this type of impolite act are similar in both corpora, that is, the S uses direct linguistic devices to address the H. These mainly cover insults and rude expressions as well as second-person singular pronouns in Peninsular-Spanish, which have basically no impolite intention.

Instances of the first situation (+D/+A) can be observed in the first encounter of Hache and Babi (*3 Metros sobre el cielo*) as well as when Raúl and Silvia meet for the first time (*Jamón, Jamón*). Both males address females with rude expressions which are interpreted by the latter as improper. These are instances of what Thomas calls 'pragmatic failure' (1983) or what Goméz-Morón (1997) refers to as 'unintentional impoliteness'. Whereas the boys' intention is to establish a good social relationship with the girls in order to flirt with them, the latter perceive this as impolite since the former have not respected the distance variable in the social encounter:

> (1)
>
> Hache is riding his motorbike when he meets Babi at a traffic stop light. The latter is in her father's car on her way to school (+D/+A):
>
> —Hache: '¡Fea! Sí, tú ¡fea!' (Babi ignores Hache and flips the bird) [Dogface! Yeah, you! Dogface!][3]
>
> (*3 Metros sobre el cielo*, 00:04:12-00:04:35)
>
> (2)
>
> Raúl works for a ham company and meets Silvia on his way to work. He stops her and invites her to test a piece of ham when, unexpectedly, he cuts his finger with a knife (+D/+A):
>
> —Silvia: 'Chúpate el dedo' [Lick your finger]
>
> —Raúl: '¿*Por qué no me lo chupas tú*?'[Why don't YOU lick it?]
>
> —Silvia: '¡*Eres un cerdo!*'[You're dirty-minded!] (Silvia ignores Raúl and avoids making eye contact with him)
>
> —Raúl: '*Tú* y yo nunca seremos amigos. *Lo único que podemos hacer es follar*' [You and I will never be friends. We can only fuck] (*Jamón, Jamón*, 00:29:39-00:29:59)

The next excerpt is drawn from the AmE corpus. On this occasion it is a woman, Alex, who addresses Dan with an insult 'naughty' in order to flirt with him. However, this type of insult cannot be considered as disrespectful as those uttered by the PenSp characters:

> (3)
>
> Alex Forrest is having a drink with Dan Gallagher for the first time. Even though the latter is married, Alex feels physical attraction towards him and addresses him as 'naughty' in order to seduce him (+D/+A):

—Alex: 'So, where's your wife?'

—Dan: 'Where's my wife? My wife is in the country with her parents, visiting for the weekend'

—Alex: 'And you're here with a strange girl being a *naughty* boy' (*Fatal Attraction*, 00:15:04-00:15:18)

As for the second situation (-D/+A), it is also observed that the expressions used by the PenSp characters seem to be more disrespectful than the ones used by their AmE counterparts:

(4)

Pollo and Hache are close friends. The former gets into the latter's bedroom to wake him up. Hache addresses his friend with insults like 'coño' and 'cabrón' (-D/+A):

Hache: '¿Quién *coño* te ha dejado entrar? ¡*Cabrón*! (They start laughing and playing with the pillow) [Who the hell let you in? Bully!] (*3 Metros sobre el cielo*, 00:23:29-00:23:30)

(5)

Keef, the concierge of the hotel where Marisa Ventura works as a maid, is in charge of reporting employee behaviour. He has found out that Marisa has gone out for a walk with one of the most important guests at the hotel: Assemblyman Cristopher Marshall. He tells Marisa that he has the obligation to report her wrong behaviour. Seconds later, Keef starts laughing and tells Marisa to give him a kiss on the cheek. Marisa replies with an apparently rude expression '*You dirty old man*', showing solidarity and friendship towards her colleague (-D/+A):

—Keef: You know I'm beholden to report employees misbehaving. And there is only one thing could make me shut my mouth (He points to his cheek so that Marisa can give him a kiss)

—Marisa: *You dirty old man*. (Marisa kisses him). (*Maid in Manhattan*, 00: 57: 10-00: 57: 30)

(6)

As their frequency of contact increases, Babi starts feeling that she has fallen in love with Hache. When they are in a disco, they address each other with insults. This time, however, the insults used by both participants reveal reciprocal affection as they are in love with each other (-D/+A):

—Hugo: ¡Fea! [Dogface!]

—Babi: ¡Bruto! [Brutish!] (They kiss each other) (*3 metros sobre el cielo*, 00:48:22-00:48:25)

5.2. Formally Polite Acts with an Impolite Purpose

Contrary to the positive irony that formally impolite acts with a polite purpose entail, this type of verbal impoliteness behaviour is called by Culpeper (2008: 24-28) 'negative over-politeness'. This consists in "expressing polite forms of address

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as well as some manifestations of cynicism" (Kaul de Marlageon and Alba-Juez 2012: 82) with the aim of criticising or belittling the H. The findings obtained in the use of this type of impolite act can be seen in Table 2 below:

Formally polite acts with an impolite purpose	PenSp		AmE		Chi-square test
	Absolute frequency n= 4,263 utterances	Relative frequency (x 1,000 utterances)	Absolute frequency n= 5,712 utterances	Relative frequency (x 1,000 utterances)	
+D/+A	—	—	—	—	—
+D/-A	8	1.8	68	11.9	49.420 (.000)*
−D/+A	—	—	—	—	—
−D/-A	7	1.6	25	4.3	10.290 (.001)*
Total	15	3.5	93	16.2	59.549 (.000)*

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Table 2. Formally polite acts with an impolite purpose. Frequencies obtained for the PenSp and the AmE corpora.

The general findings show that in the AmE corpus this type of verbal impoliteness behaviour is of greater frequency (93/16.2) than in its PenSp counterpart (15/3.5), resulting in highly significant statistical differences (X^2=59.549, p<.000). Likewise, high statistical differences are found with respect to the PenSp corpus, both in contexts where there is social distance and no affect between the S and the H (+D/-A) as well as in those of no distance and no affect between them (-D/-A).

In both data sets this type of verbal impoliteness act is expressed through the use of off-record strategies and polite expressions. Despite this, slight differences are appreciated. Whereas the characters from the PenSp movies tend to use a wider range of polite forms of address and indirect questions, in the AmE movies hedged expressions are included to a greater extent. These include modal verbs, verbs of opinion or probability adverbs. Let us observe some of the above-mentioned strategies in some excerpts from the movie scripts analysed:

> (7)
>
> As they have an important business dinner in the evening, Vivian must buy a dress with the money Edward Lewis has given her. When she gets into one of the many luxurious boutiques in Rodeo Drive, its owners use polite expressions ('May I help you?', 'Are you looking for something in particular?', 'Thank you', 'You are obviously in the wrong place', 'Please leave'), hedges realised through cognitive and

modal verbs ('I don't *think* this *would* fit you', 'I don't *think* we have anything for you') as well as off-record strategies ('It's very expensive') to avoid selling Vivian a dress on account of her look (+D/-A):

—1st Woman: '*May I help you?*'

—Vivian: 'I'm just checking things out!'

—1st Woman: '*Are you looking for something in particular?*'

—Vivian: 'No, well, yeah, um, something conservative'

—1st Woman: 'Yes'

—Vivian: 'You got nice stuff'

—1st Woman: '*Thank you*'

—Vivian: 'How much is this?'

—1st Woman: '*I don't think this would fit you*'

—Vivian: 'Well, I didn't ask if it would fit. I asked how much it was'

—1st Woman: 'How much is this, Marie?'

—2nd Woman: '*It's very expensive*'

—1st Woman: '*It's very expensive*'

—Vivian: 'Look. I got money to spend in here'

—1st Woman: '*I don't think we have anything for you. You are obviously in the wrong place. Please leave*' (*Pretty Woman*, 00:38:54-00:39:33)

(8)

Alex turns up in Dan's home with the intention of seeing him and starts talking to the latter's wife, Beth Gallaguer. Alex does not accept that Dan has definitely broken up with her. As the couple is planning to sell their home, Alex visits the house with the excuse of being interested in buying it. Nevertheless, her intentions are not exactly those. When Dan gets home and sees Alex, both address each other with the use of polite expressions ('Hi. Glad to meet you', 'Nice to meet you. Haven't we met somewhere before?', 'I don't think so, no') which are obviously insincere (-D/-A):

—Beth: 'Hi, darling. Darling, this is Alex. I've forgotten your last name'

—Alex: 'Alex Forest'

—Dan: '*Hi. Glad to meet you*'

—Alex: '*Nice to meet you. Haven't we met somewhere before?*'

—Dan: '*I don't think so, no*' (*Fatal Attraction*, 01:03:04-01:03:57)

(9)

As they have fallen in love, Babi runs away with Hache and does not attend her Latin class. The next day, Babi falsifies her mother's signature to justify her absence to her teacher. The latter uses polite forms of address ('Srta. Alcazar', 'usted', 'su') and indirect questions ('¿Sabe usted que lo que ha hecho significa la expulsion inmediata de este centro, verdad?', '¿Esta es la firma de su madre, verdad?') with the intention of criticising Babi's inappropriate behaviour (-D/-A):

—Teacher: '*Srta. Alcázar. Esta es la firma de su* madre, ¿verdad? Resulta raro. Acabo de hablar con *su* madre y no me dijo nada de *su* enfermedad, ni tampoco de *su* falta de asistencia el viernes. Así que está en camino. *¿Sabe usted que lo que ha hecho significa la expulsión inmediata de este centro, verdad?'*

[Miss Alcazar! Did your mother sign this, didn't she? It's odd. I've just spoken with her and she didn't know that you were ill or that you were absent on Friday. She's on her way. You know that what you've done means immediate expulsion from this school, don't you?] (*3 Metros sobre el cielo*, 01:07:28-01:07:51)

5.3. Fustigation Impoliteness

Following Kaul de Marlangeon and Alba-Juez (2012: 85), this type of verbal impoliteness behaviour is related "to verbal aggression in a confronting situation". The S intentionally offends the H with a purpose that may either damage the H's face or defend the S's face. In the same vein, the H interprets the S's behaviour as an intentional face attack that leads him/her to accept the attack or reject it through defense or counter-attack.

Fustigation impoliteness can be enacted either through the use of direct or indirect linguistic strategies. Indeed, sometimes both strategies are used simultaneously by the S and the H in the corpora examined. Nevertheless, as our intention is to obtain statistical data as regards the frequency of both strategies independently, we will first show the frequency on the use of direct strategies and then the frequency for the indirect ones. Table 3 shows the results of the frequency of direct fustigation strategies:

Fustigation impoliteness Direct strategies	PenSp		AmE		Chi-square test
	Absolute frequency n= 4,263 utterances	Relative frequency (x 1,000 utteranc.)	Absolute frequency n= 5,712 utterances	Relative frequency (x 1,000 utteranc.)	
+D/+A	—	—	—	—	—
+D/-A	176	41.2	76	13.3	45.403(.000)*
−D/+A	—	—	—	—	—
−D/-A	369	86.5	287	50.2	15.523(.000)*
Total	545	127.8	373	65.3	59.569(.000)*

Table 3. Fustigation impoliteness: Direct strategies. Frequencies obtained for the PenSp and the AmE corpora.

As shown in Table 3, the characters from the PenSp movies use direct strategies far more frequently (545/127.8) than their AmE counterparts (373/65.3). Statistically speaking, highly significant statistical differences have also been found (X^2=59.569, p<.000). A deeper analysis of the variables of social distance and affect unveils statistical differences between both corpora, be it in situations where the interlocutors hold social distance and no affect (+D/-A) (PenSp: 176/41.2 - AmE: 76/13.3; X^2=45.403 (.000)) or in those contexts where they hold no distance and no affect (-D/-A) (PenSp: 369/86.5 - AmE: 287/50.2; X^2=15.523 (.000)).

In the movie scripts from both languages the S uses linguistic expressions directly addressed to the H (e.g. harsh insults and rude expressions, direct forms of address, questions directly addressed to the interlocutor, threats, disagreement with the information provided by the other interlocutor or verbs in imperative form). The following excerpts from the film scripts analysed include the aforementioned strategies:

(10)

Raúl and José Luis meet for the first time in the ham factory where the former works. José Luis is determined to end with Raúl's life for having seduced his girlfriend, Silvia. He also finds out that his mother, Concha, is also having an affair with this boy. Therefore, the on-record strategies to convey fustigation impoliteness are frequently used in this context as observed in the use of imperatives ('Abre') along with the use of threats and rude expressions ('Sal de ahí si tienes cojones', 'Pero, ¿qué coño quieres?') (+D/-A):

—José Luis: '*Abre' Sal de ahí si tienes cojones*' [Open. Come out if you have balls]

—Concha: 'Mi hijo' [My son]

—Raúl: 'Tu hijo?' [Your son?]

—Concha: 'Habrá visto el coche' [He must have seen the car]

—Raúl: 'Tápate' [Cover yourself]

—José Luis: '*Sal de ahí si tienes cojones*' [Come out if you have balls]

—Raúl: '*Pues claro que tengo cojones. Pero, ¿qué haces aquí? Pero, ¿qué coño quieres?*' [Of course I have balls. But, what are you doing here? But, what the fuck do you want?] (They start fighting with the hams until Raúl finally kills José Luis) (*Jamón, Jamón*, 01:23:04-01:23:31)

(11)

Tina Cantero is arguing with her brother, Pablo Cantero, a famous film writer and director. The latter wants Tina to play a part in his next movie. The problem arises when Pablo tells his sister that the role she is going to perform has many things in common with her real life and the problem she has with men. Although Pablo has no intention of being impolite to Tina, the latter interprets her brother's utterances as impolite. As the conversation unfolds, both treat each other with direct fustigation strategies, such as imperatives ('Te prohíbo que toques el menor acontecimiento de

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mi vida …', 'Anda y envenénate la vida …'), disagreement with the information provided by the other interlocutor ('Nadie va a jugar con ellos', 'Pero, ¿quién ha dicho que tu vida sea ridícula?'), questions directly addressed to the H (¿Quieres escucharme un momento?', '¿Me oyes?'), forms of address directed at the H ('No permito que ni tú ni nadie …') , insults ('hijo de puta') (-D/-A):

—Tina: '*Te prohíbo que toques el menor acontecimiento de mi vida*. Por ridícula que sea tengo derecho a que se me respete'. [I don't let you talk about any aspect regarding my life. Perhaps, I'm a ridiculous person but I have the right to be respected]

—Pablo: *Pero, ¿quién ha dicho que tu vida sea ridícula?*'[Who said that your life is ridiculous?]

—Tina: '*No hace falta que me lo diga nadie. Yo lo sé*' [Nobody needs to say that. I know it]

—Pablo: '¿Quieres escucharme un momento?'[Can you listen to me for a second?]

—Tina. 'Sí, claro. Mis fracasos con los hombres son algo más que los argumentos de un guión. *No permito que ni t*ú ni nadie juegue con ellos'[Yes, of course. My failure with men is much more than the plot of a script. I let neither you nor anybody else play with them]

—Pablo: '*Nadie va a jugar con ellos*' [Nobody is gonna play with them]

—Tina: 'Son míos. ¿Me oyes? Míos' [They're mine. Hear me? Mine]

—Pablo: '*Anda y envenénate la vida con ellos si tanto te gustan*' [Go away and poison your life with them if you like them so much].

—Tina:'*No me gustan*, *hijo de puta* pero he tenido que pagar un precio alto por esos fracasos. Son lo único que tengo' [I don't like them, son of bitch! But I have had to pay a high price for those failures. This is the only thing I have] (*La ley del deseo*, 00:46:34-00:47:09)

(12)

Dan Gallaguer goes to Alex Forrest's home to ask why she went to his home to see his wife. As he is very angry with her and Alex does not accept a final break up with him because she is supposedly expecting a child, both start arguing and addressing each other by means of insults ('smug bastard', 'sick', 'slut'), rude expressions ('If you can't fuck me, just hit me') and threats ('don't you ever pity me', 'you tell my wife, I'll kill you') (-D/-A):

—Alex: '*Go ahead, hit me. If you can't fuck me, just hit me*'

—Dan: '*You're so sad. Do you know that? You're lonely and very sad*'

—Alex: '*Don't you ever pity me, you smug bastard*'

—Dan: '*I'll pity you because you're sick*'

—Alex: '*Why? Because I won't allow you to treat me like some slut…you can just bang a couple of times and throw in the garbage?* I'm gonna be the mother of your child. I want a little respect'

—Dan: 'You want respect? Respect. What are you doing?'

—Alex: 'Please don't go. I didn't mean it. I'm sorry. *I'll tell your wife*'

—Dan: '*You tell my wife, I'll kill you*' (*Fatal Attraction*, 01:07:21-01:08-22)

Fustigation impoliteness. Indirect strategies	PenSp		AmE		Chi-square test
	Absolute frequency n= 4,263 utterances	Relative frequency (x 1,000 utteranc.)	Absolute frequency n= 5,712 utterances	Relative frequency (x 1,000 utteranc.)	
+D/+A	—	—	—	—	—
+D/-A	46	10.7	33	5.7	2.227 (.084)
−D/+A	—	—	—	—	—
−D/-A	11	2.5	21	3.6	3.176 (.054)*
Total	57	13.3	54	9.4	.086 (.423)

Table 4. Fustigation impoliteness: Indirect strategies. Frequencies obtained for the PenSp and the AmE corpora.

The frequency in the use of indirect fustigation strategies are similar in both corpora (PenSp: 57/13.3-AmE: 54/9.4) and no statistical differences have been found (X^2=.086, p<.423). We also observe that their frequency is much more limited than that obtained for direct fustigation strategies. As seen in Table 4 above, indirect strategies to express fustigation impoliteness are used either in situations of social distance and no affect (+D/-A) as well as in those of no distance and no affect (-D/-A) between the interlocutors. Nevertheless, the AmE characters use them more frequently (21/3.6) than their PenSp counterparts (11/2.5) in situations of no social distance and no affect (-D/-A), but the statistical difference found is minimal (X^2=3.176, p<.054).

In both corpora indirect fustigation strategies are expressed through the use of off-record strategies, polite expressions or hedged utterances, which are similar to the ones used to express formally polite acts with an impolite purpose. In the following excerpts drawn from the movie scripts examined we can observe some of the above-mentioned linguistic strategies:

(13)

Edwards introduces Vivian to his friend and colleague Philip in a polo match. When Vivian is not present, Edward tells Philip that Vivian is a prostitute. As Philip feels that Vivian can be an important obstacle in his friend's business career, he goes towards her with the intention of humiliating her and removing her from Edward's life. To this end, he proposes that she should spend some time with him when Edward leaves her. This message is conveyed through the use of indirect linguistic devices like polite expressions ('Having a nice time, Vivian'?), off-record strategies that allude to prostitution ('Must be a quite change from Hollywood Boulevard,

hmm?', 'Don't worry; your secret is safe with me'), hedges realised through modal verbs and probability adverbs ('Maybe, uh, you and I could get together…'). As Vivian feels really offended, she replies to Philip's proposition in a cynical way ('Yeah, sure. Why not?') (-D/-A):

—Philip: '*Having a nice time, Vivian?*'

—Vivian: 'Yeah, I'm having a great time'

—Philip: '*Must be a quite change from Hollywood Boulevard, hmm?*'

—Vivian: 'What?'

—Philip: '*Yeah, Edward told me. But don't worry; your secret is safe with me. Listen, maybe, uh, you and I could get together some time after Edward leaves*'

—Vivian: '*Yeah, sure. Why not?*'

—Philip: 'We'll just have to do that, hmm' (*Pretty Woman*, 01:10:53-01:11:21)

(14)

Tina Cantero feels ofended by his brother's comment regarding her buttocks in spite of the fact that the latter's intention has not been to offend. As such, she replies to him indirectly by means of an off-record strategy alluding to his homosexuality ('Será porque lo utilizo menos que tú') (-D/-A):

—Pablo: 'Oye, ¿qué tal la entrevista con los productores esos?' [Ey, how did the interview with those producers go?]

—Tina: 'Fatal. ¿Sabes lo que me han propuesto?' [Horrible. Do you know what they have proposed me?]

—Pablo: 'No' [No]

—Tina: 'Un porno. Con ella' (Pointing to her daughter) [A porn movie. With her]

—Pablo: '¿y?' [And?]

—Tina: 'He estado muy fina. Les he dicho que estaba mayor para enseñar el culo. ¡Hijos de perra!' [I've been very refined. I told them that I was so old to show my ass. Sons of a bitch!]

—Pablo: 'Pues para tu edad no lo tienes mal' [So it is not so bad for your age]

—Tina: '*Será porque lo utilizo menos que* tú' (Alluding to her brother's homosexuality) [It must be because I use it less than you] (*La ley del deseo*, 00:15:35-00:15:48)

6. Discussion and Conclusion

Given the results of our analysis of limited corpora we may accept the hypotheses formulated at the beginning of this paper. The index of individualistic cultural values (Hofstede 1991) held by Spain (51) and the USA (91) seems to influence on the frequencies of verbal impoliteness types (Kaul de Marlangeon 2008) and on the linguistic devices used by their speakers to convey verbal impoliteness.

Similarly, the level of social distance and affect held between the S and the H appears to be responsible for the differences encountered.

Our findings would seem to suggest that Spaniards tend to use insults and rude expressions with a polite purpose (a strategy corresponding to Kaul de Marlangeon's acts of the type *Formally impolite acts with a polite purpose*), which may be interpreted as instances of 'jocular abuse' (Bousfield 2008). According to Haugh and Bousfield (2012: 14), this term refers to situations "where the S casts the target into an undesirable category or with undesirable attributes using conventionally offensive expressions".

This type of impolite act is framed by the S and interpreted by the H as non-serious or jocular, particularly when used between friends, colleagues, couples or family members. Moreover, the characters from the PenSp films resort to 'jocular abuse' in contexts where the S and the H do not know each other but the former feels physical attraction towards the latter. The H, on the contrary, interprets this rudeness as improper giving the social distance established between them. As the frequency of contact with the S increases, the H starts accepting these rude expressions and even replies to the S with similar linguistic strategies, but this time with the intention of showing affection as both initiate a relationship.

As regards the AmE movies, formally impolite acts with a polite purpose are used much less frequently than in their PenSp counterparts. These are also used in contexts similar to those in the PenSp movies. However, the types of insults used to express formally impolite acts with a polite purpose may be considered less offensive and disrespectful in the AmE corpus. In this sense, the AmE characters would possibly be using what Haugh and Bousfield (2012: 10) call 'jocular mockery', that is, "a specific form of teasing where the S diminishes something of relevance to someone present within a non-serious or jocular frame".

These findings may have their explanation in the fact that Spain, as a moderately individualistic culture, is more prone to foster social intimacy among its people (Mueller 1987; Walker et al. 2003). Hence, we share Alba-Juez's (2000) and Kaul de Marlangeon's and Alba-Juez's (2012) view when concluding that lack of politeness seems to promote social intimacy among Peninsular-Spanish speakers. Nevertheless, it must be remembered that our analysis has been based on dyadic interactions. That is why we agree with Haugh and Bousfield (2012) that this relational connection created by mock impoliteness could be interpreted differently across participants in a multi-party interaction.

Concerning the use of formally polite acts with an impolite purpose, the high frequencies obtained in the AmE movies may be due to the high individualistic

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culture favoured by the North-Americans. In this culture, the S's rights to be free from the imposition of others and keep his/her own space is considered paramount (Scollon and Scollon 1995; Singh and Pereira 2005). Hence, the characters from the AmE movies use this type of act in situations of no affect and regardless of the social distance held between the S and the H. Through the use of off-record strategies, hedged and polite utterances, the S attempts to be ironic towards the H with the purpose of hurting or mocking him/her.

Despite the fact that the number of instances of formally polite acts with an impolite purpose found in the PenSp movies is limited, their characters also use off-record strategies so as not to address their interlocutors directly. Nevertheless, a higher use of polite forms of address and indirect questions has been observed. One explanation could lie in the fact that, as Spaniards are more inclined to foster social intimacy and collaboration, distancing themselves from other interlocutors by means of these types of strategies could have an impolite perlocutionary effect in their culture.

As for fustigation impoliteness, the results obtained lead us to believe that Spaniards could be more direct than North-Americans. In this way, our findings coincide with those obtained by Kaul de Marlangeon and Alba-Juez (2012). Nonetheless, the results of this study indicate that direct fustigation strategies are used by Spaniards in contexts of no affect between the S and the H and regardless of their level of social distance. As Spanish culture is regarded as moderately individualistic in which speakers have the right and the need to be cooperative members in any communicative act (Scollon and Scollon 1995; Leaptrott 1996), they seem to discard considerations of social distance between them. In this regard, for the PenSp culture, the more direct strategies the S utters to express fustigation impoliteness, the more impolite the H's interpretation of these utterances will be.

We have also found that the AmE characters use a high frequency of direct strategies to express fustigation impoliteness, but these are more recurrent in contexts where there is no social distance and no affect between the S and the H. This may imply that North-Americans would be more concerned than Spaniards about the social distance they hold with other interlocutors when the use of direct fustigation impoliteness comes into play.

Concerning indirect fustigation strategies, the findings reveal a limited use in both data sets. In the AmE movies, however, these are included in higher frequencies in situations where the S and the H hold no social distance and no affect, showing a minimal statistical difference with respect to the PenSp corpus. We may interpret these findings in the following way: unlike their PenSp

counterparts, the AmE characters' high individualistic values (e.g. being free from the imposition of others and keep their own space) could be reflected not only in the use of direct fustigation strategies in situations of no social distance but also in the use of indirect ones. Nonetheless, the use of direct strategies would prevail.

It is noteworthy that the preferences for the different types of impolite acts exhibited by the characters in the corpora analysed should not be interpreted in absolute terms, but as a cline (O'Driscoll 1996). In other words, all the verbal impoliteness acts included in Kaul de Marlangeon's taxonomy (2008) are present in both cultures, but in some cases their frequency seems to depend on contextual factors. This cline could be due to the way Spaniards and North-Americans understand the concept of the self and the relationship with other people as well as the level of social distance and affect held between the S and the H in a particular situation. Consequently, what is considered polite or impolite within a culture might be interpreted as context-bound, culture-related and dependent on the level of social distance and affect held by participants.

This has been a preliminary and superficial cross-cultural study of linguistic impoliteness and its possible correlation with cultural values. However, it is not without limitations, all of which open up possible areas of research in the future. Firstly, it would be interesting to analyse a larger number of movies than were used for this research. Secondly, the power distance held between interlocutors and the weight of imposition of a particular speech act would be variables to be included in future studies. Thirdly, a quantitative analysis of the linguistic devices used in each impoliteness type could be another issue of interest. Last but not least, more research could be done on how the H reacts to the impolite acts uttered by the S together with the role intentionality plays in assessment of impoliteness.

One final point to consider is that even though Hofstede and other authors in the field (e.g. Hall 1976) have made generalisations about, for instance, the British or the Spanish culture, we must not overlook the fact that a culture generally contains many "sub-cultures". In this respect, Scollon, Scollon and Jones (2012) point out that speakers participate in different discourse systems embedded in their own cultures throughout their whole life (e.g. gender or sexual identity, particular region or country, the historical period in which they live, their hobbies, etc.). In our view, these discourse systems may also favour different impoliteness strategies in a culture. All the aforementioned aspects should be addressed in future studies for a full picture of the complex role that linguistic impoliteness plays in human communication.

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Notes

[1] Kaul de Marlangeon's verbal impoliteness types can be found in Kaul de Marlangeon (2008).

[2] From now onwards, "PenSp" stands for "Peninsular Spanish" and "AmE" for "American English".

[3] All the English translations have been drawn from the subtitles appearing in the Peninsular-Spanish movies analysed.

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OPTIMIZATION OF TIME IN CLASSROOM LISTENING COMPREHENSION ACTIVITIES

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1. Introduction

Deficiencies related to listening comprehension, which in formal education is normally taught through listening activities, have led teachers to practise such activities in the classroom on a regular basis. Listening activities have taken on a central role in language learning (Rubin 1994; Zhang 2012) and using them in the classroom is thought to be essential, because the understanding of oral texts in a foreign language, in this case English, is considered to be a previous step to communication, the final goal pursued in the teaching-learning process. Listening activities are also relevant in EFL environments because a key difference between those learners who are more and those who are less able to use them as a means of acquisition (Kurita 2012). Listening activities can help the learners to succeed by increasing comprehensible input (Kurita 2012) and play a critical role in communication and in language acquisition (Vandergrift 1999), especially given that adults spend 40-50 percent of their communication time listening (Miller 2003; Latifi, Youhanaee and Mohammadi 2013). They are also important for reading comprehension, as has been shown in research in which children were found to lack adequate reading comprehension skills due to deficient listening comprehension skills (Hogan, Adlof and Alonzo 2014).

It is assumed that getting used to listening to oral discourse provides better oral comprehension and learning (Sánchez, Diego and Alonso 2010). There are two

views of listening which "lead in different directions for classroom pedagogy" (Kurita 2012: 32). The first one (learning to listen) has to do with learning to understand spoken messages, and the second one with learning the syntax and the lexis of the language through listening (listening to learn). In formal education teachers should promote both: the understanding of spoken messages and also the learning of the foreign language (Rost 2002; Richards 2008). Depending on the level of the students, it may be advisable to focus at a given moment on one of these goals or on the other, with the purpose of motivating students and creating a relaxed atmosphere. Since it is difficult to develop comprehension and acquisition skills in foreign language teaching (Kurita 2012) where students have limited opportunities for regular long-term oral communication with native speakers, teachers should provide exercises within the classroom to promote oral comprehension. For these tasks they should take into account a number of basic factors, such as the length of the oral text and the degree of understanding required (Nunan and Lamb 1996). Since some researchers have found (Chang and Read 2006, 2008; Kurita 2012; Nosratinia, Ghavidel and Zaker 2015; Ratebi and Amirian 2013) that listening support in tasks enhances the learners' use of metacognitive strategies[1] in listening comprehension, they usually advise textbook writers to include the following: information about the topic so that learners can grasp detailed information; a warm up activity before listening to prepare the students for what is coming next; and vocabulary instruction, though this is the least useful form of support (Chang and Read 2006). They should also specify whether the questions are to be answered in small groups, pairs, or necessarily have to be answered individually. All these aspects can help students to learn and understand their own learning process.

Moreover, teachers should keep in mind the findings of cognitive research into the listening comprehension process since they can enhance comprehension (e.g. elaboration and inferencing). Many researchers have concentrated on bottom-up or top-down processing in listening comprehension (Lynch 2006; Morley 1991; Moskovsky, Jiang, Libert and Fagan 2015; Richards 2008; Rubin 1994; Vandergrift 2007)[2]. As listeners create a mental representation of what they have listened to they use both linguistic knowledge (e.g. sounds, phonemes, grammar, etc.) and their knowledge of the world, and sometimes are able to predict what is likely to come next. To achieve a successful comprehension, students must become aware that they don't need to understand every word or idea (Peñate Cabrera and Bazo 2002; Osada 2004). This will help them to avoid overloading their short term memory (Latifi et al. 2013) and losing resources, thus favouring integration, the parallel interaction between bottom-up and top-down processing (Buck 2001; Flowerdew and Miller, 2005). One process or another will prevail depending on the purpose, the type of background that the task requires and the degree of

familiarity with the topic (Brown and Yule 1983; Richards 1990). It is likely that the participants in this research, B2.1 level students (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, 2011), will pay more attention to the top-down process, as it is less automated and requires more resources for information retrieval (Osada 2004; Zhang 2012; Miller 2014; Moskovsky et al. 2015).

Cognitive and linguistic factors should be considered, but so should affective factors too, since they significantly influence oral comprehension. Students sometimes encounter unknown vocabulary, fast delivery, confusing exercises, etc. and all these difficulties generate anxiety in the students. As Kurita (2012: 37) recognizes "… the listening process is easily disrupted by anxiety and separately, listening tasks themselves may cause listening anxiety." To reduce anxiety students should become familiar with strategies related to the control of resources, time and effort. Working in class with oral activities that motivate students, another important affective issue, is a must for developing oral comprehension and more autonomous language learning (Aponte-de-Hanna 2012). Not only should the choice of topics be appropriate to the students' level and interests, but the methodological procedure should also be carefully planned in terms of the time that is going to be spent on administering the listening exercises. The development of the listening skill should be consistent with the time spent on it. That is, the benefit from using a listening exercise in class should be related to the time employed in the activity. It is very important to check whether there is a direct relationship between progress made and time spent on the listening task; whether adequate understanding, depending on the format of the exercise requested, is related to the number of readings of the text; and whether oral comprehension, depending on the number of readings heard, is affected by the format of the exercise.

 After considering the psycho-pedagogical principles and comprehension problems that students learning English as a foreign language show in our EFL classes, we decided to investigate two important aspects, which led to the two hypotheses of this study related to the time spent on each activity and the type of exercise.

One of the main goals was to check the number of times that our students needed to listen to oral texts in class to achieve optimal understanding with optimal economy of readings. Normally textbooks point to three times as the minimum number (e.g. "The first time you hear the recording … The second time you hear … Make your final choice of answer, using any notes …" *First Certificate. Masterclass.* Haines and Stewart 2008: 15). It is quite possible that at a certain level, such a procedure is unnecessary. An adequate level of vocabulary and language (Mehrpour and Rahimi 2010), due to reading (Bilican, Kutlu and

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Yildirim 2012; Kutlu and Aslanoglu 2009), along with effective (Rahimi and Katal 2012) and metacognitive strategies (Goh and Yusnita 2006; Selamat and Sidhu 2013; Nosratinia et al. 2015) will produce a high performance in listening. Therefore, it is hypothesized that our students will probably need to listen to the oral text fewer times in their formal training program in order to render the same performance.

Another important goal was to check the possible difference between the two types of exercise: fill-in-the-blanks versus multiple-choice. As Kurita indicates (2012), the listening comprehension task has its difficulties for students and being aware of this fact may afford an opportunity to make listening exercises more effective. Investigating the type of exercise used in oral comprehension can provide useful insights into teaching listening. Therefore, we hypothesize that a listening comprehension activity with multiple choice exercises, where answers are related to the recognition of the information requested, is easier and more suitable for comprehension than where recall is necessary, as in the case of fill-in-the-blanks exercises. This hypothesis finds its theoretical justification in research outside the scope of listening comprehension in a foreign language, in which researchers have found that recognition involves less difficulty than recall (Anderson and Bower 1972; Carpenter 2012; Cousins 2010; Hashemzadeh 2012; Kahana, Rizzuto and Schneider 2005; Simkin and Kuechler 2005; Smith and Karpicke 2014; Sonbul and Schmitt 2010). We believe that this difference will be maintained and will work in the same way in oral comprehension in a foreign language. Confirmation of this hypothesis will serve to dictate the type of exercise which could be used to assess oral comprehension and, accordingly, the need to spend more or less class time on it.

With these ideas in mind we launched two research questions for B2.1 level students. They are:

 (i) Does training have any statistically significant effect on EFL learners' listening comprehension?

(ii) Does the type of exercise make any statistically significant difference in listening comprehension performance?

It was expected that the results of this empirical investigation would provide useful information for proper time management and for deciding on the right type of exercise to be used in classroom oral comprehension activities. Such information would lead to a better use of time and a better selection of exercises, and most likely would provide high quality training in oral speech comprehension. This can be achieved by choosing the type of exercise that is easier and most effectively transmits the same information. Thus the unnecessary minutes used on listening comprehensions, if that is the case, can be devoted to other oral activities. The information derived from the data will lead to the development of satisfactory comprehension skills.

2. Method

The proposed activity involved the regular practice of classroom listening activities with B2.1 level EFL students. The aim was to check whether exposing the students to listening comprehension activities (a different number of times), in the three groups used in the research, would help identify the optimal number of readings needed and also provide information about the cognitive difficulty (recognition versus retrieval of information) encountered by the student, depending on the type of information required for comprehension. It was thought that the difficulty would in all likelihood be closely related to the number of times students listened to the oral texts.

2.1. Design

We conducted a Pretest/Posttest quasi-experimental design. It is a quasi-experimental design because the training (one, twice, or 3 times) with different types of exercises was applied randomly to the entire group. The oral tasks were designed as regular classroom activities rather than being presented separately and the results for every listening task were checked regularly so that the experiment could be discontinued in the event of notable differences being found due to the number of times the students had listened to the oral text.

First of all, a listening comprehension exercise was carried out in the three groups of students (Pretest). They were allowed to listen to the oral text three times before answering questions related to the content. At the end of the time allotted for the Training, coinciding approximately with the end of the semester, a similar comprehension test was given following the same procedure (Posttest). The degree of difficulty and type of questions, decided by two teachers who had nothing to do with the research, were similar in the Pre- and Posttest (98% agreement).

In the Training phase we used explicit practice, that is, "practice where the person is striving towards a goal, and receives frequent, accurate feedback from an instructor" (Murray 2006: 2). This consisted in listening to the oral texts once (first group), twice (second group) or three times (third group), respectively, with the same pre-listening activities and practice of unfamiliar vocabulary in each group. As in the case of the Pretest and the Posttest, the degree of difficulty of the two training trials, judged by the same two teachers, was similar (97%).

To test the first hypothesis, the data from the subjects, obtained with a matching exercise in the Pretest and in the Posttest, were compared. All the groups in the Pretest as well as in the Posttest listened to the oral text three times. In the Training phase, which served to test the second hypothesis, participants listened to six

different oral texts (one in each session) 1, 2 or 3 times. They had to complete either fill-in-the-blanks or multiple-choice exercises so that the Posttest results would not be affected by the type of exercise recently practised (fill-in-the-blanks or multiple-choice).

To ensure reliability in grading an instructor who had nothing to do with this research graded the Pretest (matching exercise), Posttest (matching exercise) and the Training phase (fill-in-the-blanks and multiple-choice exercises). The same teacher administered all these tests in order to maintain consistency in the procedure followed.

2.2. Participants

The research was conducted during the first semester of the academic year with three groups of EFL students (B2.1 of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, 2011). At the time of the research the participants, who were Spanish speakers, were enrolled in the subject "English Language I" in the first year of the degree course in "English Studies" at the University of Salamanca.

The Pretest was carried out during the second week of the term and the participation in each group was: 34, 28 and 45 students. The Posttest took place at the end of the term: in one group there were 25 students while in the other two the participation was 29 and 31, respectively. As we were dealing with repeated measures and also the fact that some students did not participate in the Training phase, the data from all those who had failed on more than one occasion (16.66%) were eliminated. This was done because what was being checked was whether the number of times an oral text is listened to affects the comprehension skill, data that would be reflected in the Posttest. We therefore ended up with a total of N=17: 12 females (F), 5 males (M) participants in the first group, N=16 (9F, 7M) in the second and N=18 (16F, 2M) in the third.

In the Training phase (different treatment: 1, 2, 3 times), for the fill-in-the-blanks exercise we had 15 (11F, 4M), 15 (9F, 6M) and 16 (14F, 2M) students, and in the multiple-choice exercise the number of participants was 17 (12F, 5M), 16 (9F, 7M) and 18 (16F, 2M). As for the comparison of results in the Training Phase (a paired intra-group test: fill-in-the-blanks or multiple-choice) we had to have the same students, the number of participants was reduced to 15, 15, 16. We did not use the same figures in the between/intra tests due to the small number of students available. Working with the same numbers would have involved an undesirable decrease in the number of participants.

Listening	Pre and posttest	Fill-in-the blanks	Multiple-choice
Once	17 (12F, 5M)	15 (11F, 4M)	17 (12F, 5M)
2 times	16 (9F, 7M)	15 (9F, 6M)	16 (9F, 7M)
3 times	18 (16F, 2M)	16 (14F, 2M)	18 (16F, 2M)

Table 1. Participants' data: size of the sample and gender.

In the Pretest, Posttest and Training phase, the students participated without being informed that the results would be used for research. Nothing was said about this because we did not want them to think these oral comprehension exercises were unrelated to the class and therefore not important.

2.3. Materials

The materials used were taken from the first part of the textbook *First Certificate. Masterclass* (Haines and Stewart 2008) and all of them were almost at the same level of difficulty according to two instructors who had nothing to do with the research. In the Pretest and Posttest, the listening comprehension was tested with a matching exercise, where the student had to listen to the recording three times and decide afterwards what each of the conversations was about. The data obtained were used to check the first hypothesis.

In the Training phase students practised listening comprehension (once, twice, or 3 times) with different types of exercises such as: multiple-choice (2), fill-in-the-blanks (2), multiple choice with open questions (1) and fill-in-the-blanks with open questions (1). The purpose was to get students used to discerning the suitability or unsuitability of the different possibilities offered (multiple-choice), remembering details from the oral text (fill-in-the-blanks), and generating information using their own words (open questions). We decided not to consider the last type in our research because, despite its relevance, it was not always clear whether the students' responses had to do with their limitations in comprehension or in self-expression.

To check the second hypothesis, we analysed the data obtained in the Training phase. For this purpose we used the results of multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blanks exercises conducted in the same week (approximately at the end of the semester). In this way we had data from the beginning of the semester (Pretest), mid-semester (Training), and the end of the semester (Posttest). As one of the research objectives was to address the reliability of multiple-choice versus fill-in-the-blanks exercises, we decided not to mix them with open response exercises that could mask the results.

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3. Results

The results, as expected, yielded no significant difference between groups in either the Pretest: $F(2, 48)=3.085$, $p=.0549$, or the Posttest: $F(2, 48)=2.03$, $p=.1425$, which confirms the first hypothesis. The different training exercises over the semester (once, twice, or 3 times) did not help the groups who had listened to the oral text a greater number of times to do better than those who had received less training (fewer times). The fact that the intra-group comparison (Pretest/Posttest) showed a significant difference in all groups (paired t-test with the group who had listened to the oral text three times) does not invalidate the previous results:

$$t(16)=2.256, p=.0384$$
$$t(15)=2.455, p=.0268$$
$$t(17)=2.342, p=.0316$$

The fact that students learned over the semester was most likely due to the work done in class with different listening activities and other activities that could not be controlled in this study, such as written activities (Bilican et al. 2012; Kutlu and Aslanoglu 2009), lexical learning (Mehrpour and Rahimi 2010) or the development of more effective strategies (Rahimi and Katal 2012; Selamat and Sidhu 2013).

In regard to the second hypothesis, the data for the multiple-choice exercise showed no significant difference between groups with different training (once, twice, or 3 times): $F(2/48)=.733$, $p=.4864$, and neither did the data for the fill-in-the-blanks exercise: $F(2/43)=1.685$, $p=.1974$. These data, although obtained from exposing the students to the listening comprehension activity a varying numbers of times, replicate and confirm the first hypothesis. Comparison of the intra-group data with the two types of exercises confirms the second hypothesis. As expected there was a significant difference in the Training phase:

- Group in which the oral text was listened to once: $t(14)=2.71$, $p=.0169$
- Group in which the oral text was listened to twice: $t(14)=2.46$, $p=.0275$
- Group in which the oral text was listened to three times: $t(15)=2.359$, $p=.0323$

This difference occurred due to the difficulty that remembering entails, probably because of the numerous cognitive resources needed, as compared to recognition. As can be seen in this study, this also seems to hold true for oral comprehension in a foreign language. The significant difference is easily visualized in the graph shown in Figure 1 in which the averages of the groups are compared. It can be observed that the average of the participants who had done a multiple-choice option exercise is always higher than the one obtained by the students who did a fill-in-the-blank exercise (6.42/3.80, 8.33/5.61, 8.33/6.3). The results allow us to infer that this type of exercise is easier for EFL students in a listening activity.

4. Discussion

One result of this research is that it indicates the optimal number of times that a listening activity should be listened to when dealing with B2.1 level students, thus saving valuable class time.
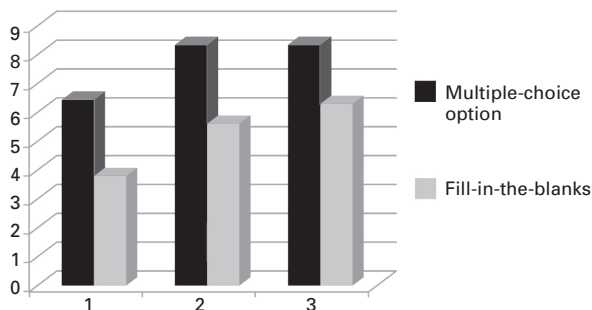
Figure 1. Average score (vertical axis) when the listening exercises (multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blanks) are done once, two, or 3 times (horizontal axis).

Bearing in mind the non-significant difference between the groups that were exposed to the oral text (3 times) in the Pre/Posttest, we conclude that listening to oral discourse fewer times did not prevent students from reaching the same comprehension level as those who had listened two or three times (Training Phase). These results would probably be similar at higher levels. This most likely occurs because of a greater use of the top-down process (Moskovsky et al. 2015), and also because these students use and employ listening strategies more effectively than lower level EFL listeners (Ratebi and Amirian 2013; Miller 2014), an idea also shared by Goh (2002) and Iwai (2010) when they talk about cognitive and metacognitive tactics. Nonetheless, listening to an oral text more than once can make a big difference with oral comprehension at lower levels, probably because students at this stage are more prone to use the bottom-up process. This may be precisely because they do not master listening strategies, which produce good results with beginning (Guan, 2014) and intermediate level listeners (Zhang 2012).

All the groups in the study improved their comprehension regardless of the treatment they were exposed to, as shown in the significant intra-group difference: Pretests, Posttests, and Training phase (multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blanks). Nonetheless, the data suggest the futility of wasting time unnecessarily on repeating a listening activity (2 or 3 times) at this level. Our students did not need to listen

more than once to attain the same performance at comprehension. Probably, there is always scope to increase one's knowledge and become more competent in the listening comprehension skill. Therefore, after listening to the oral text once, interesting questions can be answered in groups with the purpose of enhancing speaking skills at the same time (e.g. debate).

The results found in relation to the second hypothesis, even when training conditions were different (once, twice or 3 times) replicate those of the first hypothesis, since there is no significant difference between groups when the participants perform the same type of exercise but with a different exposure. The second working hypothesis is confirmed, with the significant difference obtained in an EFL listening comprehension environment for the two types of exercises: multiple-choice option exercises as opposed to fill-in-the-blanks. This conclusion is consistent with the literature which points to recognition exercises as being easier than those in which memory is involved (Anderson and Bower 1972; Carpenter 2012; Cousins 2010; Hashemzadeh 2012; Kahana et al. 2005; Simkin and Kuechler 2005; Smith and Karpicke 2013; Sonbul and Schmitt 2010). Though the hypothesis is confirmed, more research should be done to check which type of exercise better captures information with the same content questions and different groups of participants with the same degree of proficiency at English.

5. Conclusions

This research has important implications for educators and material developers as it points to the importance of considering how to improve listening comprehension skills and how to assess them. The main empirical results obtained in this research: a) the fact that students need to listen to the oral texts fewer times to render the same performance (first hypothesis), b) together with the usefulness of multiple choice exercises in oral comprehension (second hypothesis) are essential for teachers, since they give them information regarding the administration of listening activities and the type of exercise to be carried out in relation to the aims pursued. It is also of interest to other researchers, due to the scarcity of empirical research devoted to listening comprehension in a foreign language. Nonetheless, further research should be done with a larger sample size and other types of exercises involving recognition and memory. Thus data would be accumulated for an accurate diagnosis of the type of exercise to be used when attempting to generate a particular type of response and when it is important to know precisely what it is that is being evaluated.

Notes

[1] Metacognitive strategies are those which "involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it is taking place, and self-evaluation after the learning activity has been completed" (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 8).

[2] That is, focusing on listening for details (understanding at a sound or word level) or for the general meaning of a text "using background knowledge" (Richards 2008: 7)

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ON THE FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE OF COGNATE OBJECT CONSTRUCTIONS IN PRESENT-DAY BRITISH ENGLISH. A PRELIMINARY CORPUS-BASED ANALYSIS[1]

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1. Introduction

The present paper focuses on English cognate object constructions (COC, henceforward) of the type illustrated in the following examples:

(1) He *fought a last furious fight* and finally gave in. (*BNC*: H9Y 2985)

(2) Do not disturb this sleep unless there are other indications that the child *is not sleeping a peaceful, healing sleep*. (*BNC*: B1R 6651)

(3) They have begun *to dance a strange dance*. (*BNC*: H8R 773)

Present in almost any descriptive grammar of English since the publication in 1891 of Sweet's seminal work on English Grammar (e.g. Quirk et al. 1985; Halliday 1987; Downing and Locke 1992; Huddleston and Pullum 2002, among others), English COCs seem to be of special linguistic interest due to their particular and controversial syntactico-semantic and pragmatic status.

Nevertheless, the research carried out around English cognate objects has not paid the same attention to their syntactico-semantic and pragmatic behaviour. Whereas the former has been widely discussed in the literature (e.g. Baron 1971; Jones 1988; Rice 1988; Massam 1990; Dixon 1991; Downing and Locke 1992; Macfarland 1995; Huddleston and Pullum 2002; Nakajima 2006; Iwasaki 2007; Mirto 2007; Höche 2009; Ogata 2011), the latter has gone almost unnoticed

(e.g. Jones 1988; Rice 1988; Massam 1990; Macfarland 1995; Mittwoch 1998; Pereltsvaig 1999; Felser and Wanner 2001; Kuno and Takami 2004; Höche 2009). As a consequence, there are many issues of a pragmatic nature concerning COCs which are still unanswered nowadays: among others, their exact extra-linguistic meaning, their distribution and their real frequency of occurrence in the speech of native speakers of English. This pragmatic gap in the research on English COCs is also noticed by Höche (2009: 1), who comments that in modern functional theoretical approaches to the study of language very little attention has been paid to this specific clausal pattern:

> While the description and analysis of the construction played some role in Generative Grammar research, where it was discussed as a challenge to certain established principles and theoretical constructs (e.g. subcategorization frames or case-assignment), not much attention has been paid to this phenomenon in more recent approaches to and models of language, such as Functional Grammar or Cognitive Linguistics.

In contrast, their syntactico-semantic description has been the subject-matter of numerous studies, which have mainly revolved around the following problematic issues: (i) the very definition of the term 'cognate object' itself (e.g. Baron 1971; Massam 1990; Macfarland 1995; Ogata 2011); (ii) their syntactic function either as verbal arguments or adjuncts (e.g. Baron 1971; Massam 1990; Macfarland 1995); (iii) the verbal classes that are compatible with them (e.g. Macfarland 1995; Nakajima 2006; Iwasaki 2007; Ogata 2011); (iv) the obligatory/optional patterns of modification they take (e.g. Rice 1988; Iwasaki 2007; Höche 2009; Ogata 2011); (v) the restrictions, if any, on the determiners that introduce them in discourse (e.g. Rice 1988; Höche 2009; Ogata 2011); (vi) and the comparison, due to their semantic closeness, between COCs and intransitive patterns with adverbial modification, like (4), on the one hand, and light verb constructions of the type illustrated in (5), on the other (e.g. Jones 1988; Dixon 1991; Downing and Locke 1992; Macfarland 1995; Huddleston and Pullum 2002; Mirto 2007; Höche 2009; Ogata 2011):

> (4) Emily Carr *died peacefully* in her sleep in March of 1945. (*BNC*: B11 2)
> (5) Yeah, you *have a recurrent dream*, okay. (*BNC*: HUL30)

For this reason, and with the intention of shedding some light on the pragmatics underlying English COCs, I will present in the present paper the results of the preliminary, but thorough and exhaustive, analysis I have carried out in the *British National Corpus* of the four verbal classes that, according to Levin (1993), seem to be potentially compatible with cognate objects in order to prove, first, and in agreement with Mittwoch (1998), that cognate objects are "heavily restricted" in present-day British English, as well as to account for the main reasons underlying their low frequency of occurrence.

2. Delimiting the Phenomenon

But what are COCs? In order to avoid confusion, this question must be answered at the very beginning of this paper because in the literature there is not a single homogeneous definition of this linguistic phenomenon. There is, on the one hand, a broad definition (e.g. Sweet 1891; Baron 1971; Quirk et al. 1985; Halliday 1987; Levin 1993; Mittwoch 1998; Kuno and Takami 2004) that considers that cognate objects are those noun phrases that have as their head a noun either morphologically or semantically related to the verb of the sentence:

> Sometimes an intransitive verb is followed by a noun in the common form which repeats the meaning of the verb, as in *sleep the sleep of the just, fight a good fight*, where the noun is simply the verb converted into a noun, and in *fight a battle, run a race*, where the noun repeats the meaning, but not the form, of the verb. Such object-nouns are called cognate objects. (Sweet 1891: 91)

According to this definition, a *painful death* in (6) and *an enigmatic smile* in (7) are representative of the first class of cognates, generally referred to as "morphological cognates", due to the morphological relationship they have with the verbs *die* and *smile*, respectively; *the polka* in (8) and *her Cheshire cat grin* in (9) are, in turn, two clear examples of the so-called "semantic cognates" since the only relationship they have with the verbs *dance* and *smile* is semantic in nature, but not morphological:

> (6) Given a meatless diet it will rapidly become ill and *will die a painful death*. (*BNC*: BMG 658)
>
> (7) She *smiled an enigmatic smile*. (*BNC*: H97 4104)
>
> (8) 'Now, if this young scoundrel has the moral fibre to wear *this* apparatus for one month, I can guarantee *he'll be dancing the polka* with the best of them. (*BNC*: AEB 3177)
>
> (9) And *smiles her Cheshire cat grin*. (*BNC*: CH5 27)

On the other hand, one can find a narrower definition in scope (e.g. Jones 1988; Massam 1990; Downing and Locke1992; Macfarland 1995; Felser and Wanner 2001; Real Puigdollers 2008; Höche 2009; Ogata 2011), which only includes as cognate objects those noun phrases of the first type; that is, those noun phrases whose head, like *death* in (6) and *smile* in (7), maintains a morphological relationship with the verb:

> This section considers the working definition and the constraints of COCs and examines a COC classification. COCs take cognate objects that are morphologically related to the verbs and usually the verbs are intransitive. (Ogata 2011: 1)

Those nouns that share, in turn, with the verb only a semantic relationship, like *polka* and *grin* in (8) and (9), seem to exhibit a syntactico-semantic behaviour of their own in relation to passivization, topicalization, pronominalization, definiteness and questionability, which is similar to the behaviour displayed by regular objects and which morphological cognates, however, do not show. Thus, they are excluded from the realm of COCs in this alternative definition, where they receive different names. Massam (1990: 163), for instance, calls them *transitivizing objects*, Felser and Wanner (2001: 106) *hyponyms of cognate objects*, Real Puigdollers (2008: 158) *hyponymic objects* and Ogata (2011: 3) *non-cognate objects*[2].

Taking into account the Latin origin of the term cognate (*cognatus* originally meant 'related by blood'), it is not surprising to find morphological cognates included within the cognate object category in the two alternative approaches previously outlined, which, nevertheless, offer a different treatment for those verbs traditionally called semantic cognates. The morphological connection that seems to be crucial for cognateness to be possible, however, is not devoid of problems either. Here again we find two different views. In one of them, only those nouns which are either zero-related to the verb or created from a verb by means of the morphological process known as ablaut (*song* from *sing*, *death* from *die*, *thought* from *think*, etc.) are included. As Macfarland (1995: 6) clearly explains:

> Furthermore, because of the lack of consensus in the literature on the issues of derivation and affixation, I will follow Baron's guidelines and accept only verb-noun pairs which are either zero-related or which share a root morpheme and are not derived by means of affixation. I thus restrict the scope of my investigation of the cognate object construction to the two established types, *fight a fight* and *die a death*.

In the other proposal, defended by Höche (2009), among others, cognate objects also embrace those noun phrases that are related to the verb by means of any other morphological process, such as, for instance, affixation or derivation:

> I do not make restrictions to the form of NR—contrary to e.g. Macfarland, who only considered zero-derived nouns or nouns derived by stem alternation as possible CO candidates. Therefore, in the present study *record a record Ø, pray a prayer, paint a painting, arrange an arrangement* or *decide a decision* will be discussed as instances of COCs. (Höche 2009: 85-86)

Since it comprises the only class of nominals that are unanimously recognised in the literature as cognates, I will adopt as my starting point, due to the preliminary status of this work, the most restrictive definition of all the ones previously described; thus, cognate objects are to be understood in this study as being in line

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with Macfarland's (1995); that is, as those nominal participants in a clause that either have exactly the same morphological form as the verbs they are related to, like *grin* in (10), or share with them the same root, though with some internal vocalic change, like *song* in relation to *sing* in (11). That is, those nouns that are either zero-related to the verb or created from a verb by means of the morphological process known as ablaut:

(10) He was squatting at our feet *grinning his wide sheepish grin*. (*BNC*: FEM 83)

(11) She was knitting and *singing a song*. (*BNC*: FEU 422)

3. Corpus Analysis

3.1. Methodological Issues

Once COCs have been delimited, I proceed to present the methodology and results of the corpus analysis I have carried out. I have taken as my starting point the four English verbal classes that Levin (1993) describes as potentially compatible with cognate objects since her definition of this particular clausal constituent, though more restricted than mine, adjusts quite well to the one proposed in this study. Notice that Levin (1993: 95-96) excludes from the realm of COCs not only semantic cognates, but also all kind of morphological cognates, except for those having exactly the same form as the verb they derive from: "Some basically intransitive verbs take as their object a noun that is zero-related to the verb—a so-called "cognate object".

These four verbal classes are: (i) verbs of nonverbal expression; (ii) verbs of manner of speaking; (iii) *waltz* verbs; (iv) and a fourth class which comprises the verbs *dream, fight, live, sing, sleep* and *think*. Due, however, to the different morphological scope of both definitions, I have also included in this last group the verbs *die* and *breathe* because they also describe, as well as the others, recurrent processes in the behaviour of human beings and allow cognate objects in their subcategorization frames:

(12) The lines were coming out as written, but the play *was dying a slow death*. (*BNC*: H92 934)

(13) As she walked the woman *breathed a great breath of warm night air*. (*BNC*: HGB 2914)

The corpus I have chosen for my research is the second edition of the *British National Corpus*, known as the *BNC World*, for being, on the one hand, one of the largest electronic corpora of contemporary British English available nowadays (100 million words) and, on the other, for being representative of different written (90%) and spoken (10%) registers and varieties of the language.

Since the number of verb-noun types of combination to be analysed amounts to 130, in this preliminary study I have just searched in the corpus for the nominals in the singular number morphologically related to the verbs included in the four aforementioned verbal classes. In order to get only those valid examples for my study —those in which the nominal at issue functions as a morphological cognate of the verb and indicated in the tables that follow as "raw frequency of COCs"—, the examples obtained in each case (total number of examples) have been analysed manually so as to eliminate those instances in which the nominal at issue, like *smile* in (14-15), for example, displays a different syntactic function:

> (14) *Your smile* destroyed her. (*BNC*: A08)
>
> (15) It was *a pleasant smile*. (*BNC*: CN3)

My analysis is, thus, quite different from the two, as far as I know, most recently published corpus-based studies on English COCs: Macfarland's (1995) and Höche's (2009). It differs from Macfarland's work (1995) in that her corpus comprises 2,000 naturally occurring tokens and 170 verb-noun sequences the author herself compiled from different sources:

> . . . this is an opportunistic corpus, listing any and all the tokens I have found in the literature (not examples constructed by linguists, but only naturally occurring tokens cited in grammars or in linguistic papers), in other readings, and through computer searches of various electronic searchable materials (e.g., files from the Gutenberg project, The Wall Street Journal files distributed by the ACL-DCI, Nexis). (Macfarland 1995: 9)

My analysis also differs from Höche's study (2009), despite being similarly rooted in the *BNC*, in several issues. The most striking contrast, in my view, is the broad definition of cognate objects that Höche (2009) defends which, as mentioned before, also comprises those nouns that are morphologically derived from verbs by means of affixation. As a logical consequence, then, her results differ from mine in several important aspects, concerning, above all, the number of verb-noun combinations studied, as well as the number of COCs found; specifically, 400 verb-noun pairs, resulting in 3,139 different COCs.

3.2. Real Data

As illustrated in Table 1, the overall results obtained from my analysis show that COCs are not as frequently used as might be expected *a priori* in the real speech of native speakers of British English; notice in this regard that only 1,169 COCs have been attested out of a total of 136,032 examples analysed; that is, a 0.85% of the corpus:

Verbal class	Total number of examples analysed	Raw frequency of COCs	Normalised frequency of COCs[3]
Nonverbal expression	13,679	302 (2.20%)	220.77
Human processes and behaviour	103,184	845 (0.81%)	81.89
Waltz verbs	7,637	12 (0.15%)	15.71
Manner of speaking	8,717	8 (0.09%)	9.17
Nonverbal + Manner of speaking	2,815	2 (0.07%)	7.10
Total	136,032	1,169 (0.85%)	85.93

Table 1. Frequency of occurrence of COCs per verbal classes in the BNC.

Thus, in complete agreement with Mittwoch (1998: 313), the first conclusion that can be drawn at this stage of the research is that in present-day British English the occurrence of cognate objects is "heavily restricted".

3.2.1. Cognates Derived from Verbs of Nonverbal Expression

Taking into account the normalised frequencies shown in Table 1, the verb-noun combinations that stand out above the rest for having the highest level of frequency of occurrence in the COC in present-day British English are those denoting nonverbal expression; specifically, a normalised frequency of occurrence of 220.77, distributed as follows:

Morphological cognate	Total number of examples analysed	Raw frequency of COCs	Normalised frequency of COCs
Smile	5,867	238 (4.04%)	405.65
Grin	1,016	22 (2.16%)	216.53
Laugh	1,759	26 (1.47%)	147.81
Sigh	1,002	10 (0.99%)	99.80
Scowl	106	1 (0.94%)	94.33
Yawn	110	1 (0.90%)	90.90
Chuckle	168	1 (0.59%)	59.52
Frown	435	2 (0.45%)	45.97
Cough	523	1 (0.19%)	19.12
Total	13,679[4]	302 (2.20%)	220.77

Table 2. Frequency of occurrence of nonverbal morphological cognates in the BNC.

After a careful look at the individual results presented in Table 2, it can be concluded, however, that the frequency of occurrence of this kind of morphological cognates is not as outstanding as might be thought *a priori* since the 302 COCs found here (out of a total of 13,679 examples) are distributed among only 9 of the 29 cognates derived from the verbs in this group; namely, *smile*, *laugh*, *grin*, *sigh*, *frown*, *cough*, *chuckle*, *scowl* and *yawn*[5.]

(16) I *smiled a lopsided smile*. (*BNC*: B38 152)

(17) He *laughs a low laugh of relief*. (*BNC*: HH0 2816)

(18) Tom *grinned an enormous grin* across the table. (*BNC*: A6J 115)

(19) He *sighed a deep, despairing sigh*. (*BNC*: CDY 333)

(20) He *frowned his black frown*. (*BNC*: FET 158)

(21) He … then *coughed a harsh, chest-tearing cough* before asking further. (*BNC*: HWE 555)

(22) He *chuckled, a wickedly delicious little chuckle*. (*BNC*: JYB 173)

(23) "She takes after our Lance," declared Rowbotham aunts and cousins, and I *would scowl his scowl* and confirm their verdict. (*BNC*: FU7 7)

(24) . . . he stretched at leisure, *yawned an artificial, exaggerated yawn*. (*BNC*: FRC 46)

Furthermore, with the exception of *smile*, *grin* and *laugh*, which appear at the top of the frequency list of COCs in this group –specifically, 238 out of 5,867, 22 out of 1,016 and 26 out of 1,759–, representing, thus, the largest normalised frequencies of all the morphological cognates analysed (405.65, 216.53 and 147.81, respectively), the remaining cognates of nonverbal expression attested in the corpus show a considerably restricted use in the COC. Notice in this regard, on the one hand, that *sigh* (10 instances out of 1,002), *scowl* (1 example out of 106) and *yawn* (1 attestation out of 110) exhibit a normalised frequency of occurrence which ranges from 90.90 (*yawn*) to 99.80 (*sigh*), and 94.33 for *scowl*. On the other hand, the normalised frequencies for the single instance of *chuckle* (out of 168) and for *cough* (out of 523) and the 2 attestations of *frown* (out of 435) are no higher than 60.00: specifically, 59.52, 19.12 and 45.97, respectively.

3.2.2. *Cognates Describing Recurrent Processes in the Behaviour of Human Beings*

The second most productive verb-noun combinations that seem to enter the COC in present-day British English, with an average normalised frequency of 81.89, are the ones comprising the cognates listed below:

Morphological cognate	Total number of examples analysed	Raw frequency of COCs	Normalised frequency of COCs
Song	3,744	249 (6.65%)	665.06
Dream	3,647	30 (0.82%)	82.25
Life	54,416	437 (0.80%)	80.37
Fight	2,839	19 (0.66%)	66.92
Sleep	3,735	18 (0.48%)	48.19
Death	19,592	72 (0.36%)	36.74
Thought	10,542	17 (0.16%)	16.12
Breath	4,669	3 (0.06%)	6.42
Total	103,184	845 (0.81%)	81.89

Table 3. Frequency of occurrence in the BNC of morphological cognates derived from verbs denoting recurrent processes in the behaviour of human beings in the BNC.

Although they all describe recurrent and common stative or dynamic processes in the behaviour of human beings, Levin (1993) considers the verbs they derive from semantically diverse and classifies them within different groups in her study of English verbs and alternations: *fight* (e.g. 25), as a verb of social interaction; *live* (e.g. 26), as a verb of existence; *sing* (e.g. 27), as a verb of sound emission; *sleep* (e.g. 28), as a verb involving the body; *think* (e.g. 29), as a verb either of assessment or judgment; *die* (e.g. 30), as a verb of disappearance; *breathe* (e.g. 31), as a verb of bodily process; and, finally, *dream* (e.g. 32), as a verb denoting a mental process (e.g. Hoche 2009)[6]:

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(25) No, *they're still fighting the good fight.* (*BNC*: C87 5913)

(26) Jesus came, he *lived a sinless life.* (*BNC*: KLF 54841)

(27) Malcolm Macleod *sang a heroic song in Gaelic ...* . (*BNC*: G1Y 797)

(28) Luice *was sleeping an unnaturally deep sleep.* (*BNC*: HTN 5928)

(29) ... *these thoughts would only have been thought* by a Christian audience of that time. (*BNC*: HUP 980)

(30) We *are dying a slow death.* (*BNC*: CAD 2023)

(31) Its bark was gone quite long ago but it's still there, out of its row, out of its life, out of its death, but there no less__ and *breathing breath.* (*BNC*: EUY 190)

(32) But peacefully now he *dreamed a dream of green fields far away.* (*BNC*: B24 1085)

As Table 3 reveals, the subcorpus of examples analysed with these morphological cognates (103,184 tokens) surpasses by far that of the rest of the groups. It

represents, in fact, three quarters of the whole corpus examined: namely, 75.85% of the total. This figure indicates that, in comparison with the other cognates, whose meaning is undoubtedly much more specific, these ones have an extensive and wide use in any type of register and discourse due to their semantics. Notice in this regard that 'living', 'dying', 'breathing' and 'sleeping' are, on the one hand, states or activities all human beings without exception experience because they are essential for life, and that 'thinking', 'singing', 'fighting' and 'dreaming', on the other, describe states and activities also performed often by animate beings. Therefore, it is not surprising to have found here the largest number of COCs attested in the whole corpus (845, specifically).

However, after a careful look at the overall results obtained for this particular class of cognates, it can be noticed that they only exhibit 81.89 average normalised frequency of occurrence in the COC, thus supporting Mittwoch's (1998) hypothesis about its scarce use in present-day British English. The distribution of the 845 COCs associated with this group is also enlightening in this respect because, as illustrated in Table 3, all the morphological cognates searched for, except for *song*, are not really recurrent in the COC. Notice in this regard that not even *dream*, with 30 attested instances out of 3,647 and, thus, the most frequent cognate in this group, exhibits a normalised frequency of occurrence superior to 100: specifically, 82.25; *life*, found in 437 COCs out of 54,419 examples, comes in second place with a similar normalised frequency of occurrence (80.37); the third morphological cognate in terms of productivity is *fight*, which having produced 19 attestations out of a corpus of 2,839 examples, presents a normalised frequency of 66.92; less recurrent are *sleep* and *death*, which attested in 18 instances out of a corpus of 3,735 tokens and in 72 examples out of a total number of 19,601, respectively, show a lower normalised frequency of occurrence: namely, 48.19 and 36.74; and finally, at a considerable distance, *thought* and *breath* appear with the lowest normalised frequencies in the group: 16.12 and 6.42, respectively, which stand for the 17 COCs attested with *thought* out of a corpus of 10,542 tokens and the 3 tokens found with *breath* out of the 3,361patterns analysed.

Song has been attested, in turn, in 249 COCs out of the 3,744 examples analysed, showing, thus, a noticeably much higher normalised frequency of occurrence in this particular syntactic pattern than the other cognates associated with this verbal class; specifically, 665.06. This finding should not strike the reader, however, as surprising once account has been taken of the syntactic nature of the verb this specific nominal complements. In contrast to most of the verbs in this class, except for *think*, which are undoubtedly intransitive unergative, *sing* is a prototypical transitive verb which allows, as such, the presence of the morphological cognate *song* as direct object in its subcategorization frame much more freely than the rest:

(33) But the real stormer from these sessions is a tune called 'Hittin' The Bottle Again', in which he just strokes his National Steel and *sings this sad, lovely song about dereliction and bar-hopping*. (*BNC*: CK4 45)

(34) Let me *sing this song* right. (*BNC*: KBN 26)

The relatively high productivity of this verb-noun combination in the COC in present-day British English is, thus, to be accounted for by the fact that the morphological cognate *song* does not have the same "exceptional" transitivizing effect on the verb *sing* as any other morphological cognate has on the intransitive unergative verb it complements.

3.2.3. *Cognates Derived from 'Waltz' Verbs*

Waltz verbs conform one of the seven verbal groups in which Levin (1993: 263-270) divides English verbs of motion. As Levin (1993: 269) remarks, these verbs are zero-related to names of dances and mean roughly "perform the dance" that is referred to. Since most of them are hyponyms of the general term "dance", the nominals related to them are much more productive as transitivizing objects of the verb *dance* (that is, as semantic cognates), as shown in examples (35-39), than as morphological cognate objects:

(35) . . . since he did not dance he was content to watch her *dance the tango* with a number of admirers. (*BNC*: ANF 63)

(36) I can guarantee he'*ll be dancing the polka* with the best of them. (*BNC*: AEB 3)

(37) Now, at Madeleine's insistence, they were going to while the night away at the Cave of Harmony nightclub, where they would all get even hotter *dancing the shimmy, the foxtrot or the black bottom*. (*BNC*: FS1 11)

(38) *Dance one more pirouette* and it could blind you. (*BNC*: CH2 10)

(39) . . . then a troupe of girls *danced a vigorous whirling jig* which left the faces of the spectators, as well as theirs, red with excitement. (*BNC*: HUO 31)

Thus, the COCs built around their members do not seem to be very productive, common or frequent. Notice here, on the one hand, that only twelve tokens have been found out of a corpus of 7,637 examples: a figure that represents an average normalised frequency of occurrence of 15.71; and on the other, that they are all distributed just between two out of the twenty one morphological cognates associated with the components of this verbal group: *waltz* appears in one single instance out of a corpus of 152 examples, thus having a normalised frequency of occurrence of 65.78; and *dance* has provided, in turn, as expected, the eleven remaining tokens out of a total number of 2,919 examples, displaying, hence, a normalised frequency of occurrence of 37.68:

Morphological cognate	Total number of examples analysed	Raw frequency of COCs	Normalised frequency of COCs
Dance	2,919	11 (0.37%)	37.68
Waltz	152	1 (0.65%)	65.78
Total	7,637[7]	12 (0.15%)	15.71

Table 4. Frequency of occurrence of 'waltz' morphological cognates in the BNC.

The behaviour of the two *waltz* cognates attested in the corpus show, furthermore, that in this particular English pattern the verbs they complement are best interpreted as "performance verbs" rather than as "motion verbs" because, though describing movement, as Levin (1993: 269) herself acknowledges, no specific direction is implied in the cognate object patterns found. In fact, none of the COCs attested in the corpus, like examples (40-41), have an explicit directional phrase present in them:

(40) They *had waltzed the last waltz* together, now the evening was over. (*BNC*: FP7 308)

(41) Jonathan *danced a manic little dance*. (*BNC*: HTU 3361)

3.2.4. *Cognates Associated with Manner of Speaking Verbs*

Although in Levin's (1993) work the manner of speaking verbal class includes the verb *sing*, I have not analysed its morphological cognate here, but have done so within the second group of nominals previously identified, because the usual meaning of the verb-noun combination *sing-song* does not denote any specific manner of speaking, but some kind of sound emission:

(43) 'When I opened in Vegas and I sang 'Goldfinger', they all said, 'Why is this black girl *singing a white girl's song*?' (*BNC*: A3X 34)

(44) A wren *sings a song* with twenty or more distinct notes per second. (*BNC*: MBY 1032)

As Table 5 reveals, this particular class of cognates is not really productive in the COC either; it is, in fact, the group with the lowest level of frequency of occurrence of the five classes examined; specifically, a normalised frequency of occurrence of 9.17, which corresponds to the only 8 attestations found out of a corpus of 8,717 tokens:

Morphological cognate	Total number of examples analysed	Raw frequency of COCs	Normalised frequency of COCs
Scream	516	3 (0.58%)	58.13
Bark	447	1 (0.22%)	22.37
Purr	41	1 (2.43%)	243.90
Shout	480	1 (0.20%)	20.83
Whisper	579	1 (0.17%)	17.27
Yell	98	1 (1.02%)	102.04
Total	8,717[8]	8 (0.09%)	(9.17%)

Table 5. Frequency of occurrence of manner of speaking morphological cognates in the BNC.

Its extremely reduced level of productivity is further enhanced by the fact that only 6 cognates out of 66 have been found in the corpus in the COC—*bark, purr, scream, shout, whisper* and *yell*— and all of them, except for *scream*, with 3 attestations, appear in one single instance:

(45) The dog *was* still *barking: a hysterical, high-pitched bark* that went on and on. (*BNC*: ACB 216)

(46) ST came to me and rubbed against my side, *purring his rattling, wheezing purr.* (*BNC*: G02 12)

(47) Backing against a *wall she screams a scream that will soon have most of Britain in suspense* (*BNC*: F94 89)

(48) "I hope you get bloody herpes", she *shouted rather an old-fashioned shout, in Oxford in 1988* [...] (*BNC*: HAO 473)

(49) What remains *whispers the whisper of the startled stare before death.* (*BNC*: B1C 88)

(50) She *yelled an incoherent yell.* (*BNC*: CJA 60)

3.2.5. *Cognates Derived from Both "Manner of Speaking" and "Nonverbal Expression" Verbs*

The class of manner of speaking verbs is said to comprise, apart from the 66 verbs from which the previous morphological cognates derive, seven more units (i.e., *cackle, cry, groan, growl, howl, moan* and *whistle*) whose morphological cognates I have analysed separately, because they can also be classified as denoting some kind of nonverbal expression:

Morphological cognate	Total number of examples analysed	Raw frequency of COCs	Normalised frequency of COCs
Cry	1,585	2 (0.12%)	12.61
Total	2,815[9]	2 (0.07%)	7.10

Table 6. Frequency of occurrence in the BNC of morphological cognates derived from verbs classified as manner of speaking and nonverbal expression verbs.

As the results in Table 6 reveal, of these seven cognates only *cry* has been attested in the COC, though with almost no frequency of occurrence at all (12.61), producing only the following two examples out of a corpus of 1,585 tokens:

(51) He heard someone *cry out, a terrible cry*, and then realised it was himself. (*BNC*: C8S 1557)

(52) For he *cried out* with power and anger, *a cry so loud and full of authority that the men themselves stopped and looked back in surprise*. (*BNC*: FP3 1814)

4. Explaining the Frequency of Occurrence of COCs in Present-Day British English

As has been shown in the previous sections, the results obtained in my corpus-based analysis lead me to conclude, in complete agreement with Mittwoch (1998: 213), that in present-day British English the occurrence of cognate objects is "heavily restricted". In my view, however, their scarce use has to be explained not only, as Mittwoch (1998: 313) does, from a purely syntactic perspective, but also in semantico-pragmatic terms.

According to Mittwoch (1998: 313), COCs are extremely reduced in English because "they occur only with intransitive verbs, and only with unergatives. […] Even with unergatives, CO formation in English is marginal and far from being productive". Although this syntactic restriction, quite extended in the literature (e.g. Sweet, 1990, Jones 1988; Kevin 1993; Mittwoch 1998; Felser and Wanner 2001; Nakajima 2006), is responsible, indeed, to a great extent for the low frequency of occurrence of this particular pattern in the real speech of British speakers, it cannot be considered the only reason that accounts for its extremely restricted use. Notice in this regard, first, that not only intransitive verbs of the unergative type, like *sigh* and *scream* (e.g. 53-54), but also transitive verbs, like *sing* and *think* (e.g. 55-56), for instance, and the inaccusative verb *die* (e.g. 56), allow cognate objects in their subcategorization frames (e.g. Jespersen 1909-1949; Baron 1971; Massam 1990; Dixon 1991; Macfarland 1995; Höche 2008):

(53) He *sighed a deep, despairing sigh.* (*BNC*: CDY 333)

(54) Backing against a wall she *screams a scream that will soon have most of Britain in suspense* and the output cuts to a camera facing the roller caption machine on which the end credits are being displayed. (*BNC*F9Y: 89)

(55) MY MOTHER, many years ago, *used to sing a song about a miner,* warned by his daughter not to go to work because she dreamed of a disaster. (*BNC*: CH1 30)

(56) He hoped George *wasn't thinking the same thought.* (*BNC*: HR4 3076)

(57) I wouldn't say it *will die a natural death.* (*BNC*: CAP 814)

It should be noticed here, notwithstanding, and in agreement with Mittwoch (1998), that the intransitive verbs of the unergative type are, by far, the most recurrent ones in the COC since of the 130 verb-noun combinations analysed, 118 contain, in fact, unergative verbs; that is, 90.73% of the total. The 12 remaining verbs are distributed as follows: 11 verbs (8.46%) can have a transitive use, besides an intransitive one (*dream, think, sing, chant, croon, grunt, holler, mumble, murmur, mutter* and *whisper*), and only one, *die* (0.76%), is to be classified as an unaccusative verb:

Syntactic verbal class	*Number of verbs in the COC*	*Porcentage*
Unergative	118	90.76%
Unaccusative	1	8.46%
Transitive	11	0.76%
Total	130	99.98%

Table 7. Distribution of the syntactic verbal classes attested in COCs in the BNC

The findings concerning unaccusative verbs cannot be regarded as a matter of chance since *die* is almost unanimously considered in the literature to be the only representative of the unaccusative verbal class that enters the COC in English. As far as I know, there are only two studies —Macfarland's (1995) and Kuno and Takami's (2004)— that are somehow exceptional in this regard, though for very different reasons. Macfarland (1995), for instance, does not consider the behaviour of *die* exceptional because, after comparing it with its synonym *perish*, she concludes that *die* is an intransitive verb of the unergative type and, as a consequence, unaccusative intransitive verbs are to be ruled out completely from the COC. And for Kuno and Takami (2004: 11-116), in turn, there is nothing special in the behaviour of *die* since for them there are many other unaccusative verbs in English that enter the COC, as examples (58-60) illustrate, without causing any type of ungrammaticality[10]:

(58) Mary *blushed a deep/sudden blush.* (Kuno and Takami 2004)

(59) The apples *fell just a short fall* to the lower deck...

(60) The tree *grew a century's growth* within only ten years.

Apart from this syntactic constraint operating on the formation of English COCs, the restricted occurrence of COCs in present-day British English also has to be explained in terms of their internal syntactico-semantic organization which should be compared with that of their (in)transitive and light verb counterparts, exemplified, for instance, in (61-62) and (63-64), respectively:

(61) They *weep openly and harrowingly* [...] (*BNC*: G0T 43)

(62) He rolls away from Marjorie, who, now lying on her back, *begins to snore faintly.* (*BNC*: ANY 18)

(63) You *can have a real old giggle* at that. (*BNC*: FXW 11)

(64) Bert *took a long sniff* and looked at Yanto. (*BNC*: B3J 121)

According to Höche (2009: 79), the intransitive structures in these examples are the basic clause type from which light verb patterns and COCs derive because they are the ones that exhibit a canonical internal organization; namely, one in which the event denoted in the clause is expressed through the verb. Thus, in (61-62) the events of "weeping" and "snoring" are encoded by means of the verbs *weep* and *snore*, respectively.

In light verb constructions, however, the direct object is the clausal element in charge of denoting the event described in the clause because the verbal unit, being semantically vague and almost devoid of meaning, only displays a grammatical function. Notice, in fact, that the events of "giggling" and "sniffing" encoded in (63-64) above are not directly denoted, due to their semantic emptiness, by the verbs *have* and *take*, but by the deverbal nouns functioning as heads of the direct objects *a real old giggle* and *a long sniff*, respectively[11].

And finally, as shown in (65-66), in COCs the event is encoded twice because, as Quirk et al. (1985: 750) remark, the semantic function of the cognate object (*her billy goat laugh* and *an enormous grin*) is just "to repeat, wholly or partially, the meaning of the verb" (*laugh* and *grin*). For this reason, Quirk et al. (1985: 750) do not consider the cognate object a verbal argument and, in a similar line, Mirto (2007: 1) describes it as "a predicate surfacing as an argument":

(65) Margaret *laughed her billy goat laugh.* (*BNC*: CR6 2985)

(66) Tom *grinned an enormous grin* across the table. (*BNC*: A6J 115)

As a consequence, COCs are frequently described in the literature as redundant (e.g. Quirk et al. 1985; Massam 1990; Langacker 1991: 63; Dixon 1991: 118)

and, as such, as Langacker (1991: 364) also remarks, as deviating from the expected grammatical structure: the basic (in)transitive scheme they derive from.

It is not surprising, then, to find in the literature a frequent comparison of COCs with: (i) intransitive sentences, usually with adverbial modification (e.g. Jones 1988; Dixon 1991; Dowing and Locke 1992: 159; Huddleston and Pullum 2002; Höche 2009; Ogata 2011); (ii) light verb patterns (e.g. Mirto 2007; Höche 2009); (iii) and even sentences in which the nominal at issue, being a semantic cognate, functions as a transitivizing object (e.g. Massam 1990; Real Puigdollers 2008).

The general idea underlying the comparison between COCs and the intransitive sentences with adverbial modification they are related to is their synonymy. Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 673), for instance, comment that they mean "essentially the same"; and for Jones (1988: 93), the difference between them is more "a matter of style than of meaning". However, if this were the case, COCs would be useless because they would not serve a specific function of their own in the language. With this in mind, Jespersen (1925: 235) observes that the examples illustrated in (67a-67b) are, by no means, semantically equivalent, and concludes that English COCs are a clear means of filling a gap in the language since they are used to describe a verbal event that cannot be described otherwise; that is, when the language does not possess an adverb appropriate for displaying such a descriptive function:

    (67a) *To fight the good fight.* (Jespersen 1925: 235)
    (67b) ≠ *To fight well.*

This specific purpose of English COCs is best explained with the pair of examples in (68a-68b), provided by Horita (1996: 224), where the intransitive sentence is not simply non-equivalent in its meaning to the cognate object pattern but ungrammatical, due precisely to the insertion of the adverb *strangely* in the predicate:

    (68a) Mary *dreamed a strange dream.* (Horita 1996: 224)
    (68b) *Mary *dreamed strangely.*

These examples would seem to confirm Dixon's remarks (1991: 12, footnote 9) that "English grammar has much more restricted possibilities for adverbial modification of verbs than for adjectival modification of nouns; hence the usefulness of cognate NPs"[12].

In order to see the real productivity of the three above-described syntactic patterns in the real language of native speakers of British English, I have analysed their distribution and frequency of occurrence in the subcategorization frame of the

unergative verb *smile*. I have chosen this particular verb for two main reasons: first, because it belongs to the class of unergative verbs, which, as explained above, is the prototypical one to appear in the English COC; and second, because, as summarised in Table 8, it is the verb of the 130 verb-noun combinations analysed which has provided the largest percentage of COCs in the *BNC*:

Verbal class	Cognate	Total number of examples analysed	Raw frequency of COCs	Normalised frequency of COCs
Human behaviour	Song	3,744	249	665.06
Nonverbal expression	Smile	5,867	238	405.65
Manner of speaking	Scream	516	3	58.13
Waltz verbs	Dance	2,919	11	37.68
Nonverbal + Manner of speaking	Cry	1,585	2	12.61

Table 8. Verb-noun combinations per semantic verbal groups with the greatest percentage of COCs in the BNC.

The results derived from my analysis, illustrated in Table 9, reveal two noticeable and important findings in this regard: on the one hand, that the contrast between adjectival and adverbial modification in English put forward by Dixon (1191: 12) proves to be true; and on the other, that COCs have, as expected, a much more restricted use in the real speech of British English speakers than light verb constructions:

Registers	Examples analysed	Intransitive with adverbial modificat.	COCs	Light verbs[13]	Other patterns[14]
Spoken	112	1	0	10	101
Fiction	5511	62	219	569	4661
Magazines	218	4	6	15	193
Newspaper	314	5	2	15	292
Non-academic	125	5	1	3	116
Academic	58	3	1	0	54
Miscellan.	457	10	5	30	412
Total	6795[15]	90/132.45[16]	234/344.37	642/944.81	5829/8578.36

Table 9. Distribution of COCs, light verb constructions and intransitive patterns with adverbial modification in the subcategorization frame of 'smile'

Notice at this point that COCs have a higher frequency of occurrence in the *BNC* than intransitive patterns with adverbial modification: namely, a normalised frequency of occurrence of 344.37 *vs.* 132.45. This situation is reversed, nevertheless, when comparing the productivity of COCs with that of light verb constructions, since the latter exhibits a much higher frequency of occurrence (944.81) than the former (344.37).

These findings are also supported by the fact that there has been no search in my corpus-based analysis, except for those cognates that, like *song, thought, breath* and *death*, are formally different from the verbs they derive from, in which the nominal at issue does not surface either as the intransitive/transitive verb it is related to or in the subcategorization frame of a light verb. Both syntactic environments are exemplified, respectively, in (69-70) with the morphological cognate *croon*, for which the *BNC* only provides 13 COCs:

> (69) At this point, Joey's voice was heard *to croon* quietly. (*BNC*: ATE 1)
> (70) Drake *has low croon*, duck a harsh wigeon-like quack; (*BNC*: GUA 13)

It can be concluded, therefore, at this stage that the first reason for the restricted use and appearance of COCs in present-day British English, in favour of light verb patterns and intransitive patterns with adverbial modification, is the redundancy inherent in the construction itself[17].

Apart from the redundancy they entail, there are two other reasons concerning the style of COCs commonly mentioned in the literature which, in my view, also account for their low frequency of occurrence in contemporary British English. One is their formal and, as Quirk et al. (1985: 13) call it, "orotund style"; the other, the archaic flavour that, according to Downing and Locke (1992: 144-145), these constructions seem to maintain in present-day English due mainly to their classical Latin and Greek origin.

With these stylistic connotations in mind, I have analysed the frequency of occurrence of COCs in the different varieties and registers of English present in the *British National Corpus*: speech, fiction (including poetry and prose), magazines, newspapers, non-academic, academic and miscellaneous. The results obtained, shown in Table 10, do indeed prove Quirk et al.'s (1985: 14) hypothesis, which states that COCs are "to be found in more elaborate pieces of writing or public speeches rather than in informal conversation":

Cognates	Spoken	Fiction	Magazine	Newspaper	Non-Academic	Academic	Miscellan.
Dream	2/228	15/1,281	3/352	0/617	2/508	2/142	6/519
Fight	0/171	4/542	4/207	3/1,025	1/340	0/163	7/391
Life	16/3,010	206/10,825	47/3,902	14/6,175	26/9,511	27/7,687	101/13,306
Song	57/386	75/589	12/641	15/445	22/435	14/340	54/908
Sleep	0/344	14/1,619	0/118	0/172	2/942	0/140	2/400
Thought	1/1,330	11/3,877	0/470	0/505	3/1,089	1/1,703	1/1,568
Death	3/587	21/4,026	4/1,183	7/2,955	15/3,466	9/3,201	13/4,174
Breathe	0/148	2/3,293	0/142	0/227	0/202	0/260	1/397
Chuckle	0/1	1/123	0/9	0/13	0/5	0/1	0/16
Cough	0/95	1/157	0/17	0/25	0/137	0/31	0/61
Frown	0/2	2/392	0/6	0/8	0/12	0/2	0/13
Grin	0/10	19/800	0/50	1/51	0/20	0/2	2/83
Laugh	0/267	23/1,092	0/86	0/104	1/40	0/30	2/140
Scowl	0/0	0/87	0/5	0/4	1/6	0/0	0/4
Sigh	0/12	10/808	0/28	0/41	0/44	0/10	0/59
Smile	0/69	223/4,874	5/173	2/269	2/90	1/43	5/349
Yawn	0/2	1/77	0/10	0/4	0/0	0/1	0/16
Bark	0/31	1/171	0/49	0/30	0/39	0/37	0/90
Purr	0/0	1/30	0/2	0/1	0/4	0/0	0/4
Scream	0/24	2/340	0/40	0/26	0/26	0/7	1/53
Shout	0/67	1/270	0/17	0/26	0/18	0/7	0/75
Whisper	0/2	1/464	0/15	0/27	0/26	0/11	0/34
Yell	0/3	1/71	0/6	0/2	0/1	0/1	0/14
Cry	0/46	2/706	0/114	0/167	0/184	0/121	0/247
Dance	0/185	7/509	0/409	0/507	1/487	0/205	3/617
Waltz	0/8	1/47	0/20	0/11	0/5	0/22	0/39
Total	79/7,028 (112.40)[18]	645/37,070 (173.55)	75/8,071 (92.92)	42/13,437 (31.25)	76/17,637 (43.09)	54/14,167 (38.11)	198/23,577 (83.98)

Table 10. Distribution of COCs in the different registers of the BNC.

Notice in this regard that fiction, the most elaborate of the seven varieties included in the corpus, is the register where the COCs found have the highest level of productivity; specifically, a normalised frequency of occurrence of 173.55. The findings obtained for spoken British English are, however, surprising *a priori* since its normalised frequency of occurrence (112.40) surpasses that of the remaining five written registers dealt with in the *BNC*, thus apparently contradicting the previously stated hypothesis. A careful look at the distribution of the COCs in this particular register reveals, nevertheless, that this figure is not so noteworthy and striking since most of the attestations found in spoken British English occur with the verb *sing*, a transitive verb on which the morphological cognate noun *song* does not have, as explained above, the same "exceptional" transitivizing effect as any other morphological noun has on the intransitive unergative verb it complements. The presence of COCs in the five remaining registers analysed is less significant since in none of them is their normalised frequency of occurrence superior to 100.000: in magazines, for instance, the 75 tokens attested, mainly with the morphological cognates *life* and *song*, out of a corpus of 8,071 exhibit a normalised frequency of occurrence of 92.92; the "miscellaneous" register displays, in turn, a normalised frequency of 83.98, which stands for the 198 attestations found in a sample of 23,577 examples; it should be noted here, furthermore, that the majority of the COCs located in this specific variety have been attested in two different types of written texts, both fairly formal in their style: religious texts, on the one hand, and biographies, on the other. And finally, the lowest results, ranging from 31.25 to 43.09, are those obtained for newspapers, academic and non-academic English.

4. Conclusions

From the preliminary corpus-based analysis of English COCs reported in this paper two main conclusions can be drawn. On the one hand, this clausal pattern shows a very low frequency of occurrence in present-day British English due, mainly, to the redundancy inherent in the construction itself: only 1,169 COCs have been found in a corpus of 136,032 examples, a figure that represents just 0.85% of the total.

And on the other, as regards its distribution in the different kinds of registers and varieties of English, the COC shows a clear tendency to appear in the more elaborate types of written discourse analysed (fiction, biography and religious texts), which in my view explains its archaic and formal tone. In the more informal registers (particularly magazines, spoken and non-academic English) its presence is much less notable.

However, to have a complete picture of the real use and distribution of COCs in English, the preliminary research described here should be continued in two different directions. First, the morphological cognates entering the verb-noun combinations studied should be analysed in the same corpus but in the plural number to see if there are changes in the frequency of occurrence of this specific clausal pattern associated with the number (singular/plural) of the cognate noun. And secondly, the same research should be carried out on a Corpus of American English, such as the *COCA* corpus, for instance, in order to compare the productivity and distribution of COCs in American and British English.

Notes

[2] Although less extended in the literature, there is a third proposal that includes the two classes of nouns previously mentioned within the cognate object category, depending on the syntactic nature of the verb. Visser's (1963) and Baron's (1971) studies are two cases in point here, since in them transitive verbs are considered to accept both types of cognates—morphological and semantic— as complements, whereas intransitive verbs, in turn, only seem to be compatible with morphological cognates.

[3] The figure I have chosen to normalise the raw frequencies of the COCs attested in the *BNC* is that of 10,000 tokens.

[4] This figure corresponds to the total numbers of examples analysed with the nominals presented in the first column in Table 2, as well as with the following cognates: *beam* (1,010), *chortle* (10), *gasp* (281), *giggle* (150), *glare* (455), *grimace* (135), *guffaw* (27), *jeer* (8), *pout* (69), *simper* (3), *smirk* (75), *sneeze* (41), *snicker* (3), *snigger* (25), *sniff* (115), *snore* (40), *snort* (105), *sob* (153), *titter* (16) and *weep* (78). They do not appear in the aforementioned table because there is no trace of them in any COC in the *BNC*. The figures between brackets stand for the number of examples analysed with each of them.

[5] I would like to highlight here that I have studied all the morphological cognates derived from the verbs included in this class, and not only those included in Levin's (1993) work. Thus, just as Macfarland's (1995) work shows that the verb *snicker*, absent from Levin's (1993) analysis, can enter the COC, so my corpus-based research reveals that *scowl*, (23), also missing from Levin's (1993) work for no apparent reason, can function as a cognate object.

[6] *Dream* is not included within any particular verbal class in Levin's (1993) study.

[7] This figure corresponds to the total number of examples analysed with the nominals illustrated in Table 4, as well as with the following cognates: *boogie* (110), *bob* (4,019), *cancan* (3), *clog* (43), *conga* (11), *fox-trot* (23), *jig* (115), *jitterbug* (2), *jive* (15), *pirouette* (33), *polka* (28), *quickstep* (3), *rumba* (7), *samba* (16), *shuffle* (70), *squaredance* (1), *tango* (66) and *tapdance* (1). They are not represented in Table 4 because they do not appear in any COC in the *BNC*. The figures between brackets stand for the number of examples analysed with each of them.

[8] This figure stands for the total number of examples analysed with the nominals illustrated in Table 5, as well as with the following cognates: *babble* (87), *bawl* (2), *bellow* (68), *bleat* (12), *bray* (31), *burble* (14), *carol* (138), *chant* (291), *chatter* (242), *chirp* (16), *cluck* (11), *coo* (49), *croak* (61), *croon* (0), *crow* (321), *drawl* (110), *drone* (130), *gabble* (10), *gibber* (0), *grumble* (31), *grunt* (142), *hiss* (180), *holler* (5), *hoot* (60), *jabber* (13), *lilt* (47), *lisp* (33), *mumble* (26), *murmur* (299), *mutter* (32), *rage* (1,120), *rasp* (64), *roar* (511), *rumble* (154), *screech* (107), *shriek* (128), *snap* (62), *snarl* (89), *snuffle* (3), *splutter* (26), *squall* (59), *squeal* (83), *squeak* (139), *squawk* (26), *stammer* (48), *stutter* (32), *thunder* (689), *trill* (37), *trumpet* (291), *twitter* (7), *wail* (112), *warble* (15), *wheeze* (62), *whimper* (59), *whine* (115), *whop* (4), *yammer* (1), *yap* (11), *yelp* (36) and *yodel* (4). Once again, they are absent from the table referred to because there have been no attestations of the COC in the corpus. The figures between brackets stand for the number of examples analysed with each of them.

[9] This figure is the sum of the 1,585 *cry* examples and the attestations analysed with the other six nominals included within this group: *cackle* (35), *groan* (228), *growl* (109), *howl* (118), *moan* (169) and *whistle* (571). As with the other cognates, the figures between brackets indicate the total number of examples examined with each of them.

[10] The examples provided by Kuno and Takami (2004) are, nevertheless, controversial. For Höche (2009: 162), for instance, they are not valid because "these sentences are contrived by the authors and not extracted from a corpus of naturally occurring language". For other scholars (e.g. Nakajima 2006; Iwasaki 2007; Ogata 2011), however, these examples are a good starting point for the study of English COCs built around unaccusative verbs. Nakajima (2006) in particular calls them "adverbial cognate objects" after noticing that they exhibit a syntactic behaviour of their own in relation to modification, *it*-pronominalization and passivization, which is completely different from that of the cognate objects that complement unergative verbs. And Ogata (2011: 12), in turn, concludes that only those unaccusative verbs that describe a spontaneous event and that enter, as such, the causative-inchoative alternation are acceptable in the English COC.

[11] The class of light verbs could be widened with the insertion of other verbs that, like *let out* —The older of the young ones **let out a sniggering laugh** which developed into a hiccoughy laugh (*BNC*: 1308: A0U)—, *practise* —He **practised a deep evil laugh**, sounded real spooky and sinister (*BNC*: HUA 2986)—, *try* —She **tried a watery laugh** (*BNC*: AD9 1431)—, *manage* —Lucy **managed a laugh shattered like a dropped mirror** (*BNC*: AOL 1216)—and *utter* —For no apparent reason she **uttered a little laugh** (*BNC*: GOX 2252)—, cannot be regarded as true or prototypical light verbs due to their semantic content but which, nevertheless, as illustrated in the previous examples, serve a similar grammatical function. Mirto (2007: 4) captures the differences and similarities between both groups of light verbs, calling the first ones [-lexical] support verbs and the second, in turn, [+ lexical] support verbs since, besides their grammatical function, they provide the sentence with an additional meaning that, according to Mirto (2007: 4), can be aspectual, stylistic, or simply intensifying.

[12] These two contradictory positions (synonymy vs. non-synonymy) are gathered in Ogata's (2011: 4) work, where two different classes of COCs are identified depending precisely on their (non)synonymy with the intransitive sentences with adverbial modification related to them: on the one hand, verbal COCs built around intransitive verbs like, for instance, *The old man died a happy death* and *Bill laughed a hearty laugh* which can be paraphrased into intransitive expressions with adverbial modification: *The old man died happily* and *Bill laughed heartily*; and on the other, nominal COCs built, in turn, around transitive verbs of the type of *Fred sang a comical song* and *Sam danced a merry dance* which, on the contrary, do not admit such a paraphrasis; notice here that the intransitive sentences *Fred sang comically* and *Sam danced merrily* do not mean the same as the COCs they are related to.

[13] The light verbs attested with the nominal *smile* are *get, have, make* and *give*. *Give* is by far the most recurrent one.

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[14] The other syntactic patterns attested in the corpus include, mainly, semantic cognate constructions and intransitive schemes without any kind of adverbial modification.

[15] This figure includes the attestations of *smile*, both as a noun and as a verb, in the *BNC*.

[16] The figures to the left and the right of the slash stand, respectively, for the raw and normalised frequencies of the syntactic pattern in question.

[17] The redundancy underlying English COCs has opened an interesting debate in the literature on the internal structure of morphological cognates. Since they basically repeat the same content as the verb, some scholars (e.g. Massam 1990; Dixon 1991; Levin 193; Felser y Wanner 2001; Huddleston y Pullum 2020; Nakajima 2006) consider that they must be somehow modified to be informatively relevant. In Felser and Wanner's (2001: 106) words, for instance, their modification is "virtually mandatory". There is, however, a less radical line of thought (e.g. Jespersen 1949; Quirk et al. 1985; Macfarland 1995; Mittwoch 1998; Pereltsvaig 1999; Höche 2009), which does not rule out as ungrammatical those cognate objects that are unmodified, despite acknowledging their oddity and their extremely reduced use: "The nominal heads of COs do not have to have modifiers. . . . But since the modifier is usually the motivation for the use of the CO, it is not surprising that unmodified COs are rare" (Mittwoch 1998: 315). The results derived from my study confirm, in fact, that cognate objects can appear without any type of modification, though, as previously stated, their frequency is much more reduced than that of those cognate objects that are somehow modified. Notice in this regard that 306 COCs out of a total of 1169 attestations (that is, the 26,17% of the total) have an unmodified cognate object introduced into discourse by a great variety of determiners: the definite and indefinite articles—*At Faringdon's, the singers stood on chairs but I do not usually do this if I **sing the song** with children* (*BNC*: C8P 687) and *I am hoping **this will die a death*** (*BNC*: CH8 1888)—, demonstratives—*"Until I grow busts" I told people, and they all **laughed that laugh** again* (*BNC*: FU7 580)—, possessives—*Yet never was the need greater to think in terms of real alternatives in adult education, helping people **to dream their dreams***, *to construct their version of a better society out of their own experiences* (*BNC*: GVX 140)—, quantifiers—*Just to think, he said he **would dance every dance** with me if only I would stay* (*BNC*: BN6 668)—, indefinites—*Perhaps I might see in the rising of that sun icon quintessentially Pacific, or **think some thought** which in a flash would sum up the essential message of the great Ocean* (*BNC*: CJD 2909) and *Old ladies with thick stockings holding veins like knots of worms, and men whose eyes are duller than clay alleys **dream other dreams** and watched the numbered screen, killing time, hoping for a win* (*BNC*: A6C 243)—, and finally, relative determiners—*They learn **to sing whatever song** their parent, or foster parent sings* (*BNC*: GU8 2893)—.

[18] The figure to the left of the slash stands for the number of COCs attested in each of the registers, whereas the one to the right corresponds to the total number of examples analysed. The figure given between brackets indicates, in turn, the normalised frequency of occurrence the COC exhibits in each of the registers analysed.

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LA LUCHA CONTRA EL TERRORISMO Y LA DELINCUENCIA ORGANIZADA: UNA VISIÓN DESDE LA LINGÜÍSTICA Y LA INGENIERÍA DEL CONOCIMIENTO

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1. Introducción

El procesamiento del lenguaje natural (PLN) es un campo de estudio multidisciplinar que ha atraído el interés de organismos públicos y de entidades privadas debido al gran número de aplicaciones que tiene tanto en la vida cotidiana como en el ámbito profesional. El PLN, que se encuentra en la base de las conocidas como "tecnologías del lenguaje", está dirigido a la creación de modelos computacionales que las máquinas puedan utilizar para producir o interpretar el lenguaje humano, no solo a nivel morfosintáctico, sino fundamentalmente a nivel semántico y discursivo (Cole et al. 1997). Son precisamente estos dos últimos niveles los que resultan fundamentales para una comprensión profunda y no meramente formal del lenguaje. De ahí que una de las prioridades del PLN sea crear herramientas de análisis semántico con las que, entre otros, recuperar y procesar la cuantiosa información que diariamente se produce en páginas web, bases de datos y redes sociales. Si bien los contenidos digitales aparecen con frecuencia "estructurados" y su procesamiento resulta a priori sencillo, la mayor parte son de tipo "no estructurado", en cuyo caso el reconocimiento semántico requiere un procesamiento más complejo. Un ámbito de estudio en el que es especialmente relevante el potencial del PLN es la detección de escenarios de riesgo para la seguridad, entre ellos, los relacionados con el cibercrimen, el terrorismo, o el crimen organizado (Vander Beken 2004; Argamon y Howard 2009; Subrahmanian 2009; Choi et al. 2014).

El presente artículo trata de establecer parámetros para el procesamiento semántico de unidades conceptuales del ámbito de la delincuencia y abrir así nuevas vías que permitan analizar tanto los datos estructurados como los no estructurados.

Son muchos los estudios que, de un modo u otro, combinan las tecnologías del lenguaje con el análisis de datos para combatir la delincuencia y el terrorismo. Tseng et al. (2012), por ejemplo, proponen una herramienta que está basada en redes terminológicas y permite detectar y visualizar conexiones entre entidades del ámbito delictivo. De forma similar, Choi et al. (2014) establecen un marco metodológico para el análisis textual y la recuperación de documentos relacionados con el terrorismo en el que combinan medidas estadísticas con el análisis de redes léxicas de WordNet. Otras propuestas subrayan la importancia de las ontologías especializadas para la recuperación de información. En este sentido, son de especial relevancia para este artículo los estudios sobre el desarrollo ontológico en los campos del derecho (Breuker et al. 2005; Casellas 2011), del terrorismo (Mannes y Golbeck 2005; Golbeck et al. 2006; Chmielewski et al. 2009; Galjano y Popovich 2009; Jiang y Tan 2010) y de la delincuencia (Dzemydiene y Kazemikaitiene 2005; Bak y Jedrzejek 2010; Bak et al. 2013; González-Conejero et al. 2014; Spranger y Labudde 2014). Finalmente, cabe destacar el papel que juegan aquellos consorcios formados por entidades públicas o empresas privadas que ponen a disposición de los investigadores, en particular, y de los usuarios de internet, en general, las bases de datos sobre hechos delictivos y terroristas acaecidos en el ámbito internacional. Por ejemplo, *Global Terrorism Database* (GTB) (LaFree 2011; LaFree et al. 2015) (http://www.start.umd.edu/gtd) es un proyecto que reúne información sobre unos 140.000 atentados terroristas ocurridos desde la década de 1970 hasta hoy en distintos países. Cada suceso registrado en la GTB incluye información sobre quiénes cometieron el atentado, dónde lo hicieron, qué armas emplearon, cuál fue el número de víctimas y rehenes o cómo se llevó a cabo, entre otras variables. Los proyectos MOSAIC (*Multi-Modal Situation Assessment and Analytics Platform*) (http://www.mosaic-fp7.eu) (Seidler, Adderley, Badii & Raffaelli, 2014) y CAPER (*Collaborative Information Acquisition Processing Exploitation and Reporting for the Prevention of Organised Crime*) (http://www.fp7-caper.eu) (Aliprandi et al. 2014) ofrecen soluciones para descubrir organizaciones criminales a través de los contenidos visuales, auditivos o de texto incluidos en los repositorios documentales y en las redes sociales. Finalmente, el proyecto e-POO-LICE (*Early Pursuit against Organized Crime Using Environmental Scanning, The Law and Intelligence Systems*) (https://www.epoolice.eu) (Brewster et al. 2014) tiene como misión prevenir la delincuencia organizada mediante el análisis de información obtenida de diversas fuentes, entre ellas repositorios de organismos internacionales, documentación gubernamental, páginas web o foros académicos.

Este artículo se enmarca dentro de la corriente ontológica arriba mencionada y, más concretamente, en el contexto de colaboración entre el PLN y la ingeniería del conocimiento, rama ésta última que se ocupa de la creación de modelos de representación semántica tanto del conocimiento común como del especializado (Gruber 1995; Guarino et al. 2009). El artículo muestra cómo se elaboran los modelos conceptuales de varias unidades léxicas pertenecientes a los ámbitos del terrorismo y del crimen organizado, y aborda su integración en FunGramKB (*Functional Grammar Knowledge Base*), una base de conocimiento para el desarrollo de aplicaciones de compresión y generación lingüística que ha sido diseñada para establecer relaciones lógicas de herencia e inferencia entre unidades conceptuales a partir de sus rasgos definitorios (http://www.fungramkb.com/). Para ello, se analiza a modo de caso práctico la conceptualización de las unidades *cartel* ("cártel"), *oriented cluster* ("grupo con fines propios") y *terrorist cell* ("célula terrorista"). Tanto la información conceptual como la léxica constituyen dos elementos fundamentales de FunGramKB y se incorporan a esta mediante la plataforma online *FunGramKB Suite*. Las unidades seleccionadas representan una pequeña muestra de un repertorio mayor que ha sido elaborado por el proyecto de creación ontológica denominado GLOBALCRIMETERM (Felices y Ureña, 2012; Arcas-Túnez y Periñán-Pascual 2014). El proyecto se ha completado con la elaboración de una taxonomía jerarquizada de conceptos relacionados con los ámbitos de la delincuencia organizada y del terrorismo, e incluye información sobre tipos de armas, tipos de delitos, o tipos de sustancias explosivas y estupefacientes, entre otros. La propuesta que se defiende en este artículo se basa en la necesidad de abordar con nuevos enfoques el problema de la delincuencia del siglo XXI, uno de los cuales puede ser el procesamiento lingüístico. La importancia de FunGramKB radica en que, a diferencia de otros modelos, su motor de razonamiento está diseñado a partir de la comprensión real de las interacciones conceptuales que se producen entre las acciones y las entidades delictivas, y no a partir de parámetros estadísticos o probabilísticos. Si bien estos últimos optimizan el tiempo que se necesita para detectar posibles amenazas, FunGramKB ofrece una comprensión profunda (esto es, semántica) del lenguaje, lo que contribuiría de forma decisiva a mejorar la precisión con la que se puede recuperar información relacionada con las redes de delincuencia.

El resto del artículo se articula como sigue: la Sección 1 presenta una visión general de la estructura de FunGramKB, centrándose para ello en la relación entre dicha estructura y las áreas terminológicas. La Sección 2 aborda el análisis conceptual de las unidades terminológicas relacionadas con los dominios del terrorismo y de la delincuencia organizada. La Sección 3 incluye las conclusiones. Es necesario apuntar que tanto los términos analizados como su definición provienen del inglés, dado que la mayoría de la documentación pertenece a órganos internacionales que utilizan prioritariamente esta lengua como medio de difusión. Asimismo, se proporcionan las correspondientes traducciones al español.

2. FunGramKB

FunGramKB es una base de conocimiento para el procesamiento del lenguaje natural, es decir, es una plataforma diseñada para albergar contenido lingüístico-conceptual, y está dirigida a la realización de tareas relacionadas con el lenguaje y el razonamiento automático (Periñán-Pascual y Arcas-Túnez 2007; Periñán-Pascual y Mairal-Usón 2010). FunGramKB nace como una propuesta teórica y metodológica para el desarrollo o la mejora de aplicaciones tales como la desambiguación semántica, la traducción automática, la recuperación de información o las interfaces de comunicación persona-máquina. Para tener una visión más completa del funcionamiento de la base de conocimiento, es necesario establecer una relación entre esta y el Modelo Léxico Construccional (MLC), esto es, una teoría sobre la formación e interpretación del significado que propone un sistema multinivel para la descripción de procesos semánticos y pragmáticos (Periñán-Pascual 2013; Ruiz de Mendoza 2013, 2014). Entre las principales virtudes del MLC destacan la formalización rigurosa de plantillas léxicas y construccionales, que se combinan mediante mecanismos de inferencia y subsunción, así como una explicación global de procesos metafóricos y metonímicos. Si bien el MLC y FunGramKB tienen un origen y un desarrollo independientes, la colaboración entre ambos ha sido estrecha. Por un lado, el MLC juega un papel fundamental en la implementación del *Gramaticón* de la base de conocimiento. Por otro lado, FunGramKB puede servir como solución computacional para la aplicación del MLC a diversas tareas relacionadas con el PLN.

FunGramKB adopta un enfoque en tres niveles (Figura 1) (Periñán-Pascual y Arcas-Túnez 2010). El primer nivel es el conceptual: la base de conocimiento alberga la "Ontología Nuclear", esto es, un repertorio jerarquizado de unidades representativas del sentido común, ya sean entidades, como por ejemplo "humano", acciones como "saltar," o características como "fácil" (Periñán-Pascual y Arcas-Túnez 2007). La Ontología está conectada, por un lado, al "Cognicón", que se define como un repositorio de guiones relacionados con procedimientos como por ejemplo "ver una película", "comer en un restaurante" o "pagar con tarjeta de crédito", y, por otro, al "Onomasticón", módulo encargado de almacenar entidades únicas, tales como *Taj Mahal* o *Napoleón* (Periñán-Pascual y Carrión-Varela 2011).

Las unidades contenidas en los tres módulos (Ontología, Cognicón y Onomasticón) aparecen expresadas mediante COREL (*Conceptual Representation Language*), un lenguaje de interfaz basado en la lengua inglesa, que se caracteriza por su sencillez sintáctica y por su expresividad semántica[1]. El nivel conceptual formado por la Ontología, el Cognicón y el Onomasticón constituye el motor de la base de conocimiento y es el responsable de que ésta pueda *comprender* conceptos propios de la cognición

humana. El segundo nivel es el lingüístico: el componente conceptual se halla conectado al módulo denominado "Lexicón", que contiene las plantillas léxicas de cada uno de los lexemas que materializan el contenido conceptual en distintas lenguas, entre ellas el español, el inglés, el italiano o el alemán (Mairal-Usón y Periñán-Pascual 2009). El tercer nivel es el gramatical: FunGramKB incluye un "Gramaticón" o módulo que contiene los esquemas construccionales —como la construcción ditransitiva o la estructura de "movimiento causado"— que se utilizan en las distintas lenguas representadas en el Lexicón (Ruiz de Mendoza y Mairal-Usón 2008; Luzondo-Oyón 2014). Para un análisis más detallado de la estructura y funcionamiento de FunGramKB, véase Periñán-Pascual y Mairal-Usón (2009, 2010).
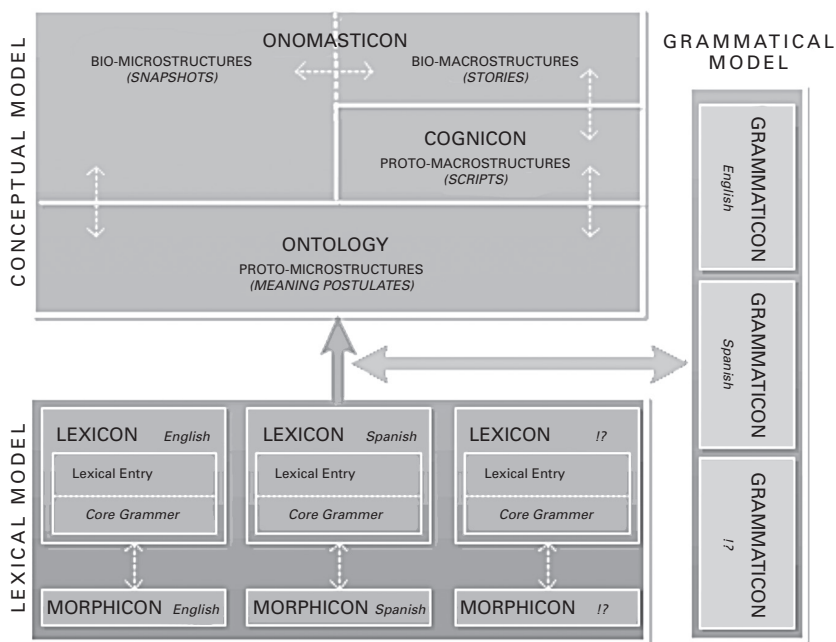

Figura 1. Estructura de FunGramKB.

Si, como se ha mencionado arriba, la Ontología Nuclear incluye entidades, acciones y características del conocimiento que las personas poseemos comúnmente, las "Ontologías Satélite" están formadas por unidades conceptuales relacionadas con ámbitos científico-técnicos como la medicina o el derecho. A pesar de coexistir

como repositorios separados, ambos tipos de ontologías se encuentran conectados mediante una misma estructura jerárquica y un mismo lenguaje de formalización, esto es, COREL. De este modo, ambos pueden intervenir simultánea o alternativamente en una misma secuencia de procesamiento lingüístico o razonamiento artificial. El módulo satélite se encuentra actualmente en desarrollo, tras haberse efectuado un estudio piloto que se ha completado con la creación de la subontología sobre terrorismo y delincuencia organizada, GLOBALCRIMETERM, en la que se incluyen equivalencias léxicas en inglés, español e italiano para cada unidad. La construcción de las Ontologías Satélite como GLOBALCRIMETERM está basada en una adaptación de la metodología de creación ontológica propuesta por Periñán-Pascual y Mairal-Usón (2011), y desarrollada posteriormente de forma específica por Ureña et al. (2011), Felices-Lago y Ureña (2012), y Arcas-Túnez y Periñán-Pascual (2014) para el modelado *ad hoc* de unidades especializadas. La metodología *ad hoc* consta de cuatro fases: (a) elaboración de un corpus representativo del ámbito objeto de estudio; (b) extracción automática de términos a partir del corpus; (c) descripción en lenguaje natural de los términos recuperados durante la extracción y (d) definición en lenguaje COREL de las unidades especializadas. Las fases (a) y (b) aparecen detalladas en varios estudios, principalmente Felices-Lago y Ureña (2012), y Felices-Lago y Ureña (2014), mientras que las fases (c) y (d) aparecen ilustradas en la Sección 2 del presente artículo.

3. Conceptualización de las unidades del terrorismo y la delincuencia organizada

A los efectos de la investigación que nos ocupa y siguiendo la definición de Enders y Sandler (2002), el terrorismo se definirá de forma genérica en este artículo como el uso de la violencia con fines políticos, religiosos o ideológicos que se ejerce contra grupos numerosos de personas no relacionadas con la toma de decisiones en dichos ámbitos (Enders y Sandler 2002). Esta acción de extrema gravedad la perpetran colectivos organizados, individuos aislados, conocidos como "lobos solitarios" (*lone wolves*), o la denominada "resistencia acéfala" (*leaderless resistance*) (Carson et al. 2012: 129; Spink et al. 2013: 4). La delincuencia organizada, por otra parte, se refiere a la actividad ilícita que lleva a cabo cualquier red mafiosa cuyos objetivos son el comercio ilegal y el control de un territorio mediante el uso de la violencia (Ashby y Ramos, 2013). Tanto la comisión de atentados terroristas como el tráfico ilegal de mercancías y personas constituyen dos de las amenazas más serias a la seguridad ciudadana a nivel global, de ahí que el análisis de la estructura y modus operandi de la delincuencia organizada sea fundamental para comprender ambos dominios. Poder contar con un modelo tanto de los agentes como

de los medios materiales que estos utilizan supone un paso importante en la creación de herramientas para la detección de la actividad delictiva, ya proceda de foros, páginas webs o documentación incautada. Por ello, esta sección se centra en el análisis de las entidades colectivas *cartel* ("cártel"), *oriented cluster* ("grupo con fines propios") y *cell* ("célula"); las dos primeras están relacionadas con la delincuencia organizada, mientras que la tercera pertenece al ámbito del terrorismo. Por "entidades colectivas" se entenderá aquí una asociación de personas o entidades que colaboran en la planificación y comisión de actos terroristas u operaciones complejas de tráfico de personas, armamento o droga. La noción de colectividad —en su vertiente no delictiva— ya se encuentra en la Ontología Nuclear de FunGramKB bajo la categoría +COLLECTION_00, que incluye conceptos básicos y terminales[1] como +CATTLE_00, +FLOCK_00 o +FLORA_00. Entre los conceptos que se agrupan bajo el agente criminal colectivo se encuentran entidades como +CARTEL_00, +MAFIA_00, +ORIENTED_CLUSTER_00, +GANG_00, +GUERRILLA_00, +CELL_00 y +DEATH_SQUAD.

3.1. Elaboración de un modelo conceptual de cartel

Cartel (en español, "cartel" o "cártel") es un término que, a los efectos del presente artículo, se aplica a una organización ilícita dedicada a la producción y comercialización de sustancias estupefacientes ilegales, y cuya área de acción se centra principalmente en Méjico y Colombia (McCarthy 2011). La actividad de los cárteles, encabezada por los capos de la droga, se ha venido desarrollando y diversificando durante décadas, de ahí que resulte complejo determinar con precisión lo que constituye un cártel (McCarthy 2011). Esta complejidad conceptual es relevante para el contenido de la ontología. Para ilustrar el análisis conceptual, esta sección se basa en la definición propuesta por el NDIC (*National Drug Intelligence Center*), que incluye información sobre los objetivos y la estructura de este tipo de organización al tiempo que solventa la diversificación que se acaba de mencionar[2]:

> Drug cartels are large, highly sophisticated organizations composed of multiple DTOs [Drug Trafficking Organisations] and cells with specific assignments such as drug transportation, security/enforcement, or money laundering. Drug cartel command-and-control structures are based outside the United States; however, they produce, transport, and distribute illicit drugs domestically with the assistance of DTOs that are either a part of or in an alliance with the cartel. (NDTA 2010: 8)

Para la versión en COREL de una unidad léxica, es necesario, en primer lugar, identificar las proposiciones de significado más relevantes de la descripción en lenguaje natural para, en segundo lugar, proceder a su conceptualización. En este caso, la unidad "cártel" está asociada al concepto +CARTEL_00. Abajo se

muestran las proposiciones en lenguaje natural y a continuación su correspondiente enunciado COREL:

1. *A cartel is a large (criminal) organisation.*

    +(e1: +BE_00 (x1: +CARTEL_00)Theme (x2: +ORGANIZATION_00)Referent)

    *(e2: +BE_01 (x1)Theme (x3: +BIG_00)Attribute)

    *(e3: +DO_00 (x1)Theme (x4: +CRIME_00)Referent)

2. *A cartel is composed of multiple groups.*

    *(e4: +COMPRISE_00 (x1)Theme (x5: i +GROUP_00)Referent)

3. *A cartel produces, transports and distribute illicit drugs.*

    *(e5: +CREATE_00 (x1)Theme (x6: +DRUG_00)Referent) (f1: +SALE_00) Purpose)

    *(e6: +TAKE_01 (x1)Agent (x6)Theme (x7)Location (x8)Origin (x9)Goal)

    *(e7: +SELL_00 (x1)Agent (x6)Theme (x1)Origin (x10)Goal)

Tal y como muestra esta definición, el desarrollo semántico-conceptual se compone de varias proposiciones identificadas mediante la letra *e*. Cada proposición está encabezada por un evento principal, por ejemplo +BE_00 ("ser") o +COMPRISE_00 ("contener"), que a su vez está conectado a otros conceptos que denotan entidades, como por ejemplo +ORGANIZATION_00 ("organización"), o cualidades como +BIG_00 ("grande"). Tanto las entidades como las cualidades constituyen los participantes necesarios u opcionales del núcleo eventual. La primera proposición, que es irrebatible (indicada por el signo "+"), tiene como función explicitar taxonómicamente el concepto que el hiperordinario inmediato define. El resto de proposiciones son rebatibles, es decir, pueden considerarse verdaderas o falsas dependiendo del contexto, o dicho de otro modo, podrían no cumplirse en caso de aparecer nuevas proposiciones que nieguen o contradigan el significado de las precedentes.

No existe una única conceptualización para una unidad ontológica concreta, sino que la apariencia final de una definición dependerá del grado de precisión semántica que el ingeniero de conocimiento requiera para lograr un objetivo de procesamiento específico. Por tanto, los enunciados en COREL se ajustarán siempre al significado original de una unidad pero, al mismo tiempo, podrán matizarla o ser más generales que ésta. Por ejemplo, mientras que la descripción en lenguaje natural arriba indicada establece que las organizaciones que trafican con drogas (*Drug Trafficking Organisations*) y que forman parte del cártel pueden realizar labores especializadas dentro de la organización, la definición COREL establece que la producción, distribución y venta de drogas son propias del cártel de forma general y no de un subgrupo dentro de la organización. Otro ejemplo, aunque a la inversa,

es que el NDIC no explicita, por tratarse de información obvia dentro de este contexto, que un cártel es una organización ilegal, mientras que en el caso de CO-REL este dato sí que aparece explícitamente en la segunda proposición (e2).

Las proposiciones de +CARTEL_00 que se acaban de mostrar, así como las incluidas en los dos apartados siguientes, permiten a la base de conocimiento saber, de manera genérica, lo que constituye una entidad ilegal colectiva. Una segunda fase de implementación consistiría en añadir un rango mayor de especificidad conceptual que le permita a una herramienta de prevención de riesgos detectar movimientos para cometer delitos o formar grupos violentos en lugares de potencial actividad delictiva. El procesamiento lingüístico de los focos de riesgo debe integrar los enunciados lógicos que aquí se proponen para la Ontología Nuclear, con la información contenida en el Cognicón y el Onomasticón, ya que el primero está concebido para incluir tipificaciones de entidades delictivas concretas, mientras que el segundo permite recopilar los datos relacionados con los lugares, las fechas o los integrantes de las bandas armadas. La conexión entre los tres módulos, en lo que se refiere a materia terrorista y delictiva, es un aspecto complejo que está fuera del alcance de este artículo, centrado en la Ontología.

3.2. Elaboración de un modelo conceptual de oriented cluster

El término *cluster* ("clúster"), aplicado al ámbito de la delincuencia organizada, tiene su origen en un documento de las Naciones Unidas sobre la delincuencia organizada (UNODC, 2002). En este aparecen por primera vez las expresiones *clustered hierarchy* y *cluster of criminal groups* ("jerarquía agrupada" y "asociación de grupos delictivos", respectivamente) para denotar un conglomerado de colectivos que colaboran puntualmente para lograr un objetivo delictivo común. El término, a su vez, forma parte de una tipología de grupos organizados junto a *standard hierarchy* ("jerarquía estándar"), *regional hierarchy* ("jerarquía local") y *core group* ("grupo nuclear"), tipología que todavía sigue proporcionando una base definitoria a un gran número de estudios sobre redes de narcotráfico y criminología (Klerks 2007; Tupman 2009; Dean et al. 2010). Posteriormente, y basándose en la definición de la UNODC (Oficina de las Naciones Unidas contra la Droga y el Delito), la EUROPOL, organismo policial europeo especializado en antiterrorismo y delincuencia organizada (https://www.europol.europa.eu), establece los rasgos principales de este tipo de agente colectivo al que incorpora el adjetivo *oriented*:

> Single criminal groups with common objectives no longer operate in isolation and this creates a powerful convergence of criminal intentions and resources. Strategic direction for their activities can be determined by policies decided by the leaders of the most dominant criminal group or by regular meetings of the most influential

representatives of the individual groups. The presence of such "oriented clusters" that are led or, at least, coordinated by a common centre of influence is assessed as a major threat. These clusters may combine the strengths of both hierarchies and networks so that very high levels of effectiveness, diversification and specialisation can be achieved. (OCTA 2007: 9)

La elaboración de un modelo conceptual de "grupo con fines propios" que se presenta a continuación está basada en la propuesta de la EUROPOL, al tratarse esta de una definición que sintetiza las principales características del término. Al igual que en el caso de 'cártel', abajo se muestran los enunciados en lenguaje natural de +ORIENTED_CLUSTER_00 junto con su conceptualización COREL:

1. *An oriented cluster is a criminal organisation.*

   +(e1: +BE_00 (x1: +ORIENTED_CLUSTER_00)Theme (x2: +ORGANIZA-TION_00)Referent)

   *(e2: +DO_00 (x1)Theme (x3: +CRIME_00)Referent)

2. *An oriented cluster has a common coordinator.*

   *(e3: +HAVE_00 (x1)Theme (x4: +LEADER_00)Referent)

3. *An oriented cluster is made up of independent criminal groups. Each member organisation has its own leader.*

   *((e4: +COMPRISE_00 (x1)Theme (x5: i +GROUP_00)Referent) (e5: +BE_01 (x5)Theme (x6: +INDEPENDENT_00)Attribute) (e6: +HAVE_00 (x5)Theme (x7: l +LEADER_00)Referent))

La principal diferencia entre un cártel y un grupo con fines propios consiste en que, si bien ambas entidades se componen de varias organizaciones subordinadas, la relación organizativa que hay entre ellas es muy distinta: en la primera existe una estructura jerárquica con un líder, mientras que en la segunda, al tratarse de grupos originalmente independientes, coexisten varios líderes y un coordinador, este último es el encargado de gestionar el clúster en su conjunto. Esta diferencia constituye un aspecto distintivo del postulado de significado de +ORIENTED_CLUS-TER_00 y, para especificarlo mediante COREL, se han utilizado dos predicaciones; en concreto, la segunda proposición diferencia al coordinador de los líderes independientes especificados en la tercera proposición.

2.3. Elaboración de un modelo conceptual de cell

Antes de abordar la conceptualización de *cell* ("célula") es necesario hacer varias aclaraciones respecto al uso y significado de este término. La palabra "célula", referida a la delincuencia, es una transferencia metafórica desde el dominio de la

biología al dominio judicial. Mientras que en el primer dominio el término se refiere a una forma básica de vida, en el segundo el elemento denotado es una agrupación de personas que persiguen objetivos relacionados principalmente con el terrorismo. El proceso metafórico se mantiene a un nivel sintagmático, en el que ambos dominios comparten colocaciones con *cell*, como por ejemplo *formation of the cell* ("formación de la célula") (UNODC 2010: 31) o *nucleus of the cell* ("núcleo de la célula") (UNODC 2010: 32). Por otro lado, el término también participa en algunas formaciones que son específicas del ámbito delincuencial, como *sleeper cell* ("célula durmiente") (UNODC 2012: 114) o *hybrid cell* ("célula híbrida") (Hreckovski y Dobson 2012: 338). Finalmente, hay que subrayar que, si bien "célula" se aplica preferentemente a grupos terroristas, no es infrecuente que se use para referirse a grupos ilegales no terroristas, como se observa por ejemplo en *cell-like criminal groups* ("grupos delincuentes de tipo celular"), *cell-like structure* ("estructuras [delictivas] de tipo celular") (UNODC 2010: 117). En este artículo, una célula terrorista se considerará un hipónimo de la colocación más general *terrorist group* ("grupo terrorista") (UNODC 2010: 15) o *terrorist organisation* ("organización terrorista") (UNODC 2010: 14) y, por tanto, las definiciones que se analizan en esta sección están referidas en exclusiva a este sentido original de célula como grupo terrorista.

En cuanto su definición, Hreckovski y Dobson (2012: 338) proponen la siguiente descripción de una célula prototípica:

> Terrorist acts can be performed by individuals, organized groups, or a state. The main type of terrorist organization is a secretive cell that consists of members who are highly motivated to perform dangerous and deadly operations. Usually, a terrorist cell consists of two to five members with their own logistics. Each terrorist cell does not have information about the others, which is the main reason why it is hard to penetrate the whole organization. The commander of the cell is the only person who communicates and coordinates with higher levels and other cells. Another fact is that, by using technical tools like the Internet, they do not have to know each other or train together. Terrorist organizations may form only one cell to operate on a tactical level, or they may form many cells that operate locally or internationally. (Hreckovski y Dobson 2012: 338)

A continuación se muestra la traducción en COREL de los rasgos más importantes de la descripción anterior:

1. *A cell is an independent group inside a terrorist organisation*.

    +(e1: +BE_00 (x1: +CELL_00)Theme (x2: +ORGANIZATION_00)Referent)

    *(e2: +KILL_00 (x1)Theme (x3: m +PEOPLE_00)Referent)

2. *A cell is clandestine.*

   *(e3: +HIDE_00 (x1)Theme (x1)Referent (f1: (e4: +BE_01 (x1)Theme (x4: +SECRET_00)Attribute))Purpose)

3. *A cell consists of two to five members.*

   *(e4: +COMPRISE_00 (x1)Theme (x5: 1^2^3^4^5 +MEMBER_01)Referent)

4. *A cell resists penetration.*

   *(e5: +ENTER_00 (x6: +HUMAN_00)Agent (x2)Theme (x7)Location (x8) Origin (x1)Goal (x9: +DIFFICULT_00)Manner)

Hreckovski y Dobson aportan rasgos sobre cómo percibe la sociedad una célula terrorista, es decir, un grupo armado secreto (*secretive*), motivado (*motivated*) y que a menudo utiliza el ciberespacio para comunicarse (*using technical tools like the Internet*). Sin embargo, estos rasgos resultan secundarios desde el punto de vista de su diferenciación como entidad, ya que pueden ser compartidos por muchos otros tipos de organizaciones ilícitas; de ahí que no se incluyan en la descripción conceptual de +CELL_00. Los mismos autores, por otro lado, sugieren otras características que sí permiten distinguir las células como entidades independientes. En concreto, la característica principal de la célula es la comisión de atentados en sí misma, es decir, mientras que la violencia para los cárteles y las organizaciones de corte mafioso es un instrumento con el que ejecutar o extorsionar a sus enemigos o a los miembros acusados de revelar secretos, para las células terroristas es un fin táctico en sí mismo. Tanto los cárteles y las organizaciones de corte mafioso como las células recurren al blanqueo de capitales y al tráfico de drogas para financiarse, pero en tanto que los cárteles tienen como objetivo el enriquecimiento, las células lo utilizan para perseguir objetivos políticos y/o religiosos. Finalmente, existe una proposición en +CELL_00 sobre el número concreto de miembros que conforman comúnmente la célula y que, si bien refleja el número exacto de la definición en lenguaje natural, es también una proposición rebatible y, por tanto, flexible.

4. Conclusiones

El artículo ha presentado un caso práctico de colaboración entre el análisis lingüístico y la ingeniería del conocimiento para el procesamiento computacional del lenguaje natural. En concreto, se ha descrito la elaboración de un modelo conceptual de unidades provenientes de los dominios del terrorismo y de la delincuencia organizada a partir de un lenguaje artificial de creación ontológica. Para ello, se ha propuesto una descripción de las entidades colectivas "cártel", "grupo con fines propios" y "célula", que hacen referencia a los tipos de asociaciones ilegales que

son responsables de la mayor parte de los actos delictivos y de terrorismo ocurridos a nivel internacional. Estas entidades forman parte de una ontología especializada de FunGramKB, una base de conocimiento cuyo propósito es servir como plataforma para el desarrollo de aplicaciones relacionadas con el procesamiento del lenguaje y el razonamiento artificial. Las dos principales aportaciones del presente artículo son: definir ontológicamente las unidades criminológicas seleccionadas, y explorar la conexión, a través de los enunciados lógicos de la base de conocimiento, entre el conocimiento especializado y el conocimiento de sentido común presente en la Ontología Nuclear de FunGramKB. Tal y como se ha sugerido, el contenido semántico de los términos constituye el inicio del aparato conceptual que, en posteriores desarrollos, permitiría, por un lado, mejorar el proceso de recuperación de información en escenarios de riesgo y, por otro, prevenir la delincuencia y el terrorismo.

Notas

[1] La Ontología incluye tres tipos de unidades: metaconceptos, conceptos básicos y conceptos terminales. Los metaconceptos son elementos de jerarquización general y se expresan mediante el símbolo "#" (por ejemplo, #OBJECT representa el concepto genérico "objeto"). Los conceptos básicos constituyen el segundo nivel —semánticamente más específico— dentro de la Ontología. Se expresan mediante el símbolo "+" (por ejemplo, +HOUSE_00, que denota la entidad "casa"). Finalmente, los conceptos terminales son las unidades de mayor concreción semántica y conforman el nivel más básico de la estructura ontológica, ya que no pueden dividirse en unidades conceptuales menores. Se expresan mediante el signo "$" (por ejemplo, $DICTIO-NARY_00, que se refiere a la entidad "diccionario"). El índice numérico que aparece en los conceptos básicos y terminales permite distinguir entre varios sentidos en casos de polisemia y homonimia (por ejemplo, +FISH_00 denota "pez", mientras que +FISH_01 denota "pescar") (Periñán-Pascual & Mairal-Usón 2010).

[2] NDIC: National Drug Intelligence Center. http://www.justice.gov/archive/ndic. Este organismo, dependiente del Ministerio de Justicia estadounidense, cesó su actividad en junio de 2012. A pesar de ello, su descripción de cártel sigue siendo válida para el propósito de este artículo, de ahí que se proponga como base conceptual.

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Reviews

LA PRESENCIA DEL INGLÉS
EN LA PUBLICIDAD TELEVISIVA ESPAÑOLA (2013-2015)

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La comunidad académica no es ajena a la creciente presencia en las últimas décadas de la cultura anglosajona en la sociedad española. La influencia anglonorteamericana ha provocado la aparición de numerosos estudios que han abordado su reflejo en el plano de la lengua, concretamente en su materialización léxica en forma de anglicismos. Así, diferentes trabajos han analizado el anglicismo en los ámbitos más dispares de la vida diaria, por ejemplo, en la publicidad infantil (Luján-García 2011), el deporte (Rodríguez González 2012) o la informática (Pano 2007). Incluso la comunicación jergal se ve salpicada de voces anglicadas, como es el caso del argot sexual (Rodríguez González 2008; Crespo-Fernández y Luján-García 2013) y el de la drogadicción (Rodríguez González 1994). El ámbito de investigación de las lenguas en contacto no se limita, por supuesto, a la influencia del inglés en el español, sino que se ha extendido a distintas lenguas europeas, como reflejan los trabajos editados por Görlach (2002) y Furiasi et al. (2012a). En la actualidad, el peso del inglés en el mundo es tal que ha reemplazado a lo que en su día fue el latín como lengua del imperio, una suerte de *lengua franca* (Jenkins 2007; Mauranen y Ranta 2009), un lenguaje universal que posibilita la comunicación entre personas de distintos países.

En esta línea de investigación se sitúa el libro que reseño aquí. *La presencia del inglés en la publicidad televisiva española (2013-2015)* analiza el uso de los anglicismos en una compilación de anuncios televisivos emitidos en cuatro cadenas privadas de televisión (Antena 3, Telecinco, La Sexta y Disney Channel) entre 2013 y 2015. La abundancia de estudios sobre anglicismos a los que he hecho referencia en el párrafo anterior no resta un ápice de oportunidad al volumen escrito por García, González, Luján y Rodríguez. Se trata del primer estudio dedicado íntegramente al anglicismo en el ámbito de la publicidad televisiva en España. Este es el mérito que cabe destacar en primer lugar: el acierto a la hora de escoger un tema novedoso dentro de una línea de investigación ampliamente abordada por la comunidad académica en distintas áreas temáticas. De hecho, como señalan las propias autoras, la mayoría de los trabajos publicados en el ámbito de los anglicismos se basan en corpus extraídos de la publicidad escrita "dejando de lado la oral o televisiva, que probablemente tiene una incidencia mayor en la sociedad española" (16). Esta opción no supone, sin embargo, ningún tipo de limitación a la hora de abordar el fenómeno del anglicismo, pues la publicidad televisiva engloba una considerable variedad de enfoques y temas. A esta realidad no es ajeno, por supuesto, el trabajo que aquí reseño, pues las autoras examinan las unidades anglicadas que han observado en los anuncios televisivos en un total de seis campos temáticos, desde la telefonía móvil a los productos destinados a la infancia. De este modo, manteniendo la homogeneidad que proporciona una fuente de anglicismos concreta, se ofrece una visión amplia del papel de los anglicismos en el heterogéneo campo de la publicidad televisiva.

Este volumen presenta una organización estructural impecable, con un desarrollo lógico de las partes y de los contenidos, muy acorde con los cánones de un trabajo de investigación académica. Después de un interesante y enriquecedor prólogo escrito por uno de los máximos especialistas en la materia como lo es Félix Rodríguez, la obra se divide en cuatro partes: introducción, marco teórico, descripción del proyecto y conclusiones. El libro se cierra con un anexo, que presenta la ficha bibliográfica utilizada para recoger el corpus, una relación de cuadros y figuras y, finalmente, un listado de referencias bibliográficas.

La introducción se divide en cinco secciones: en la primera se presenta la justificación del trabajo; en la segunda se marcan los objetivos; en la tercera se da cuenta de los antecedentes en la línea de investigación de los estudios sobre anglicismos en la publicidad; en la cuarta se caracteriza la publicidad televisiva en España y la influencia del inglés en este ámbito; y en la quinta se explican los motivos de la alta frecuencia con la que aparecen anglicismos en los anuncios televisivos en nuestro país.

El marco teórico delimita el concepto del anglicismo y ofrece una tipología del mismo que sirve como base para el análisis. Este apartado ofrece una visión de

conjunto del anglicismo que engloba distintos aspectos que se derivan del comple-
jo fenómeno del préstamo lingüístico y que son necesarios para entender el angli-
cismo dentro de la tradición en los estudios de lingüística y más concretamente de
lenguas en contacto. Entre otros aspectos, se explican los conceptos de lexía y
préstamo y se repasan las metodologías y escuelas teóricas que han abordado el
préstamo lingüístico así como las investigaciones referidas al anglicismo en lengua
española a lo largo del siglo XX. En esta parte se presenta también la taxonomía del
anglicismo utilizada en el trabajo. Las autoras optan por la categorización de uni-
dades anglicadas que desarrolló inicialmente Emilio Lorenzo (1996), taxonomía
generalmente considerada como una de las clasificaciones más exhaustivas del an-
glicismo. De acuerdo con esta tipificación, las autoras distinguen entre anglicismos
crudos, anglicismos totalmente asimilados y siglas correspondientes a la sintaxis
inglesa, además de anglicismos de medida y sintácticos. A la taxonomía de Loren-
zo, las autoras añaden dos categorías más: pseudoanglicismos y anglicismos cultu-
rales.

La sección titulada "Descripción del proyecto", la más extensa del libro, se divide,
a su vez, en tres bloques: hipótesis del trabajo; metodología y presentación del
corpus, y análisis de los resultados, que constituye la parte nuclear del volumen.
Los resultados se desglosan en seis grandes apartados correspondientes a las áreas
temáticas de incidencia de los anglicismos en el corpus consultado: (1) publicidad
destinada a promocionar la telefonía móvil, Internet y TIC; (2) la cultura y el ocio;
(3) los productos de higiene, cosmética y moda; (4) la alimentación; (5) los pro-
ductos para el hogar y la familia; y (6) dirigida al público infantil.

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En la cuarta sección se presentan las conclusiones del análisis divididas en tres
apartados: observaciones generales; observaciones específicas por campos temáti-
cos, y confirmación de las hipótesis inicialmente planteadas.

Este volumen cuenta con muchas virtudes. Destacaría, en primer lugar, el acierto
en la elección de un tema novedoso dentro de una línea de investigación amplia-
mente desarrollada, tal como indiqué anteriormente. Por otra parte, cabe también
alabar el afán de las autoras por ofrecer un tratamiento lo más completo posible del
complejo fenómeno del anglicismo en la lengua española, para lo que optan acer-
tadamente por una concepción amplia del fenómeno del préstamo lingüístico que,
lejos de limitarse al estudio de las lexías de origen inglés en nuestra lengua como
étimo último, incluye la huella del inglés en aquellas voces que tienen el inglés
como étimo inmediato. También considero necesario subrayar la organización es-
tructural del trabajo, que me atrevería a calificar de impecable dentro de la más
pura ortodoxia académica: la contextualización del fenómeno del anglicismo, la
formulación de objetivos e hipótesis, la presentación de los marcos teóricos, el
corpus de trabajo y la metodología seguida, así como la presentación de los resul-

tados y las conclusiones responden sobradamente a las expectativas de un trabajo académico de garantías. Las conclusiones resultan, en líneas generales, satisfactorias y, como el resto del trabajo, están muy bien planteadas. El libro, además, está muy bien escrito: claro, conciso y en un lenguaje que llega a todo tipo de lectores.

Si bien mi opinión sobre el libro es francamente positiva, como puede deducirse de lo arriba expuesto, considero asimismo pertinente mencionar algunos aspectos que no me parecen tan completos. Por una parte, creo que las funciones pragmáticas del anglicismo deberían haber tenido un mayor peso, especialmente dentro del apartado de las conclusiones. Sin duda, se trata de un aspecto fundamental dentro del análisis del anglicismo, máxime teniendo en cuenta que el lenguaje publicitario está orientado a determinados fines y el anglicismo coadyuva decisivamente en la persuasión propia de los anuncios televisivos. Evidentemente, dependiendo del área temática concreta, el valor persuasivo que ejerce el anglicismo se manifiesta de distinto modo. Habría sido de interés sintetizar este aspecto en las conclusiones obtenidas, pues su importancia dentro del estudio presentado así lo merece. Siguiendo con las funciones pragmáticas del anglicismo, habría merecido la pena detenerse en un aspecto del anglicismo que se omite en este trabajo: el valor axiológico del préstamo lingüístico. Esta dimensión del anglicismo, desarrollada por Crespo-Fernández y Luján-García (2013), explora la relación del eufemismo con el tabú y, por tanto, el modo en que el anglicismo proyecta una función eufemística o disfemística en el discurso. Me atrevería a afirmar que los anuncios de compresas y tampones, lencería o cremas antiarrugas, por su íntima relación con áreas sujetas a interdicción, son caldo de cultivo para la aparición de anglicismos con valor eufemístico. Desgraciadamente, el lector no puede llegar a conocer hasta qué punto algunos de los anglicismos crudos que las autoras incluyen en el análisis como *secret*, *lust*, *sexy* o *wild*, incluso *red* por las connotaciones sexuales de este término de color, pueden desempeñar una función eufemística en el contexto del anuncio. No olvidemos que el tabú por antonomasia, el del sexo, forma parte de ese mundo hedonista y de seducción del que habla Ferraz Martínez, utilizado en la publicidad: "Los argumentos del placer, las sensaciones y el erotismo se explotan mucho en anuncios de colonias […] cuya posesión se presenta como una comunión sensual" (2004: 48). Por otra parte, aunque considero que la opción por la taxonomía de anglicismos de Lorenzo que las autoras adoptan para el estudio es válida para los fines que plantean, máxime teniendo en cuenta que la amplían con nuevas categorías, tal vez habría sido conveniente partir de una tipología más reciente y globalizadora como la que proponen Furiasi et al. (2012b), autores que distinguen entre anglicismos puros, adaptados, híbridos, calcos y pseudoanglicismos.

En definitiva, estamos ante un libro de gran valía entre los dedicados al complejo fenómeno del anglicismo y en general a la investigación sobre lenguas en contacto.

Este volumen viene a llenar un hueco en el profuso estudio del anglicismo al abordar la presencia de las unidades anglicadas en la publicidad televisiva. Considero que el volumen aquí reseñado es de obligada lectura para quienes se dedican a la investigación sobre el anglicismo y las ciencias de la información y, dado su carácter interdisciplinar y su amena lectura, puede resultar muy atractivo para el público en general.

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Abstracts

DYSARTHRIA AND TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A CASE STUDY

Mari Carmen Campoy Cubillo

In this article we are concerned with the design of diagnostic assessment tools of spoken English as a Foreign Language (EFL) for students with dysarthria. To this end, a higher education student with dysarthria participated in our case study. Tests in the student's mother tongue (Spanish) and in English were devised and their results analyzed in order to (1) discuss types of assessment tools that teachers may use to facilitate the student's self-assessment in EFL (2) promote an enhancement of the student's achievements and (3) foster the design of a joint (student/ teacher) implementation plan during the learning process.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language, speech disorder, dysarthria, assessment, speaking skills.

Resumen: En este artículo nos centramos en cuestiones relacionadas con el diseño de herramientas de evaluación diagnóstica de las destrezas orales en inglés como lengua extranjera (ILE) para estudiantes con disartria. Con este fin, una estudiante con disartria participó en nuestro estudio. Se desarrollaron test en su lengua materna (español) y en inglés y se analizaron los resultados con el objetivo de (1) presentar distintos tipos de herramientas de evaluación que los profesores pueden utilizar para facilitar la autoevaluación de los estudiantes en ILE, (2) promover la mejora de los logros de los estudiantes con disartria y (3) fomentar el diseño de un plan de implementación conjunta (estudiante / profesor) durante el proceso de aprendizaje.

Palabras clave: Inglés como Lengua Extranjera, trastorno del habla, disartria, evaluación, destrezas orales.

CULTURAL VALUES AND IMPOLITE BEHAVIOUR. THE CASE OF SPANIARDS AND NORTH-AMERICANS

Francisco Miguel Ivorra Pérez

This paper explores the influence of the individualism index (Hofstede 1991) of Spaniards and North-Americans on verbal impoliteness behaviour following Kaul de Marlangeon's (2008) taxonomy of impolite acts. The level of social distance and affect between the interlocutors are considered as potential factors impacting on the use of impoliteness types and strategies. The corpus consists of scripts from a small sample of six movies (three from Spain and three from the US) and we follow an observational and a quantitative analysis. The findings reveal remarkable statistical differences as a result of the impact of cultural values on the verbal impoliteness behaviour of speakers from each country.

Keywords: Culture; individualism; impoliteness; Peninsular Spanish; American English

Resumen: En este trabajo exploramos la influencia del índice de individualismo de españoles peninsulares y norteamericanos (Hofstede 1991) en el comportamiento verbal descortés siguiendo la taxonomía de actos descorteses establecida por Kaul de Marlangeon (2008). El grado de distancia social y afecto existente entre los interlocutores se consideran posibles factores que influyen en el uso de distintos tipos y estrategias de descortesía lingüística. El corpus se compone de guiones procedentes de una muestra reducida de seis películas (tres de España y tres de Estados Unidos) y el análisis que seguimos es observacional y cuantitativo. Los resultados arrojan diferencias estadísticas notables como resultado del impacto de los valores culturales en el comportamiento verbal descortés de los hablantes de cada nacionalidad.

Palabras clave: Cultura; individualismo; descortesía; español peninsular; inglés americano

OPTIMIZATION OF TIME IN CLASSROOM LISTENING COMPREHENSION ACTIVITIES

María Jesús Sánchez
Alfredo Fernández-Sánchez

The purpose of this research was to verify the appropriate number of times (1, 2 or 3) that EFL students (B2.1 level) should listen to oral texts for an appropriate

comprehension. In addition, we sought to find whether listening comprehension is affected by the type of exercise that participants are asked to respond to: whether a multiple-choice or fill-in-the-blanks option. The research was done with a Pretest/Posttest design and 51 participants. Intra-group comparisons confirmed that there is no significant difference at this level, indicating an equal performance regardless of the treatment (once, twice, or 3 times). This study makes a practical contribution to the teaching field since it establishes the number of times that students at this level should listen to the oral text (once). It was also found that multiple choice option exercises may be more suitable for an assessment of comprehension, an idea that is consistent with the literature which points to recognition exercises (multiple-choice) as being easier than those in which retrieval is involved (fill-in-the-blanks).

Keywords: oral comprehension, listening, multiple choice option, fill-in-the-blanks, EFL.

Resumen: El propósito de esta investigación es comprobar el número de veces (1, 2, 3) que los estudiantes de inglés como lengua extranjera (un nivel B2.1) deben escuchar los textos orales para una adecuada comprensión. También se desea comprobar si la comprensión oral se ve afectada por el tipo de ejercicio: de opción múltiple/de completar. La investigación se llevó a cabo con un diseño antes y después de la prueba (Pretest/Posttest) e intervinieron 51 participantes. Las comparaciones entre los miembros del grupo confirmaron que no hay diferencia significativa en este nivel, lo que indica una ejecución similar de las tareas independientemente del tratamiento (1, 2, 3 veces). La investigación supone una contribución en el campo de la docencia ya que establece el número de veces que estos estudiantes deben de escuchar los textos orales (1 vez). Se concluye que los ejercicios de opción múltiple son más adecuados para valorar la comprensión auditiva de los estudiantes. Conclusión que está en consonancia con la literatura que señala a los ejercicios relacionados con el reconocimiento (opción múltiple) como más fáciles de realizar que aquellos que tienen que ver con la recuperación (completar).

Palabras clave: comprensión oral, audición, opción múltiple, ejercicios de completar, inglés como lengua extranjera

ON THE FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE OF COGNATE OBJECT CONSTRUCTIONS IN PRESENT-DAY BRITISH ENGLISH. A PRELIMINARY CORPUS-BASED ANALYSIS

Beatriz Rodríguez Arrizabalaga

Despite having always being a central subject-matter in linguistics due to their controversial syntactico-semantic and pragmatic status, the pragmatic dimension

of English cognate object constructions of the type *He died a gruesome death* and *She smiled an enigmatic smile* has almost gone unnoticed in the literature. For this reason, and with the intention of shedding some light on the real frequency of occurrence of cognate object constructions in present-day British English, the present paper reports on a preliminary, but thorough and exhaustive, corpus-based analysis in the British National Corpus of the four verbal classes that, according to Levin (1993), seem to be potentially compatible with cognate objects: namely, (i) verbs of nonverbal expression; (ii)manner of speaking verbs; (iii) waltz verbs; (iv) and a fourth class which, including the semantically diverse verbs *dream, fight, live, sing, sleep* and *think,* describe recurrent processes and activities in the behaviour of human beings. I will prove, first, that cognate object constructions are not as recurrent in contemporary British English as could be expected a priori and, second, I will account for the main reasons underlying their scarce production.

Keywords: cognate object, unergative verb, unnacusative verb, light verb.

Resumen: Pese a haber ocupado siempre un lugar destacado dentro del campo de la investigación lingüística debido a su controvertido comportamiento sintáctico-semántico y pragmático, la dimensión pragmática de las estructuras inglesas de objeto cognado del tipo de *He died a gruesome death* y *She smiled an enigmatic smile* ha pasado prácticamente desapercibida en la literatura. Por ello, y con la intención de arrojar algo de luz sobre la frecuencia de uso real de las construcciones de objeto cognado en inglés contemporáneo, este trabajo presenta un análisis de corpus preliminar, pero exhaustivo y meticuloso, de las cuatro clases verbales que, según Levin (1993), parecen ser potencialmente compatibles con un objeto cognado en el Corpus Nacional Británico: a saber, (i) los verbos de expresión no verbal; (ii) los verbos que indican una forma concreta de hablar; (iii) los verbos waltz de movimiento; (iv) y un cuarto grupo que, pese a incluir verbos pertenecientes a clases semánticas diferentes (i.e. *dream, fight, live, sing, sleep* y *think*), describe procesos y actividades comunes en el comportamiento diario de los seres humanos. Mi objetivo será demostrar, en primer lugar, que las estructuras de objeto cognado se encuentran muy restringidas en inglés británico contemporáneo para proceder posteriormente a exponer las razones fundamentales que explican el por qué de su escaso uso.

Palabras clave: Objeto cognado, verbo inergativo, verbo inacusativo, verbo ligero/soporte.

LA LUCHA CONTRA EL TERRORISMO Y LA DELINCUENCIA ORGANIZADA: UNA VISIÓN DESDE LA LINGÜÍSTICA Y LA INGENIERÍA DEL CONOCIMIENTO

Pedro Ureña Gómez-Moreno

The aim of Natural Language Processing is to create computational systems for the production and comprehension of language by machines. In this regard, symbolic

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approaches to language put forth conceptual models which represent both common and specialised knowledge. This paper describes the ontological modelling of the "collective criminal agent" and its implementation in FunGramKB, a knowledge base for language processing and artificial reasoning. More specifically, the study focuses on the conceptual definition of three terminological units from the domains of terrorism and organised crime: cartel, oriented cluster, and terrorist cell. The main assumption is that ontological modelling applied to language technologies can play a major role in combating a variety of security threats to today's society.

Key words: Natural Language Processing, Knowledge engineering, Ontology, FunGramKB, crime.

Resumen: El objetivo del procesamiento del lenguaje natural es la creación sistemas computacionales de producción y comprensión lingüística. Un aspecto prioritario de este enfoque consiste en elaborar modelos conceptuales que permitan formalizar el conocimiento humano. Este artículo aborda la elaboración de modelos que, conteniendo unidades léxicas propias de los ámbitos del terrorismo y la delincuencia organizada, puedan utilizarse con la base de conocimiento FunGramKB para llevar a cabo tareas de procesamiento lingüístico y de razonamiento artificial. El artículo parte del concepto "agente criminal colectivo" e ilustra la formalización conceptual de las unidades cartel ("cártel"), oriented cluster ("grupo con fines propios") y terrorist cell ("célula terrorista"). La conceptualización de unidades léxicas constituye un paso fundamental hacia el desarrollo de aplicaciones que ofrezcan soluciones a los distintos problemas que se plantean en el ámbito profesional, así como en el conjunto de la sociedad.

Palabras clave: Procesamiento del lenguaje natural, ingeniería del conocimiento, ontología, FunGramKB, delincuencia.

Notes for contributors

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