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Editorial

Hace solo un año, anunciamos con mucho orgullo el lanzamiento de nuestro primer número. Este año, con renovado orgullo y gracias a un trabajo de equipo y la cooperación de muchos, *Bridging Cultures* se complace en presentar esta segunda entrega.

Desde los inicios, el fin ha sido el de publicar contribuciones académicas de investigadores y profesionales del campo de la lengua y de la cultura tanto inglesa y española, relacionados con los aspectos teóricos y prácticos de la enseñanza de la lengua y de la traducción y, de esta manera, generar un espacio de intercambio que pueda enriquecer nuestros conocimientos. Sabemos que el trabajo de investigación demanda muchas horas de dedicación y esfuerzo para luego plasmar, en papel, el fruto de dicha investigación sumado al conocimiento y a la experiencia del autor. En esta generosa tarea, el esfuerzo del profesional converge con su pasión por lo que hace, que se traduce en dejarnos una obra que redunda en un beneficio para la comunidad de este sector del conocimiento. *Bridging Cultures* busca generar un espacio donde autores, investigadores y profesionales del área puedan compartir esta pasión por el conocimiento y enriquecer la profesión.

En esta oportunidad, hemos invitado a autores, investigadores y profesionales de las diferentes diciplinas a enviar contribuciones relativas a la aplicación del español y del inglés para fines específicos. El estudio de la lengua para fines específicos es un área dentro del estudio de la lingüística y la metodología para la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras, e incluye elementos de la lexicología, la terminología, la traducción y el análisis del discurso.

Es así como este número comienza con una mirada crítica basada en las tendencias actuales del consumo en la información y que apunta a la transformación que se advierte en los medios de comunicación debido al advenimiento de la era digital. A su vez, nos exhorta a unirnos a esta transformación a la vez que informa cuáles podrían ser las habilidades de un comunicador ante la revolución digital.

Siguiendo con la temática de la comunicación escrita, nos encontraremos luego con la mirada crítica del proceso de escritura y de cuáles pueden ser los desafíos de este proceso tanto para profesores como para alumnos. Plantea la dependencia excesiva de la L2, aun cuando existe evidencia sólida de que la L1 de los alumnos mejora sus habilidades en el idioma extranjero y explora los efectos de este fenómeno.

Luego es el turno de un planteo sobre multilingualismo en la enseñanza de la lengua y el análisis de si esto se traduce en prácticas docentes o en políticas educativas concretas, especialmente cuando se trata de lenguas originarias como el Quechua o el Aymara.

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A continuación, damos espacio a jóvenes investigadores e incluimos dos contribuciones. La primera aborda cómo se transmite el racismo a través de la prensa y las políticas en Estados Unidos. El objetivo ha sido el de identificar si la descripción de la política ¨stop-and-frisk¨ en la prensa estadounidense es racista sobre la base del análisis crítico del discurso.

La segunda explora algunas de las insuficiencias institucionales del Mercosur y analiza cómo la creación del Parlasur podría iniciar una transición del derecho internacional tradicional al derecho comunitario que mitigaría estas insuficiencias. Asimismo, se examina el impacto de la evolución del Parlamento Europeo en el proceso de integración de la UE, con el objeto de comprender por qué el Parlasur podría ser un factor decisivo para profundizar la integración del Mercosur, sujeto a la voluntad política y a los esfuerzos conjuntos de los Estados Miembros.

Cerramos este número con un artículo de aportes a la situación actual de la disciplina de la traducción, donde la autora relata su experiencia como traductora *freelance* para agencias y el proceso de traducción y coordinación que se lleva a cabo entre todos los que participan de proyectos de traducción para lograr un trabajo de calidad.

Si bien las palabras claves que han motivado este segundo número han sido, entre otras, bilingüismo, lingüística aplicada, enseñanza de inglés como lengua extranjera y traducción, las que han guiado nuestros esfuerzos aunados han sido excelencia, cooperación, contribución, desinterés y pasión por el conocimiento.

Es el deseo de todo el equipo de *Bridging Cultures* que disfruten de esta segunda entrega tanto como lo hemos hecho todos los que contribuimos en ella, agradeciendo especialmente a cada uno de los generosos y desinteresados autores, y que nos reencontremos, luego de un renovado trabajo y esfuerzo, mancomunados por la misma pasión, en nuestro próximo número.

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Coming Out of Extinction:
The Communicators of the 21st Century Gone Digital

Rosario F. Welle[1]

Abstract

Trending data shows readers are consuming digital content over print media. However, not all print-based communicators and journalists are equipped with the required digital video production skills of desktop capturing, editing, and delivery of videos, photography, and digital narrative for building Web site content. To remain employable, they must accept the Digital Age and understand these new skills. They must transition and receive technology training available through community colleges, online channels and tutorials, and the emerging digitally native news nonprofits. Through the gathering, analysis, and synthesis of information from scholarly articles and colleges of the new generation of communicators and journalists, I argue that unless print-based communicators and journalists converge to the Digital Age they will become extinct relics.

Keywords: journalism, print media, digital media, web content, digital skills, mass media, means of communication.

Resumen

Los análisis de tendencias muestran que los lectores están consumiendo más contenido digital que contenido de medios impresos. Sin embargo, no todos los comunicadores y periodistas tradicionales, o de medios de comunicación impresa, poseen las competencias necesarias de video producción digital en autoedición, diseño y publicación de videos, fotografías y narración para crear contenido de sitios web. En consecuencia, para mantener su empleabilidad, deben aceptar la era digital y comprender estas nuevas destrezas. Es vital que hagan la transición y que se capaciten tecnológicamente a través de universidades comunitarias, cursos y seminarios en línea y de los nuevos programas de organizaciones sin fines de lucro de medios nativos digitales. Basándonos en la recopilación, el análisis y el resumen de información obtenida de artículos científicos y de repositorios de datos de universidades con programas orientados a la nueva generación de comunicadores y periodistas, aduciremos que, de no incursionar en la era digital, los comunicadores y periodistas tradicionales pasarán a la extinción.

Palabras claves: periodismo, prensa escrita, medios digitales, contenido web, habilidades digitales, medios masivos, medios de comunicación.

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Contents

1. Introduction

The Future of Print Communicators and Journalists in the Digital Age

In the past there was a clear distinction between the roles of print communicators and journalists, who were responsible for writing print content and video photojournalists, who were film and imagery makers. However, the new media environment, driven by the Digital Age, has caused a shift from print to digital content. This digital shift poses the question as to whether or not digital media will fully overtake print. To this end, the overall topic of this report concerns the immediate and future employability of print-based communicators and journalists in the fast evolving Digital Age.

The Number of Digital Content Consumers is on The Rise

Newsweek announced in October of 2012 that after almost eight decades of providing print content it was going entirely digital in 2013; in 2011, *Bloomberg Businessweek* launched its first all-digital issue. Moreover, data from the Pew Foundation (2009) states while a segment of the United States population remains loyal to traditional print media, the unavoidable reality is only one out of four surveyed readers actually read print editions of newspapers (Bock 2012, p. 601). These 21st century scenarios prove that the "print versus digital" debate is ever more relevant to both currently employed and aspiring professionals in the fields of Communication and Journalism Studies. Nevertheless, a number of traditional communicators and journalists are skeptical of the

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idea that the Digital Age could be the death of print-based content. They believe consumers will continue to demand print editions that are considered more credible and thoroughly researched (Klaassen, 2012). Their assumption is that consumers will continue to demand specialized content only printed magazines and newspapers can provide.

The Other Side of the Argument

Erick Brynjolfsson and Andrew McAfee, director and associate director of the MIT Center of Digital Business, advocate that humans must race with machines, not against them (Brynjolfsson and McAfee, 2012).They also argue technology in multimedia skills must be embraced in all areas of the economy, including communication and journalism, to promote a resurgence of job growth (2012). They state print media is a necessity for the digital convergence. Some argue against this belief, stating the key may not be to embrace the Digital Age, but to imagine a world where print media may outlast digital media. People who imagine digital media disappearing have views that seem almost romantic when data clearly shows the numbers of print readers decreasing as the numbers of digital consumers are on the rise.

The Required 21st Century Skills

Therefore, to remain employable in the 21st century, print-based communication professionals must face the challenge of the Digital Age and demonstrate their ability to adopt the required digital video production skills of desktop capturing, editing, and delivery of videos, photography, and digital narrative—or multimedia skills and digital cross-platform skills. Desktop video production is commonly defined as the capture, editing, and delivery of a moving picture on a video camera; photography is the capture of a still image; and digital narrative is storytelling for a digital broadcast medium for Web site content. These required skills are emerging and redefining the roles of the print-based or traditional communication and journalism professional.

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The Print-Based Communicator

The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics define the traditional communication professional as one who works as a public relations manager or specialist. These professionals are responsible for crafting and maintaining the good image of organizations and customers (U.S. Department of Labor, 2013), and have earned a bachelor's degree in public relations, communication, or journalism. According to the Bureau, print-based communicators, or traditional communicators, are expected to possess fundamental interpersonal and organizational qualities, research and problem-solving abilities, and public speaking and writing skills. The need for a communication professional to be trained for integrating print and digital is an impending reality.

Mary A. Bock, assistant professor of Communication Studies at Kutztown University, stated in 2009 that print advertising for newspapers reportedly dropped 44 percent (2010), which caused some publications to transition to digital. This should be an eye-opener for working and aspiring professionals in the industry: The shift from print to digital can no longer be denied or ignored, despite opinions that print will continue to thrive. Print-based communicators should look for practical training in digital cross-platform skills.

Project Integration with the BACP in Communication Arts

As a major in Communication Arts, it was important to choose a topic for the integrative project that would help me understand the impact the Digital Age is having on the media industry. I wanted to assess if the skills I have acquired in the Bachelor of Arts Completion Program (BACP) in Communication Arts would maintain their relevance beyond the classroom and into the professional world. In the crafting of this project, I drew knowledge from previous courses such as CA 2050 Effective Communication, BACP 3350 Directed Research, BACP 3450 Integrative Project Design, and ST 2100 The Digital Age.

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2. Approach

Knowledge Gathering and Comprehension Process

To reach the fulfillment of the argument that print-based communicators must acquire the required digital video production skills of desktop capturing, editing, and delivery of videos, photography, and digital narrative to remain employable in the Digital Age, I began a process of comprehension. Specifically, one of gathering credible sources to not only understand the communication and journalism industry concerning the perspective of the employer and employee, but also how the industry has been changing and evolving within the last 10 years.

Industry Trends, Patterns, and Discoveries

Through reading several scholarly journals, I began to see a trend of common patterns across communication and news organizations concerning the staff they hire, influenced by the current changes in the communication industry. One common trend is the industry's shift from the large, for-profit news organizations to small private firms, and university-based non-profits. Another trend that emerged was the change in print advertising revenue and the means by which media organizations are funded. The need for interactive digital advertising prompted the industry to produce and deliver digital content. The industry now requires those who are able to work across the emerging digital cross-platforms or have an understanding of the technology. The change in industry requirements has been reflected in the staff news organizations hire and retain.

Another discovery was the shift in news consumer habits from print to Web-based content delivered through e-readers, tablets, and mobile technology—the reason magazines such as *Newsweek* and *Businessweek* transitioned to digital. In addition, social media sites, such as Twitter and Facebook, were evolving as a type of news sources for localized information and the latest content. The emerging media industry demands employees who can use these social media networks, know how to generate content consumed by them, and have an understanding of the digital tools needed to provide interactivity to the readership.

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After synthesizing the knowledge of these trends, I turned to colleges and instructors of the new generation of communicators and journalists for clarification. I learned that not only were college students being trained in the digital media platforms, but also the overall writing styles were evolving. The new environment of the journalism and communication industry was headed towards evident convergence. The communication skills traditionally taught were overlapping with the emerging digital multimedia skillset. The convergence will be needed to provide Web content with concise information and give journalists and communicators an understanding of how the consumer responds to digital news.

Through the evaluation of these trends within the industry, employers, communicators, journalists, and universities, I now look for the counter-arguments. They come from traditionalist print-based supporters who believe print media is alive and well and transitioning to digital may not be needed for future employment. The lack of evidence and the types of arguments used to the support the longevity of print-based content clearly solidified my opinion that print-based employees who fail to transition into the new digital environment will become extinct relics.

3. Project Analysis

1st Sub-argument

Print-based content is threatened by the digital trend; therefore, print-based communicators will need to transition from print to digital content.

Evidence

In her article "Newspaper Journalism and Video: Motion, Sound, and New Narratives," Mary A. Bock, assistant professor of Communication Studies at Kutztown University, corroborates the decline of print-based advertisement with her statement that advertising for newspapers reportedly dropped 44 percent in 2009 (2012, 601). This means the print news industry was losing traditional readers, which explains why news organizations and other areas of publishing are shifting their resources to their Web-based presence.

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Bock's two-year research included observing print-based journalists as they were transitioning to video production. Her findings identified three areas of tension: "frustration and some resistance" in carrying out their main writing duties and creating videos; in the ability of photojournalists to adopt multimedia skills; and in the narrative style chosen by print journalist in writing video stories (608).In the past there was a clear distinction between the roles of print news journalists (responsible for writing print content) and video photojournalists (film and imagery makers); however, the convergence of the two roles on the horizon.

This convergence is evident in other areas of traditional print publishing such as art, art history, and architecture where the resistance against providing content digitally is weakening (Howard 2012). Art history publishers are exploring ways of transitioning from print to digital. Publisher of Yale University Press, Patricia J. Fidler, is growing more optimistic about the technological shift taking place in the field of scholarly art-history publishing. These shifts will allow museums to use Web-based technology, such as image-rich digital publishing software, in the production of online catalogs (2012). This is another example of the urgency for print-based communicators to consider training in digital multimedia skills. Similarly, editor of *Ad Age* magazine Abbey Klaassen, who argues in favor of print content, proposes that print will remain an asset for supporting and promoting digital content (Abbey, 2012). This in turn will require print-based communicators and journalists to learn how to integrate a "print look and feel" (2012) into digital content. To achieve a paper-look on digital publications, professionals will have to use digital cross-platform skills to provide an interactive and dynamic experience for consumers accessing information.

Reasoning

The increasing demand for digital content is forcing print-based communicators and journalists to accept the imminent shift of delivery methods from print to digital.

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Counter-evidence and counter arguments

Some print-based journalists contend that many readers still prefer to receive information through print-based content. This claim suggests that as long as readers demand print versions of magazines and books, digital content will not fully replace print. In such cases, digital cross-platforms skills will not be required for employability of print-based communicators. Journalist Richard B. Stolley predicts in his article "The Power of Truth" that print may diminish to an elite subscriber list, but that books and magazines will not "be displaced or diminish to irrelevance" because of the desire for mankind to search for truth and creativity (Stolley 2010, p. 266). The author suggests that print will not fully disappear in the digital future. Print-based communicators and journalists will then continue to remain employable in the communication, journalism, and publishing industries.

Scholars William Douglas Woody, David B. Daniel, and Crystal A. Baker bring another perspective to the "print versus digital" debate. Findings in their 2010 research, "E-books or Textbooks: Students prefer Textbooks," shows that the current computer-savvy generation of undergraduates still prefers to read and learn in print (Woody, Daniel, and Baker 2010, pp. 946-47). In their research, 91 university students as participated and the results show that undergraduates would rather read charts and captions in print books (2010, p. 947). In general, college students dislike e-books. While they agree that digitization of print content will continue to thrive, they also propose the shift to digital-only content will be a slow process.

The evidence of Bock, Howard, Klaassen, Shepard, Woody, Daniel, and Baker provide credibility to the argument that print is not on its way to disappearance in the near future. From this conclusion it can be inferred that print-based communicators may not have to adopt digital cross-platform skills just yet to remain employable. However, further evidence shows another reality: convergence of print and digital in the communication and journalism industry is taking place at a vertiginous pace. While their respective research helps validate their viewpoint, these scholars do not provide conclusive statistics to *disprove* that communicators who are able to work across multiple platforms will have an advantage over communicators who cannot.

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Warrant

By accepting the shift from print to digital taking place in the communication, journalism, and publishing industries, print-based communicators and journalists will remain in business through exploring and adopting the emerging digital technologies.

2nd Sub-argument

Mass-media organizations will give candidates priority for jobs in communication when they are proficient in the digital video production skills of desktop capturing, editing, and delivery of videos, photography, and digital narrative.

Evidence

Associate professor of communication and journalism John Russial and doctoral candidate Arthur Santana surveyed the newspaper staffs of 210 U.S. newspapers, collecting only 181 responses. In their study, "Specialization Still Favored in Most Newspaper Jobs," they compared survey data from 2009 and 2007 to assess which skills were important for working in traditional newsrooms. Among their findings, in cross-platform environments, video production is a common denominator, as 99 of the top 100 U.S. newspapers included video on their websites in 2009. The convergence of sets of skills, video and audio creation, and editing were found in some measure important to all staff members excluding copy editors. However, an important finding was that the traditional skills of copy editing, reporting, and photography still remain very important in specialization (Russial and Santana 2011, pp. 12-17).Although traditional skills are still sought, the authors themselves consider their findings inconclusive (2011, p. 20). It is relevant to point out that their data *does* reveal the emerging trend that newsrooms will prefer multi-skilled journalists able to handle media convergence trends of the 21st century.

Similarly, associate professors of communication Tim Brown and Steven Collins shared the results of their 2008 national survey of newspapers and television news providers in

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the article "What 'They' Want From 'Us': Industry Expectations of Journalism Graduates." With their research, they attempted to understand the skills the media industry seeks in communication graduates. Responses from 149 newspapers and 61 television stations show that broadcasting organizations place more value on candidates with skills in video recording and editing, and who understand multimedia narrative (Brown and Collins 2010, p. 74). Top skills for newspaper organizations were digital photography, multimedia narrative comprehension, differentiating between writing print-based and Web-based content, and video recording. When seeking candidates for online production, the top skills desired were multimedia narrative, writing for Web content and video, PhotoShop, and HTML (74). Therefore, besides the expected traditional communication skills (i.e.: critical thinking, learning ability, editing, reporting, spelling, and research), media organizations are looking for candidates who have an understanding of multimedia components that could enhance their news reports.

Reasoning

Communication industry employers will not consider print-based communication candidates competitive if they do not possess or understand the digital cross-platform skills.

Counter-evidence and counter arguments

Despite the above findings, some may argue that the traditional skills of critical thinking, learning ability, editing, reporting, spelling, and research continue to hold more value in communication and mass media organizations over the emerging digital cross-platform skills. Clearly, all communicators and journalists will be expected to be competent in these areas for the production of content whether for print or digital distribution. Since the data is inconclusive and collected from 2007 and 2010, it may support the argument that communication professionals do not need to be multi-skilled in digital convergence for the time being. However, those who may disagree with this data for its inconclusiveness should be reminded of the undeniable fact that the industry

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continues to converge. In some cases, it shifted completely or converged from print to digital content and delivery (i.e.: *Newsweek* transition to all-digital format in 2012, and *Businessweek* convergence to both print and digital formats).

Warrant

Adopting the required digital video production skills in desktop capturing, editing, and delivery of videos, photography, and digital narrative will give cross-platform trained job candidates priority and help promote them over those who lack experience in digital cross-platform skills.

3rd Sub-argument

Higher education programs should revise their communication and journalism curricula to teach students the digital cross-platform skills they will need to produce credible, concise, and dynamic content for an increasing Web-based and mobile society.

Evidence

Assistant professors of journalism and communication at higher education departments, Deb Halpern Wenger and Lynn C. Owen make an important research-based observation that higher-paid veteran journalists are being outplaced by younger multi-skilled and dynamic staff (Wenger and Owen, 2012). Their research validates the need to update communication and journalism curricula for preparing future communication professionals. Through their collection, research, and analysis of 735 job postings data from principal U.S. newspapers and broadcasting companies, in a three-month span in 2008 and 2009, they provide evidence of academic curriculum changes that include courses in multimedia skills. Wenger and Owen's findings showed that multimedia skills were a requirement for job listings under the category of print photojournalist (60 percent), editors (56.8 percent), copy editors (40.5 percent), and print reporting (38.8 percent) (2012, p. 8). They also found that there is a clear need for training journalists in nonlinear video editing and photography skills, and with "over a third of positions

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requiring one or both" (8) there is already a current need. Their findings confirm that newspaper and broadcasting companies seek to hire communicators and journalists who are able to produce multimedia content across platforms.

Reasoning

Traditional higher education programs in communication and journalism do not include in their core curricula digital video production, photography, and digital narrative courses that students will need to fulfill the jobs many mass media communication and journalism organizations now require. Lacking these skills inhibit their ability to meet the needs of the 21st century consumer.

Counter-evidence and counter arguments

Some may counter that mass media communication and journalism higher education programs are already adequate and are teaching the basic skills in content research, writing, and editing for job seeking in the 21st century. They argue that companies still prefer experienced communicators and journalists over candidates who lack experience but who possess cross-platform skills. For instance, Russial and Santana quote Gil Thelen, executive editor of the Tampa Tribune, who states that he would prefer a journalist graduate who is specialized in one area as opposed to one who is skilled in many platforms (Russial and Santana 2011, p. 7). The research is generally inconclusive and cannot provide any credible sources or evidence to validate claims that current university level communication and journalism programs are adequate for training the communicator of the 21stcentury.On the contrary, findings are conclusive that most universities in the United States are moving toward modifying their programs to include digital multimedia courses and adequately train working and aspiring communicators and journalists.

The late Lee Thornton, former interim dean of the Phillip Merril College of Journalism at the University of Maryland backs up this claim in her 2008 article, "A Dizzying Pace." She stated that many colleges, including the University of Maryland, were

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moving toward a change in curricula that would prepare students for the multiplatform work that will be expected of them in the field (Thornton, 2008). Thornton argued that if students are taught these skills, they will be able to keep up with the demand of the rapidly changing industry (2008).

Warrant

Establishing credibility through effective online research skills and the ability to produce concise and dynamic content is important for communication graduates to be successful in fulfilling the job roles required for digital video production, photography, and digital narrative skills in cross-platform environments.

4th Sub-argument

Print-based communicators should understand each digital video production skill necessary in the 21st century and be aware of the tools available for adopting techniques required to remain employable.

Evidence

In his book, *My Turbulent Path from Print to Digital*, Stephen B. Shepard, former founding dean of the CUNY Graduate School of Journalism and former Editor-in-Chief of *BusinessWeek* relays his experience as a traditional journalist forced into transitioning from print to digital. Despite facing the tensions of making the digital transition, he was able to successfully overcome them. Shepard explains that seeing the decline of *BusinessWeek* magazine, "one of the best and more lucrative magazines in the world" (Shepard, 2013) forced him to lower his defenses against the digital convergence. He began to accept technology and came to terms with the shift from print to digital in the journalism industry. As dean of the CUNY Graduate School of Journalism, he found himself being a student of the Digital Age's new technologies and trends. He realized that these emerging technologies would enrich and benefit journalism by reaching more audiences through interactive multimedia narrative.

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Assistant professor of Journalism & Media Studies Rebecca Coates proposes in her work "Creative Destruction: An Exploratory Study of How Digitally Native News Nonprofits are Innovating Online Journalism Practices" that traditional communicators and journalists can seek technology training through community colleges, online channels and tutorials, and emerging nonprofit online news firms based at universities. Nonprofit online news organizations found that universities offer students and professionals free or fee-based training in computer-assisted reporting that incorporate multimedia content (video, audio, and still photography) and social media channels such as Twitter and Facebook (Coates, 2013, p. 11). These programs are specifically planned for professionals working in communication and journalism related areas such as public relations, advertising, marketing, and the production and delivery of multimedia content. Program courses will provide the necessary digital cross-platform skills to those professionals who are facing the emerging media industry for which they lack the required training.

Reasoning

Print-based communicators can face the Digital Age and acquire the necessary video production, photography, and digital narrative skills through traditional lecture programs or specialized training programs.

Counter-evidence and counter arguments

Some may contend that older generations of communicators may still reject cross-platforms and convergent communication environments simply because they were not born from new and fast-evolving technologies. During Bock's observations of print-based journalists transitioning to digital, she found that when journalists of the older generation were being trained in multimedia skills they became overwhelmed by having to conduct interviews and operate the camera at the same time. Once their training was done, they hardly use the camera again (Bock 2011, p. 609). Bock points out that as veteran journalists are asked or led to learn video production skills, they are also

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learning the new narrative skills (2011, p. 606) required to thrive in the Digital Age. Despite the resistance of veteran communicators and journalists to accept the new media, Shepard's journey shows that it is not impossible to become multimedia-skilled.

Warrant

By understanding the available training opportunities, print-based communicators should be more willing to learn the multimedia skills they need for becoming cross-platforms communicators and journalists.

4. Solutions

Solutions to the problem of remaining relevant and employable in the 21st Century, for both aspiring professionals and seasoned communicators and journalists, can be summarized in a few short paragraphs. I derived these solutions through the collection and analysis of credible sources such as scholarly journals and periodicals from professional associations. The following solutions summary is a blueprint for effectiveness, and does not pretend to be all-inclusive, but rather a formula for achieving success.

A different set of skills rather than the traditional skillset is required

We are in a Digital Age where news services have moved to online Web sites that require digital video production skills for building multimedia content (Tremayne, Weiss, and Alves, 2007).

We must realize this change is transitional

Achieving the paper-look experience in the delivery of digital and Web-based content will require the understanding and adoption of digital multimedia skills (Klaassen, 2012). These include the learning of desktop capturing, editing, and delivery of videos,

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photography, and digital narrative. These digital content sources must be combined to produce an interactive and dynamic experience for accessing information. The numbers of print consumers are declining; "print look and feel" with a digital fingerprint is on the rise.

Understanding the skillset required across platforms

Communicators and journalists must be able to understand and produce these multimedia offerings across multiple platforms (Halpern and Owens, 2012; Brown and Collins, 2010). Individuals should not focus on learning one set of skills. Rather, the new era demands not only the previous skills of critical thinking, learning ability, editing, reporting, spelling, and research, but also digital cross-platform skills necessary to deliver content across specialized technologies.

Acquiring these skills as the logical outcome

Traditional communicators and journalists can seek technology training through community colleges, online channels and tutorials, and the emerging university nonprofit content providers. Nonprofit online news organizations found in universities offer students and professionals free or fee-based training in computer-assisted reporting that incorporates multimedia content (video, audio, and still photography) and social media channels such as Twitter and Facebook (Coates 2013, p. 11). One example is at the San Diego State University currently offering a professional certificate in digital and social media. As stated on the university's College of Extended Studies Web site, the program courses are geared toward working professionals in the areas of journalism, public relations, advertising, and marketing and the production of multimedia content.

New dynamics show that veteran editors and journalists are establishing nonprofit Web-based news outlets which are funded through diverse channels such as grants, donations, corporation sponsorship, and training services (Coates 2013, p. 8). Print-based communicators must gain understanding of the new challenges facing the digitally-

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driven mass media communication and journalism industry concerning sources of revenue once drawn from print advertisement.

Taking the necessary steps

The final solution is to convey the urgency for print-based communicators (public relations managers, specialists, journalists, and broadcasters) into accepting challenges the Digital Age poses for their employability and job security in the 21st century. They must take the necessary steps to adopt the required digital video production skills of desktop capturing, editing, and delivery of videos, photography, and digital narrative.

5. Discussion

Analysis of Project Solutions

The project solutions their role of clarifying not only the problem facing the industry and the employees that produce its content, but also the emerging trends in the Digital Age were clearly stated as well as. It was very relevant to emphasize the point that aspiring and working traditional communicators and journalists must first accept the changes driving the need for new skill-sets. When they fail to accept the transition to digital is necessary it makes learning new skills an almost impossible task.

Another solution conveys to print-based communicators and journalists that not all hope is lost because print content is evolving into an interactive, dynamic experience. Traditional skills of critical thinking, learning ability, editing, reporting, spelling, and research become interactive and portable through the emerging technologies for consumers and creating new revenue sources. The solution that states cross-platform skills are now needed was highly relevant as the industry no longer wants only specialized professionals. The skill of digital multimedia necessary to deliver content across specialized technologies must be understood and, if required, learned.

The fourth solution of seeking venues to acquire the skills brought the topic home. There are many avenues, such as technology training through community colleges, online channels and tutorials, and the emerging university nonprofit content providers,

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for which specific examples were provided. The final solution of action brings the reader into a state of motivation. The industry is not simply cultivating a new set of tools, but is transforming itself. Organizations are forced to make effective changes. Digitally-driven content is a must for survival and sources of revenue are diverse. Most specifically, since 2009 veteran journalists and editors, once employed in commercial print newspapers, have become news entrepreneurs. They transitioned from commercial "legacy print and broadcast" to what scholars now term *digitally native news nonprofits* or Web-based only news outlets. Many of these digitally native sites are based at universities. Another key finding is the leaders of these nonprofit news outlets consider partnerships with traditional print news media organizations essential to reach more information consumers and have more community impact.

Trends of Industry Changes in the Past Decade

The project approach was successful. By researching and gathering credible scholarly sources, I was able to see trends of the industry changes in the last 10 years. I was surprised at the impact of technology on the large mass media outlets. The industry's move from large for-profit organizations to smaller nonprofit news outlets was a real eye-opener. The impact of Twitter and Facebook was also something that I had not anticipated.

The need for interactive, digital content, driving the industry for survival, prompted me to research colleges to see what has changed and how curricula have been affected. This also was the correct approach as it brought emerging university-based digitally native news nonprofits and instructors to the forefront. These discovery sessions led to the understanding that my thesis was fully supported.

Inconclusive Data Concerning the Future of Print Content

Probably the weak side of the project lies in the inconclusive data to support or disprove arguments of the future of print. Either the supporters of print content understand the need to move to digital, or the critics or skeptics of digital are not heard for the lack of

peer-reviewed and scholarly research. However, the majority of communication and journalism scholars do agree that print and digital are converging. They agree digital is on the rise, but they also concur print content has its audience and will not fully disappear.

Self-Assessment Analysis

If I had to start the report all over, I would have assigned extra time to the analysis of the data being that data interpretation and synthesis requires more effort for me. I would have preferred to conduct interviews and field research since I am more interpersonal and verbal. I would have also put more effort into finding credible evidence to support counterarguments as I learned that not all the sources I found in scholarly database are considered scholarly or credible.

My personal learning can be summarized in my professional experience as a translator of written documents. For performing efficiently certain professional activities, I had to adopt the digital multimedia skills required to create and deliver Web content on my own, outside the academic realm. The skills I adopted include: desktop publishing (creating content in layout and design platforms such as InDesign); digital storytelling, digital copy editing and design, video production for the Web; and a general understanding of the digital and social media dynamics. I have begun to transition through outside online research as the Bachelor of Arts Completion Program (BACP) in Communication Arts at the University of Denver has trained me in the traditional approach. This is evident in the BACP courses that influenced the topic I chose to enhance my major and learning.

The Effective Communication course and the Direct Research course have been central to the manner in which I conducted my research pertaining to the search, selection, and analysis of evidence. Both courses placed great emphasis on validating and supporting arguments with scholarly and peer-reviewed articles. Effective Communication taught me how to craft arguments with the pathos, ethos, and logos elements that are critical for conveying a credible and ethical project. Through the Directed Research course I learned the processes and stages of elaborating a well-structured and defined research.

From choosing a topic, to preparing the project thesis, the introduction, the conclusion, the literature review, and the project analysis, I have been able to apply this learning to the integrative project.

The Integrative Project Design course was also valuable to my work. While the format and outline required in crafting the integrative project was new to me, following this format proved fundamental for the successful elaboration and integration of this final report. All the elements integrate and fit together. The Integrative Project Design course also led me to utilize the University of Denver's Penrose Library resources, databases, and their staff more efficiently. Through the amount of research required for the project, I have honed my research skills for the gathering of credible and acceptable evidence. The library staff is very knowledgeable, and through the observation of their research techniques and key word searches, I gained valuable insight and research skills.

Another important thing I learned was how to effectively follow and apply a specific manual of style—Kate Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. Turabian has been most significant in the crafting of my arguments for the project report. It explains the critical elements of well-thought, researched, and supported arguments (i.e., warrants, reasoning, and counterarguments). It also provides the blue-print for the conception of the topic, thesis, drafts, and final product. The completion of this report should be a reflection of my BACP learning experience as a candidate of the Bachelor of Arts degree in Communication Arts.

6. Conclusion

Problem

The relevance of the digital convergence stresses the need for currently employed and aspiring professionals in the fields of communication and journalism to hone their digital media skills and combine them with their traditional skills. These communication professionals must receive training in both print and multimedia skills for producing multimedia content in the emerging digital and Web-based platforms. While some traditional communicators and journalism scholars contend that consumers of print content will continue to drive the demand for print media, research shows the imminent

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convergence of print and digital content. Therefore, to remain employable in the 21st century, print-based communication professionals must face the challenge of the Digital Age. They must demonstrate their ability to adopt the required digital video production skills of desktop capturing, editing, and delivery of videos, photography, and digital narrative—or multimedia skills and digital cross-platform skills.

Approach

This study of a collection of journal articles authored by communication and journalism scholars explains how the near half drop in print advertising revenues forced media organizations to become aware of changes in consumer's habits. They realized that a shift or convergence to digital-based content was imperative. In researching specialized data bases, I used key word searches including digital media, multimedia skills, and print-based communication to find sources relevant to my topic. Searches were limited to scholarly and peer-reviewed articles, and within the last 10 year, which gave preference to the most current sources. In addition to searching for credible evidence in support of the thesis, I also searched for evidence to address counterarguments. However, I did not find scholarly articles with precise opinions that print would prevail over digital content. My classmates and our professor reviewed the evidence and solutions. After the critique, peer-review, and selection of the evidence and solutions, I began to integrate all the components of the project for its completion.

Research Results

Results corroborate that the increasing demand for digital content is forcing print-based communicators and journalists to accept the imminent shift of delivery methods from print to digital. This shift is requiring them to learn how to integrate multimedia components into digital content. Professionals will have to adopt digital cross-platform skills to achieve a paper-look on digital publications and to offer consumers the interactive and dynamic experience characteristic of the emerging features of the Digital Age for accessing information. Findings regarding the most relevant skills that media

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organizations seek in candidates also show that they attached moderate importance to the convergence of skill sets (video and audio creation, and editing for staff members). However, the traditional skills of copy editing, reporting, and photography remain of great importance.

Most relevant is the research data that newsrooms will prefer multi-skilled journalists able to handle media convergence trends of the 21st century. Over half of all current job postings have multimedia skills listed as a requirement in fulfilling the job role. In addition, over one third of what could be considered job listings for traditional journalists now require nonlinear video and photography skills. To remedy this urgency for skills convergence, print-based communicators and journalists must first accept the Digital Age and that it requires a different set of skills other than the traditional ones. They must also understand the transitional nature of adopting new skills which calls for the understanding and learning of digital multimedia skills of desktop capturing, editing, and delivery of video, photography, and digital narrative. Through this understanding, print-based communicators must be able to produce multimedia offerings across platforms.

Solution

Thus acquiring the skills is the logical solution. Community colleges and universities are changing their curriculum to meet the challenge of employment in the Digital Age. Programs have changed to include learning the social media channels such as Twitter and Facebook. Courses will also provide the necessary digital cross-platform skills to create digital and Web-based content. In addition, another channel for learning that has emerged is the nonprofit online news organizations. These programs offer students and professionals free or fee-based training in computer-assisted reporting that incorporate multimedia content such as video, audio, and still photography. Therefore, traditional communicators and journalists can seek technology training through these community colleges, online channels and tutorials, and the emerging university nonprofit content providers.

The Digital Age is already upon us and "digital for hire" is already posted. Those who are unwilling to embrace technology's advances in digital communications of editing and multi-platform distribution will become extinct relics. They will find themselves existing as a museum piece alongside typewriters, telegraph keys, and rotary phones.

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The Differences and Similarities in the Perception of the Writing Process in Transactional Texts in L1 and L2 in Translation Students

Pablo Sosa[2]

Abstract
Writing as a process has been a trend in teaching since the 1960s, nevertheless, students in the Argentine educational system are rarely aware of the steps involved in the activity. This seems to be the case not only in their L1, but also in their L2. Furthermore, regarding second language acquisition, there is an over-reliance on the L2 in detriment of students' native language, when there is solid evidence that learners' L1 enhances their foreign language skills. This paper purports to explore to what extent the writing process is perceived as different in L1 and L2. In order to explore this issue, a group of 18 students working towards their degree in translation were given a task in Spanish, their L1, and a similar task in English, their L2. A questionnaire measured their perception by posing questions regarding the writing process in the two tongues. The result obtained showed that the writing process is seen as similar in both languages, revealing the same flaws and strengths in the two cases. Furthermore, there was a correlation between writing skills in L1 and L2. Few students actually wrote a draft or made an outline of their work and there was no awareness that they belonged to a discourse community. The pre-writing stage and the editing stage were especially neglected. The fact that skills in both languages go hand in hand seems to show that there is a teaching opportunity missed by not recurring to L1 when teaching L2 writing.

Keywords: writing process, second language acquisition, writing skills, translation studies, English as a second language.

Resumen
Escribir, como proceso, ha sido una tendencia en la enseñanza desde la década de los sesenta. Los estudiantes del sistema educativo argentino, sin embargo, rara vez son conscientes de los pasos que supone esta actividad. Este parece ser el caso no solo en su L1, sino también en su L2. Además, con respecto a la adquisición de una segunda lengua, existe una dependencia excesiva de la L2 en detrimento de la lengua materna de los estudiantes, aun cuando existe evidencia sólida de que la L1 de los alumnos mejora sus habilidades en el idioma extranjero. Este trabajo intenta explorar en qué medida el proceso de escritura se percibe como diferente en la L1 y la L2. Para explorar este tema, un grupo de 18 estudiantes de traducción recibieron una tarea en español, su L1, y una tarea similar en inglés, su L2. Un cuestionario midió su percepción a través de preguntas

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sobre el proceso de escritura en las dos lenguas. El resultado obtenido mostró que el proceso se percibe como similar en ambos idiomas, y reveló los mismos defectos y fortalezas en los dos casos. Además, mostró una correlación entre las habilidades de escritura en la L1 y en la L2. De hecho, pocos estudiantes escribieron un borrador o prepararon un lineamiento de su trabajo y no se mostró conciencia de pertenencia a una comunidad discursiva. Las etapas de pre-escritura y de edición fueron especialmente desatendidas. El hecho de que las habilidades en ambos idiomas vayan de la mano parece demostrar que existe una oportunidad de enseñanza no tenida en cuenta al no recurrir a la L1 cuando se enseña a escribir en la L2.

Palabras claves: procesos de escritura, adquisición de una segunda lengua, habilidades de escritura, traducción, inglés como segunda lengua.

Contents

I. Introduction

It is a well-known fact that applied linguistics has been concerned with the development of writing skills for the past 60 years (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). The focus of attention has been on two aspects of language: the transactional –which is concerned with the communication of factual or propositional information (Lyons, 1968, cited in Brown, G and G. Yule, 1986), and the interactional, which deals with the conventional use of language in open talk exchanges, that is, the phatic use of language mostly studied by philosophers, sociolinguists and sociologists (Brown, G & G. Yule, 1986). The revival of rhetoric in the 70s and 80s in the universities in the United States and other English speaking countries has placed the focus on the social construction of writing and writing across the curriculum by giving importance to such issues as topic, genre, audience,

intertextuality, and content-based writing instruction. These issues have been the subject of research in both L1 and in L2 in the United States, Canada, European countries as well as in Australia.

In Argentina, these issues have been addressed in the syllabuses of foreign language instruction in schools, colleges and universities to a large extent; although it seems that little attention is paid to them across the curriculum in subjects taught in Spanish (Fernández and Carlino, 2005). Thus, the matter to be queried is: how exactly does a student in the Argentine educational system learn (or fail to learn) to produce a written interactional text? Due to the fact that the only subjects which include the production of transactional texts in their syllabuses are foreign languages, students seem to receive the formal staging and organizational aspects of text writing in a language that is not their own native tongue. Even in foreign language programs not specifically oriented to language professionals, the emphasis is on reading comprehension of texts related to the subject matter –with remarkable success, but little or no importance is placed on their subsequent reconstruction in Spanish (Klett et al., 2005).

The issue of text reconstruction is particularly relevant to students enrolled in the translation programs in Argentina. Due to the nature of the translator's profession, in which mostly transactional written texts are dealt with, it seems important that they be able not only to understand the indications that the producer is sending in "chunks", but also to be able to reconstruct the text with an adequate organization and staging at the level of macro-structure. This paper will explore the process and production of written transactional texts in students' L1 and L2. It will also aim to ascertain whether the organizational scheme perceived when a text is read in Spanish is sufficiently self-contained to enhance the formal instructions usually taught in a foreign language, and, thus if students simply transfer the scheme learned in those classes or if, on the other hand, students use the staging and organization at all when producing a transactional text in Spanish, as they might consider that rules do not cross language borders.

In order to evaluate this, it seems logical to ask students about their writing habits both in Spanish and English and observe, first of all, what their perception concerning the organization of texts in both languages is; in a second stage, it would be necessary to assess if their goals regarding staging and organization are actually achieved when a text

is produced. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to explore to what extent the writing process is perceived as different in L1 and L2 among second year college students earning a degree in translation.

II. Literature Review

In order to approach the complexity of the subject matter in this paper, it becomes necessary to examine the issue from several viewpoints: in the first place, it is essential to review the literature concerning the development of the writing process in a first language. Secondly, it is necessary to explore this topic specifically in Argentina so as to describe the environment in which these students in particular carry out their activities. Thirdly, as the learners are engaged in second language learning, the distinguishing features of process writing in a second language must be probed. And, finally, as the subjects of this research are working towards a degree in translation, it is indispensable that the writing process as explained in the translation theory be analyzed. This section, therefore, has been broken down into four different sub-sections, each addressing the specifics of the aforementioned aspects of the general topic, respectively.

II.1. The Development of Text Construction in the Writing Process

Writing in L1 context has evolved consistently since the 1960s as many linguists voiced their reaction against the "current–traditional" approach which dominated earlier educational theory regarding the issue. According to Grabe and Kaplan (1998), this reaction was popularly designated the "writing-as-a-process movement" and it aimed to free instruction from the simplistic model characterized by the three-to-five paragraph layout, certain assumptions in the organizational structure, the one-draft assignment, the student's lack of interaction with peers, the reliance on grammar and the linear composing model based on outlining, writing and editing. With the process writing approach students were encouraged to discover themselves by making writing meaningful, goal oriented, recursive and non-linear. New ideas of audience awareness and feedback from several audiences were also emphasized. The approach also favored the gradual displacement of grammar and usage in de-contextualized settings.

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Writing as a process has raised awareness concerning the complexity of writing. Flower and Hayes (1980) developed the notion of rhetorical problem (audience, topic, assignment) and the notion of defining the writer's own goals (providing meaning and producing a formal text) in task based component of their model, which showed how expert and novice writers differed. The theory of revision presented by Hayes et al. (1987, cited in Grabe, W., & Kaplan, 1996) expanded on the earlier model. For Flower the problem lay in how writers apply their skills and not so much how they acquire them; in the author's own words:

> For the student, the classroom content, the teacher's concern with content, and the role of the paper as a tool in the grading process are likely to fit a familiar schema for theme writing. But what is important in college is not the apparent genre or conventions, but the goals. The goals of self-directed critical inquiry, of using writing to think through genuine problems and issues, and of writing to an imagined community of peers with a personal rhetorical purpose – these distinguish academic writing from a more limited comprehension and response. (Flower et al., 1990, p. 251)

While Flowers and Hayes place both novice and expert writers in the same continuum, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) argue that there is no one process for all writers. They believe that there are two models for the writing process: the knowledge-telling model, in which the information is generated from the assignment, the topic, the genre and the terms or lexical items in the assignment; and the knowledge-transforming model, which needs to consider information ordering, audience expectations and logical patterns of argument. They presented evidence stating that less proficient writers spend less time on planning; they are less concerned with goals, plans and problems; they seldom reorganize their content; and they do not use the main ideas as a guideline for integrating information. All of these issues seem to invoke a dialectical process for reflection in the more expert writer.

Concerning the relationship between form and meaning, Halliday's functional Theory of Language, explains that grammar develops precisely because speakers and writers interact. Painter (1989, cited in Grabe, W., & Kaplan, 1996), on the same note, states that: "…the need of language learners has shaped the linguistic system itself" (p. 21). And Christie (1989, cited in Grabe, W., & Kaplan, 1996) suggests that "…language teaching practices should always have an overt and explicit interest in the nature of the

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language students must learn to use" (p. 198). That is to say, that the knowledge of form and exploration of content is crucial for learning itself.

Another major issue dominating the theory and practice of writing is genre knowledge. Swales (1990), for instance, argues that the need for genre knowledge is important for students to be successful in academic settings. Grabe and Kaplan (1998) defined genre as:

> the ways that groups of writers have managed to solve problems in writing which conform to general expectations, which facilitate communication for both the writer and the reader, and which provide students with frames suited to communication about different sorts of knowledge and different ways of addressing the reader. (p. 132)

Halliday (1993) also discusses meaningful use of language in educational contexts and argues that language form gives structure to meaningful communication, that is, that language use and purpose are closely linked.

Martin (1989, cited in Grabe, W., & Kaplan, 1996) and Swales (1990) both point out that schools should include formal language instruction in the forms of language so that students will find it easier to infer content and learn to control the information by integrating content, context and language. Genre is thus seen by Grabe and Kaplan (1998) as "…a way of empowering students because they serve meaningful purposes and provide frameworks for various academic schemata based sets of knowledge" (p.138). Genre, therefore, may be seen as a meeting point of several issues regarding writing and the writing process: knowledge background, content, linguistic structure, register, purpose, and audience.

The foregoing meant to represent a glimpse at the development of the process writing movement and its implications in academic writing. It is thus seen as important that students learn to develop strategies concerning writing so that they may be better able to communicate meaning though appropriate forms and that they understand that applying the writing process gives them power to make linguistic choices that allow for the transformation of knowledge.

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II.2. Text Construction in the Writing Process in L1 in the Argentine Public Education System

Section 13 of the *Ley General de Educación* (General Education Act), enacted in 1993 and amended in 2005, in reference to the initial level of the common basic contents (CBC), provides for the following: "To encourage the forms of personal expression as well as graphic and verbal communication." (p. 2) This objective also appears in Recommendation number 26/92 of the *Consejo Federal de Cultura y Educación* (Federal Council of Culture and Education) which lists as a basic skill the fact that: "…students should be able to "choose" and use language, symbols and verbal codes in different contexts (…) as a basis for the logical organization of ideas and the expression of feelings (…) to enjoy and appreciate static manifestations of a (…) literary nature and to use their expressive resources harmoniously" (p. 3). In the second block of the initial level referring to "written expression" there appears a reference to the elements of cohesion, coherence through repetition, synonyms, connectors, etc.; register and the production of different types of texts aimed at an adult audience; and the development of pre-reading and editing skills –which would seem to place some importance on process writing. The program also mentions the discrimination between literary and transactional texts according to the codes used.

These objectives, however, do not seem to be clearly assimilated by students. Carlino and Fernández (2005) state that:

> Most students describe the fact that Polimodal/Secondary school proposes reading and writing within practices based on memoirist models. The most commonly used tasks consist of a low level of complexity, which imply recurring to only one textual source, require little or no written composition, and thus, do not promote the building and organization of knowledge (p. 34).

They end the remark by stating that "these tasks seem to propitiate learning forms which are merely reproductive and superficial (p. 35)." Furthermore, Aisenberg (2005) analyses primary school reading and writing and points out that "…the most frequent reading instructions aim to "deconstruct" the text into punctual bits of information (…) which implies a superficial and fragmentary comprehension (…) the reproduction of information thus understood favors (…) a writing activity that limits the student's activity to a mere transcription (p. 6)."

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In the Argentine portal *portal.educ.ar* teachers gave their opinions on writing, and, perhaps not surprisingly, one teacher's concerns were mainly focused on reading, reading sessions, interchange of opinions among readers, advancing as readers, and expanding the reading experience. Another teacher wrote about checking comprehension through plastic arts and puppets. Only one mentioned writing skills at all, and only referring to the achievement of a "final product" to be shared among the audience. Not one comment concerned process in writing. In an interview with Javier Nicoletti (2007), director of Pedagogy at "Universidad de la UNLaM" published by "Clarín" newspaper, the interviewee revealed that secondary school students have difficulties in writing and text comprehension and lack studying techniques.

II.3. Text Construction in the Writing Process in Foreign and Second Language Instruction

There has been quite a lot of research concerning writing in a non-native language. According to Graves and Kaplan (1998) many distinctions have been made as regards the type of students, their cultural context, and their needs: English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students are those who learn English in a country where English is not spoken; English as a Second Language (ESL) students are those who live in an English speaking country where English is a language or the language of the community. Apart from this distinction, there are other terms which may be applied such as English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) students who need the language for their work and Limited English Proficiency (LEP) students, which is a term established by the United States public school system to all students whose language is not the one of the community. Translation students in Argentina may fall into any of these categories; however, because of the need for native-like proficiency, this paper will place them in the ESL category.

Writing in ESL students has been the object of research mostly in applied linguistics, although it has borrowed ideas from cognitive psychology, sociolinguistics and other fields. The issues that have been explored are problems dealing with language transfer and interlanguage (Grabe and Kaplan, 1998). Although there has been research in contrastive rhetoric, there are some issues which still need to be explored, such as the

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students writing skills in their L1, how literacy is defined in their L1, the reading motivations in students' L1, the writing motivations in students' L1, and the attitude that students have towards their L1 and L2.

Kaplan (1966, 1972) explored how student writing could be analyzed at a discourse level in order to account for organizational preferences among different discourse communities. Contrastive rhetoric is mostly concerned with the issue of topicalization, with the various ways of achieving cohesion, with how coherence-marking contexts operate in different languages, and with how implicatures are encoded in different languages (Halliday and Hassan, 1989), supposing that the ideational or content-bearing functions of discourse as well as the choices people make when they use language to structure their interpersonal communications exist in all languages (Halliday, 1978). Although different cultures have different ways of doing things with language, they seem to have some resources which allow each to express the same ideas.

There are, however, some constraints as not all cultures produce a stimulus in exactly the same way due to the intrinsic properties of each language (Gutt, 1991). Along these lines, there is another line of argument which stems from sociolinguistics and argues that there are cultural preferences which lead a person to make use of certain options available in linguistic possibilities (Street 1984). This would seem to occur even at the most objective levels of writing which is scientific writing (Myers 1986, 1990).

In spite of the extensive text-based research evidence available, however, Grabe and Kaplan argue that "it has not been possible to control sufficiently the many confounding variables that have been a problem in contrastive rhetoric research" (1998: 186). According to Ferrari (2004), linguists have different opinions concerning the strategies used by writers in their L1 and their L2, respectively: in her opinion there are authors who consider that there is no relation between the strategies used in both languages (Connor 1987 and Kaplan 1979, 1984, 1897); there are authors who consider that the strategies are the same (Arndt 1987, Cumming, 1989, (cited in Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. B., 1996), and Valdés, Haro y Echevarriarza 1992); and there are authors who consider that it is possible to transfer strategies if the writer has reached a minimum level of linguistic competence (Eisterhold, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll y Kuehn 1990, Sasaki y Hirose 1996 y Whalen y Ménard 1995).

In view of the aforementioned, this paper purports to explore what actually happens with students who study translation in Argentina given the particular context that they are in and the impending need to manage text reconstruction strategies in their mother tongue as well as their second language.

II.4 The Importance of Developing Text Re-construction Skills in the Translation Theory

This part of the paper aims at establishing that it is crucial for translators to handle macro structures equally well in both source language and target language, thus, the importance of developing skills of re-construction at a macro structure level in both languages. As regards text analysis, translation theory has provided much research and theory which establishes the importance of whole text understanding and macro structure reconstruction as a complement to de-construction and micro structure reconstruction. That is to say, that it is not enough to provide a detailed analysis of lexis and syntax, but it becomes necessary to approach the text in terms of its rhetorical organization. According to a pilot study by Niska & Wande (as cited in Wande, 1999):

> (…) a number of text linguistic models for the description of the interpreting process were evaluated. It was found that text linguistic models can increase general understanding of the processes going on during an interpreting session, on the macro level (text structure and content of the message) as well as on the micro level (morphology and syntax).
>
> Various types of problems of understanding occur, including terminological problems and difficulties understanding the text structure. In expert discourse, references can be hard to find in the surface structure, and coherence is often maintained only by the use of implicit references (p. 12).

According to Hatim and Mason (1990), there is always an overriding rhetorical purpose which defines the patterns and syntax in a language. The texture of a source text, therefore, becomes an important guideline for making decisions concerning the overall texture of the target text. Thus, the order sought in translation should always take into account the rhetorical and macro structures first, and only then should there be an attempt at finding the appropriate words and syntactic structures. This is the case of

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"conceptual translation" (Larson, 1984) which suggests that what changes is the form and the code, but that the meaning and the message should remain unchanged, since the unit of translation is not the word or phrase, but the concept as is best seen for example in proverbs and idioms.

Furthermore, Newmark (1988) has suggested communicative and semantic approaches to translation. This approach attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the source language. He contends that there are "three basic translation processes: the interpretation and analysis of the SL text; the translation procedure (choosing equivalents for words and sentences in the TL), and the reformulation of the text according to the writer's intention, the reader's expectation, the appropriate norms of the TL, etc" (p. 144).

Since Halliday and Hasan (1976) introduced the notion of cohesion, the idea of translation at a level of macro structure has become widely accepted. As (Connor, 1994) states:

> Systemic linguistics, a related approach to text analysis and semiotics, emerged in the 1960s with the work of linguists such as Halliday, whose theories emphasize the ideational or content-bearing functions of discourse as well as the choices people make when they use language to structure their interpersonal communications (see, e.g., Halliday, 1978) (p. 682).

In addition, Swales (1990) applied the notion of macro structures for scientific research articles and Biber (1988) applied the notion to multidimensional computerized analysis. Clearly, there is a need for overall text analysis both in the de-construction of the source text as well as in the re-construction of a target text in the translation process.

Snell-Hornby (1988) has also explored the issue of whole text translation in her "Integrated Approach" where she speaks of "a dynamic, gestalt-like system of relationships, whereby the various headings represent an idealized, prototypical focus and the grid-system gives way to blurred edges and overlapping" (p. 31).

An interesting example of how certain macro structures work in similar ways across languages is Bolivar's study of the editorials appearing in "The Guardian" during the first quarter of 1981 (as cited in Riazi, 2004). She found that a paragraph level structure

called "triad" organizes the macro structure of editorials. This structure consisted of three elements called Lead, Follow, and Valuate which serve the function of initiation, follow up and evaluation. Riazi and Assar (as cited in Riazi, 2004) found similar structures in Persian newspapers demonstrating that certain syntactic forms tend to appear in the same parts of paragraphs across languages, and this responds to a more complex organizational concept of the writing as a whole.

Gutt (1991) emphasizes the importance of contextual information in the interpretation process as regards a number of stylistic features. He quotes the Relevance Theory of Communication developed by Sperber and Wilson (1986) whereby the presumption of relevance to the audience dominates the stimulus produced so that a gratuitous processing effort is avoided; thus, as a consequence of the information conveyed by a stimulus, the audience is able to infer certain contextual assumptions. According to this theory, the assumptions may be conveyed in two different ways: explicatures and implicatures. Explicatures refer to what a writer or speaker intends to transmit while implicatures are the contextual assumptions and implications. A translator may be forced to explicate the implicit information in the text and in certain cases. What is more, she or he may have to change certain aspects of the text in order to make the implications clear and produce a non-literal translation.

As regards the pedagogic application of these theories, it is clear that it is not only necessary for translators to be able to infer the connotations given by macro structures in the source text, but they should also be able to replicate those connotations as closely as possible. It is of utmost importance, therefore, that translators be aware of and be able to manage these resources in both languages; thus, the necessity of exploring the possible lack of rhetorical, macro level, cohesion, and coherence devices in the future translators' native language as well as their second language.

III. Procedure

III.1. Context

A questionnaire was administered to 18 students who are working towards a degree in certified translation and who are attending their second year at the Universidad Católica

Argentina. The students were selected in order to establish certain moderator variables which are a) the fact that they have already taken English and Spanish grammar courses in which they were explicitly taught cohesive devices, 2) they have also taken courses in which process writing was taught in English, their second language, and 3) they had taken no courses where explicit process writing was taught in Spanish, their native language.

III. 2. Description and Questionnaire

The aforementioned questionnaire (refer to Appendix 1) consists of 36 questions divided into 3 main categories. The first one, which is headed as "Background", comprises eleven questions and is aimed at measuring respondents' background regarding their first and second language. The second, consisting of 23 questions is headed as "Hands on Task", and is divided into three sub-sections, namely: pre-writing activities, writing activity proper, and editing activities. The third section contemplates systemic restrictions to the questionnaire. The questions in sections one and two were all closed questions comparing English and Spanish. The first question in section three was rated question and the second question was open.

III.2.1 Section I: Background

This section aims at ascertaining respondents' reading and writing background in L1 and L2.

- Question 1: Did you have mandatory writing courses in High school?

It helps test writing experience in L1 and L2.

- Question 2: Did you have optional writing courses in High school?

It focuses on respondents' possibilities regarding writing in L1 and L2.

- Question 3: Have you attended literary workshops?

It draws attention to respondents' interest in writing in L1 and L2.

- Question 4: Do you read magazines?

It aims at ascertaining respondents' reading habits in short texts in L1 and L2.

- Question 5: Do you read the newspaper?

It focuses on respondents' daily reading habits in L1 and L2.

- Question 6: Do you read novels or short stories?

It aims at assessing respondents' reading habits in longer texts in L1 and L2.

- Question 7: Did you have to write term papers in school?

It refers to respondents' early training in writing skills in L1 and L2.

- Question 8: Have you written any essays or term papers in College?

It aims at evaluating respondents' recent writing skills in L1 and L2.

- Question 9: Have you read any essays in college?

It focuses on respondents' reading skills in transactional texts in L1 and L2.

- Question 10: Have you passed the test for "Lengua Española" at college?

It evaluates respondents' proficiency in L1.

- Question 11: Have you passed all the test for "English Language" at college?

It evaluates respondents' proficiency in L2.

III.2.2 Section II: Hands on Task

This section focuses on respondents' direct experience with the assignments given.

III.2.2.1 Subsection A: Pre-writing Activities

This subsection draws attention to respondents' approach to writing in L1 and L2

- Question 1: Did you do any research on the topic before writing?

This question draws attention to respondents' pre-writing research in L1 and L2

- Question 2: Did you use more than one source for your research?

It focuses on how research was carried out in L1 and L2

- Question 3: Did you talk to anyone who knows about the subject?

It ascertains if respondents sought help when confronted with a problem.

- Question 4: Did you make an outline of the essay?

It focuses on the steps of the writing process in L1 and L2

- Question 5: Did you make a first draft of your work?

It focuses on the steps of the writing process in L1 and L2.

- Question 6: Did you consider your audience?

It aims to assess respondents' awareness of their discourse community

- Question 7: Did you consider an approach the paper as a whole?

It focuses on respondents' critical attitude towards writing in L1 and L2

III.2.2.2 Subsection B: Writing Activity Proper

This section aims to assess if respondents follow certain steps of the writing process in L1 and L2

- Question 1: Did you start the paper by pointing out the main idea?

It draws attention to the issue of coherence in L1 and L2.

- Question 2: Did you provide a proper title?

It helps ascertain whether students could summarize their point of view in L1 and L2

- Question 3: Did you develop a topic sentence with a controlling idea for each paragraph?

It focuses on coherence at paragraph level in L1 and L2.

- Question 4: Did you provide adequate support for your idea?

It draws attention to the need to ground ideas on facts in transactional writing.

- Question 5: Did you connect different aspects of your idea in an adequate way and did you give more relevance to more important ideas?

It focuses directly on relevance and coherence through cohesive devices. In L1 and L2

- Question 6: Did you check that the connectors used were appropriate?

It draws attention to the use of cohesive devices in L1 and L2

- Question 7: Did you link one paragraph to another in an adequate way?

It focuses on inter-paragraph cohesion in L1 and L2

- Question 8: Did you try to vary the structures you used?

It aims at stylistics in L1 and L2

- Question 9: Did you take relationship between theme and rheme into account?

It draws attention to inter-sentential coherence through subject verb structures in L1 and L2.

- Question 10: Did you consider the location of prepositional phrases in the sentence?

It focuses on inter-sentential incoherence through prepositional dislocation in L1 and L2

- Question 11: Did you write in the proper register?

It aims at establishing stylistics within the respondents' discourse community.

III.2.2.3 Subsection C: Editing Activity

This subsection is concerned with respondents' editing skills and habits in L1 and L2.

- Question 1: Did you proofread your work?

It addresses the issue directly in both L1 and L2.

- Question 2: Did you check for unity in each paragraph?

It ascertains whether respondents were aware of any dislocated concepts in L1 and L2

- Question 3: Did you check if the paragraphs flowed smoothly?

It aims at establishing inter-paragraph coherence in L1 and L2.

- Question 4: Did you give your paper to a peer for correction?

It focuses on the awareness of a discourse community

- Question 5: Did you check that your writing complied with the required formal parameters?

It draws attention to the respondents' awareness of rules within their discourse community

III.2.3 Section III : Systemic Restrictions

This section focuses on systemic restrictions that may have affected the final product and the writing process.

- Question 1: How much did the time taken for the task influence your writing process? Mark the corresponding with an X.

A lot	Pretty much	Some	A little	None

It aims at ascertaining the influence of time on the writing process in L1 and L2.

- Question 2: What elements mentioned in "(II) Hands on task" did you have to sacrifice due to time constraints? (You may draw a line if you had enough time.)

It focuses on the relative importance given to each step of the writing process in L1 and L2

IV. Results

Due to the size of the sample, any variation under 10% will be considered negligible or immaterial.

The first set of questions, included in section I -"Background", aimed to assess respondents' reading and writing habits in their L1 (Spanish) and their L2 (English). Question 1 shows that just under half (47%) of the respondents had a mandatory writing course in English in high school, compared to only one third who had a similar course in Spanish, which is consistent with the data set forth in Section II.2 of this paper. Surprisingly, however, a third of respondents had attended optional literary workshops in their L1, as revealed by responses to question 2.

Questions 4, 5 and 6 aimed to establish reading habits in different genre in both languages. While three fourths of the respondents stated that they read magazines, newspapers, short stories and novels in Spanish, the numbers relative to English showed large variations as regards genre; 39% said that they read magazines, 53% read newspapers, and a staggering 100% read short stories and novels.

Questions 7, 8 and 9 aimed to ascertain whether respondents had any experience writing transactional texts in either language. The results were contradictory because the numbers showed great variations which were unexpected due to the fact that all respondents belonged to the same course, thus their answers should have been absolute. After the feedback of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to explain the reason for the variations, and the rapport proved interesting because there were discrepancies regarding whether certain assignments had been essays or term papers. In view of this, the aforementioned questions were considered to have a "no" answer because respondents were unable to identify the genre of essay altogether.

Questions 10 and 11 referred to the respondents' academic performance. All students had passed English Language courses and all but one had passed the Spanish Language course. The differences were considered negligible.

As regards the writing process concerning the assignments that the students were asked to hand in, there was a noticeable low percentage of respondents who had taken into

account the pre-writing stage. Although all respondents had searched for information, 20% did so from only one source in English and 33% failed to recur to more than one source in Spanish. 17% claimed that they would have done so if they had had more time, and that information in Spanish was harder to come by.

Less than a third of respondents actually made an outline for their paper and just over half made a draft copy. A negligible amount claimed that it was due to a lack of time, though. Questions 6 and 7 aimed to establish the awareness of belonging to a discourse community; in this sense, about a third answered affirmatively.

The answers to Section II.B, which aimed to assess the writing process proper, showed a consistently high number of affirmative answers which ranged between an 80% and 100% with the exceptions of question II.B.3 regarding establishing a predominant point of view for each sentence and question which was just under 50%; and question II.B.9 which referred to inter-sentential coherence which yielded a meagre 22%. Once again, a 17% claimed it was due to the lack of time.

The answers to the questions regarding editing were incredibly similar for both languages. While, however, there were high percentages for spelling and coherence which ranged between 94% and 83%, only 28% verified that the compositions met formal requirements and a mere 6% showed the compositions to anyone.

The effect of the time devoted to the task, the results were discouraging since, on an average, respondents considered that they could have taken more time to do the tasks. The result was 3.61 on a scale from 1 to 5.

V. Conclusions

V.1 Acquisition of Writing Skills in L1 and L2

As regards the first query of this research paper, that is, how exactly a student in the Argentine educational system learns or fails to learn to produce a written interactional text, it appears that the students surveyed perceive that they have received more formal instruction in English than in Spanish. There seems to be, however, a more considerable interest in acquiring the skills in Spanish. This is evinced by the large number of respondents who have voluntarily taken writing courses in their native language and by the greater number of extra-curricular reading they do in their L1. The relatively high number of respondents who have attended literary workshops must be handled with care, however, because the contents of those courses are generally aimed at creative

rather than at transactional writing. This finding would seem to be consistent with Javier Nicoletti's assessment mentioned in the introduction, in the sense that students seem to feel that they have to make up for the lack of instruction in their L1 by attending workshops either within or outside of the school system.

V.2. Perception of the Writing Process in L1 and L2

The purpose of this paper was to explore to what extent the writing process was perceived as different in L1 and L2 among second year college students earning a degree in translation. In that sense, the findings show that the writing process is viewed as very similar by the surveyees. The same strengths that respondents had in their L1 were the strengths that they exhibited in their L2.

These strengths were mainly concerned with the writing proper which was perceived as being very important in all the items queried with the exception of the fact that no predominant point of view had been taken for the papers in L1 and L2 as a whole, which had repercussions on the syntactic arrangement of new and given information depicted by the theme –rheme relationship.

The weaknesses, on the other hand, were principally concerned with the organizational scheme which affected the L1 production as well as the one in L2. The failure to edit both papers and to disregard the formal parameters that were requested is very much in line with the fact that the audience and the general attitude towards production was not taken into account. The other important weakness concerned the whole pre-writing stage which was not considered as important as the writing proper.

On the whole, nevertheless, the perception that respondents had was that the writings in both languages had followed the same writing process in spite of differences observed in both productions as regards the overall length of the papers and the complexity of the cohesive devices used.

V.3 Pedagogical Implications

The fact that this group of students perceive the writing process essentially in the same way when they produce a text in L1 and in L2, respectively, seems to show a cross-over from one language into the other as regards organizational schemes and the writing process that is followed as a whole thus confirming Cummin's (1989, cited in Grabe,

W., & Kaplan, 1996) opinion. This allows for a whole range of possibilities concerned with the use of a learner's L1 in the L2 classroom. The positive view of these respondents towards their L1 seems to show that they would be willing to use their L1 background to their advantage when learning a foreign language. Exercises of back-translation and research of material in their own mother tongue could be a plus to L2 learning. In addition, the use of writing in L1 during the writing process can help students raise their awareness as to certain elements used in L1 which are not being fully developed in their L2 production, such as complex cohesive devices.

V.4 Suggestions for Further Research

The results of this survey call for further research concerning this issue. Firstly, it would be necessary to assess the relative attitude of translation students towards their L1 and L2, respectively. Secondly, it would be interesting to observe if the teaching of process writing in both languages is actually fostered. Thirdly, it would be important to analyze the L1 and L2 texts in depth in order to see if the students' perceptions match their actual output.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire Given to Students

CUESTIONARIO

Estimado Alumno,

Le agradeceríamos tenga a bien completar este cuestionario sobre los últimos dos trabajos que se hicieron en clase.

Usted tiene el derecho de permanecer anónimo/a y de recibir una explicación de la investigación en desarrollo.

La información relevada a través de este cuestionario sólo será utilizada con propósitos relativos a la investigación.

Muchas gracias por su cooperación.

I. Antecedentes de lectura y escritura	INGLES		ESPAÑOL	
	SI	NO	SI	NO
1. ¿Tuvo algún curso de redacción obligatorio en el colegio secundario?				
2. ¿Tuvo algún curso de redacción optativo en el colegio secundario?				
3. ¿Asistió alguna vez a algún taller literario?				
4. ¿Lee alguna revista?				
5. ¿Lee algún periódico?				
6. ¿Lee novelas o cuentos?				
7. ¿Tuvo que escribir monografías o ensayos en el colegio secundario?				
8. ¿Tuvo que escribir monografías o ensayos en la universidad?				
9. ¿Tuvo que leer ensayos en la universidad?				
10. ¿Aprobó la materia "Lengua Española"?	------	------		
11. ¿Aprobó las materias de Lengua inglesa?			------	------

II. Actividades relativas a la escritura A. Actividades previas a la escritura	INGLES		ESPAÑOL	
	SI	NO	SI	NO
1. ¿Recabó información relativa al tema antes de escribir?				
2. ¿Utilizó más de una fuente de información?				
3. ¿Consultó con alguien que sepa del tema?				
4. ¿Hizo algún esquema de la redacción antes de escribir?				
5. ¿Hizo un borrador antes de la versión final?				
6. ¿Tuvo en cuenta el lector al que se dirigía?				
7. ¿Consideró qué enfoque le iba a dar al ensayo?				

II. Actividades relativas a la escritura B. Actividades de escritura propiamente dichas	INGLES		ESPAÑOL	
	SI	NO	SI	NO
1. ¿Estableció con claridad el tema desde el principio?				
2. ¿Escribió un título apropiado?				
3. ¿Constató de que cada párrafo contara con una oración que contuviera la idea principal y un punto de vista predominante?				
4. ¿Aportó suficiente sustento relativo a la idea principal en cada párrafo?				
5. ¿Conectó las ideas de manera lógica dándole más predominio a las ideas más importantes?				
6. ¿Constató que los elementos conectores fueran apropiados?				
7. ¿Conectó los párrafos de manera adecuada?				
8. ¿Utilizó una variedad de estructuras sintácticas?				
9. ¿Tomó en cuenta las relaciones entre el tema y el rema?				
10. ¿Constató que las frases con preposiciones estuvieran bien ubicadas dentro de las oraciones?				
11. ¿Utilizó el registro apropiado?				

II. Actividades relativas a la escritura C. Actividades de edición	INGLES		ESPAÑOL	
	SI	NO	SI	NO
1. ¿Se cercioró de que el trabajo no tuviera errores ortográficos?				
2. ¿Constató que cada párrafo fuera coherente?				

3. ¿Se cercioró de que hubiera una adecuada conexión entre los párrafos?				
4. ¿Le pidió a alguien que revisara su trabajo?				
5. ¿Se cercioró de que la redacción cumpliera con los parámetros formales requeridos?				

III. ELEMENTOS EXÓGENOS

1. ¿Qué influencia tuvo el tiempo dedicado a estos trabajos en el proceso de su escritura? Marque con una X lo que corresponda.

Mucha	Bastante	Algo	Poca	Nada

2. ¿Cuáles de los elementos mencionados en "(II) Actividades relativas a la escritura" debió usted sacrificar por falta de tiempo? (Puede trazar una línea si contó con el tiempo suficiente)

_____

_____

_____

Appendix 2: Data Matrix

CHART 1

ANSWERS CONCERNING WRITING IN ENGLISH

respondent	***1***	***2***	***3***	***4***	***5***	***6***	***7***	***8***	***9***	***10***	***11***	***12***	***13***	***14***	***15***	***16***	***17***	***18***	
question																			ENGLISH
I.Q1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	44%
I.Q2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	22%
I.Q3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
I.Q4	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	39%
I.Q5	1	1	1	1	0		0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	53%
I-Q6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			1	1	1	1	1	1	100%
I.Q7	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1		0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	47%
I.Q8	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	39%
I.Q9	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	53%
I.Q10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		n/a
I.Q11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	100%
II-AQ1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	100%
II-AQ2	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	78%
II-AQ3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	11%
II-AQ4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	22%
II-AQ5	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	56%
II-AQ6	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	56%
II-AQ7	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	67%
II-BQ1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	94%
II-BQ2	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	72%
II-BQ3	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0		0	1	1	1	0	47%
II-BQ4	0	1	1	1	1		0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	76%
II-BQ5	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	78%
II-BQ6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	72%

II-BQ7		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	89%
II-BQ8		1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	72%
II-BQ9		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	22%
II-BQ10		1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	72%
II-BQ11		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	94%
II-CQ1		1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	94%
II-CQ2		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	89%
II-CQ3		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	89%
II-CQ4		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	6%
II-CQ5		1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	28%
III-Q1	3,6111111	3	3	5	5	4	4	1	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	5	4	4	
III-Q2		SEE CHART 4																		

CHART 2

ANSWERS CONCERNING WRITING IN SPANISH

		respondent	***1***	***2***	***3***	***4***	***5***	***6***	***7***	***8***	***9***	***10***	***11***	***12***	***13***	***14***	***15***	***16***	***17***	***18***
SPANISH	***QUESTION***																			
33%	I.Q1		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
33%	I.Q2		0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
39%	I.Q3		1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
78%	I.Q4		1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
72%	I.Q5		0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
76%	I-Q6		1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1	0	0	1
89%	I.Q7		1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
47%	I.Q8		1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0		1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
29%	I.Q9		1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
89%	I.Q10		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
n/a	I.Q11		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

100%	II-AQ1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
67%	II-AQ2	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	
33%	II-AQ3	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
28%	II-AQ4	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	
56%	II-AQ5	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
61%	II-AQ6	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	
67%	II-AQ7	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	
100%	II-BQ1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
67%	II-BQ2	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	
47%	II-BQ3	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0		0	1	1	1	0	
78%	II-BQ4	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	
72%	II-BQ5	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	
78%	II-BQ6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	
89%	II-BQ7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	
72%	II-BQ8	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	
22%	II-BQ9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	
72%	II-BQ10	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	
100%	II-BQ11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
89%	II-CQ1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	
83%	II-CQ2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	
89%	II-CQ3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	
6%	II-CQ4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
28%	II-CQ5	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	

CHART 3

	TOTAL																		
English	355	21	25	20	20	18	17	18	22	19	17	24	17	19	14	19	22	28	15

Spanish	378	26	26	23	19	20	20	17	23	23	22	23	16	17	12	22	22	29	18

III-Q1	THE INFLUENCE OF TIME (SCALE BETWEEN 1 AND 5) = 3,61																		
						CHART 4													
III-Q2	Answers to questions III-1																		
	respondent	***1***	***2***	***3***	***4***	***5***	***6***	***7***	***8***	***9***	***10***	***11***	***12***	***13***	***14***	***15***	***16***	***17***	***18***	
II-AQ1		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-AQ2		0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	17%
II-AQ3		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	17%
II-AQ4		0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	28%
II-AQ5		0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	28%
II-AQ6		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-AQ7		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-BQ1		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-BQ2		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-BQ3		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	11%
II-BQ4		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	11%
II-BQ5		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-BQ6		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	6%
II-BQ7		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-BQ8		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	11%
II-BQ9		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	17%
II-BQ10		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	6%
II-BQ11		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-CQ1		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-CQ2		0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6%

II-CQ3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
II-CQ4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6%
II-CQ5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
It is a subject this year	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6%
No Spanish information	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6%
There is little information	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	17%
No edition was possible	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	17%
All questions in Spanish	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6%

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A Multicultural Approach to English Teaching in Buenos Aires: Is it Happenning?

Daniela Bize[3]

Abstract
Multilingualism is an old phenomenon which has become a central issue for language teaching professionals in recent years as the world we live in becomes increasingly globalized. While in Buenos Aires the importance of a multicultural and multilingual approach to the teaching of English is acknowledged in official documents such as the Curricular Design for Foreign Languages (*Diseño Curricular de Lenguas Extranjeras*), the question remains whether this translates into concrete teaching practices or education policies; especially when Native American languages such as Quechua or Aymara are involved. As an attempt to start replying to this question, we chose to work on school districts 13 and 20, where there is a high percentage of Bolivian population. Fifty primary school English teachers were interviewed between November and December of 2014. This article analyses part of the results of these interviews, focusing on three conclusions. Firstly, most teachers do not regard multilingualism as an important component of their classes, which is reflected by their lack of knowledge of their students' linguistic background. Secondly, teaching practices are only incidentally affected by multicultural environments. Finally, training offered on these issues by the Ministry of Education is scarce and does not reach teachers, who are mostly unaware of its existence and, therefore, do not participate in it.

Keywords: multiculturalism, multilingualism, English as a 3L, Indigenous languages, teachers' perceptions.

Resumen
El multilingualismo es un fenómeno antiguo que ha cobrado nuevo protagonismo para los profesionales de la enseñanza de la lengua, a medida que el mundo en el que vivimos se torna cada vez más globalizado. A pesar de que en Buenos Aires la importancia de un enfoque multicultural y multilingüe para la enseñanza del inglés encuentra reconocimiento en documentos oficiales como el *Diseño Curricular de Lenguas Extranjeras*, todavía se desconoce si esto se traduce en prácticas docentes concretas o en políticas educativas; especialmente cuando se trata de lenguas originarias como el Quechua o el Aymara. En un intento de comenzar a responder este interrogante, decidimos trabajar con escuelas de los distritos escolares 13 y 20, en donde hay un alto porcentaje de población boliviana. Cincuenta profesores de inglés de escuelas primarias fueron entrevistados entre noviembre y diciembre de 2014. Este artículo presenta parte de los resultados de estas entrevistas, poniendo el énfasis en tres conclusiones. En primer lugar, la mayoría de los docentes no consideran el multilingualismo como un componente importante de sus clases, lo que se refleja en su falta de conocimiento sobre el repertorio lingüístico de sus estudiantes. En segundo lugar, las prácticas docentes solo se ven incidentalmente afectadas por los entornos multiculturales. Finalmente, la oferta

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de capacitación sobre estas cuestiones por parte del Ministerio de Educación es escasa y no alcanza a la población docente, que la desconoce y, por lo tanto, no participa de ella.

Palabras claves: multiculturalismo, multilingualismo, inglés como tercera lengua, lenguas originarias, percepciones de los docentes.

1. Introduction

Multilingualism, in all of its forms, is an old phenomenon. As it usually happens, however, it has taken its own particular characteristics in the modern world. Due to the increasing process of globalization we are immersed in and the constant migratory movement, multiculturalism is now more widely spread than ever. Therefore, the ability to speak several languages is, undoubtedly, becoming a more valuable asset with each passing day.

The language teaching field has eventually echoed this need for multilingual speakers. Modern approaches to language teaching shift the focus from acquiring the target language to acquiring linguistic competences that would allow for further language acquisition. It remains to be ascertained whether this paradigmatic shift is just a theory or whether it has reached the classroom.

This article presents part of larger research which attempts to start providing answers to this question. The first part of this paper will establish our theoretical framework. We will first analyze the way in which the linguistic system of a multilingual individual works. This will allow us to understand why multilingual learners do not acquire further languages in the same way monolingual speakers do. We will then describe a multilingual approach to the teaching of English on three different levels: an international, national and local level. We will also analyze legislation in Argentina and the City of Buenos Aires that provides fors how teachers should deal with multicultural environments.

The rest of our article will be devoted to the specific subject we have chosen: teachers of English working with students who are part of the Bolivian community and may be users of Quechua or Aymara learning English as a third language. We will start by

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describing the Bolivian community in Buenos Aires which is the second largest foreign group in the city. We will then explain our sampling process and the methodology used.

Finally, we will discuss the results of our research. This article will focus on the following three questions. Firstly, teachers' knowledge on their students' linguistic backgrounds; especially as regards Quechua and Aymara. Secondly, whether these teachers consider multiculturalism a relevant factor in their classes and, if so, where they see its impact. Finally, we will assess teachers' knowledge about training opportunities on multiculturalism and indigenous languages and whether they have received any training or not.

1. The multilingual subject's linguistic systems

Linguists have long been using terms such as "multilingual", "plurilingual" or "bilingual" in different contexts to designate different concepts. We will abide by Franceschini's definition of multilingualism, which considers it a blanket term denoting "various sorts of social and individual forms of language acquisition throughout an individual's lifetime (learning within the family, at school, etc.), as well as the practical use of language varieties in everyday life, at work, in institutions, etc." (2009, p. 29). Therefore, we will consider bilingualism, understood as the use of two languages, a variety of multilingualism.

Much of the early literature on bilingualism in the 1950s and 1960s was concerned with measuring it objectively in quantitative terms, thus, focusing on use and competence (Romaine, 1995, p. 14). The outcome was a classification of different types of bilingualism according to different configurations of dominance of one language over the other. For example, terms such as "ambibilingual", "equilingual", "balanced bilingual" (Edwards, 1994, p. 9) or "ideal bilingual" (Romaine 1995, p. 5) were coined to designate those people with an equal command of both their languages. This reflects the two-code theory, "that quantitative view of bilingualism which assumes that the bilingual individual has two complete linguistic systems, two codes, each of which resembles the single system of the monolingual speaker" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1984, p. 20).

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However, thinking of a bilingual person's linguistic repertoire as a mere addition of two separate linguistic systems does not allow us to account for the complex ways in which these systems interact in real life situations —most often than not, quantitatively equal competence in every linguistic system is the exception and not the norm. This will be the case in diglossic societies, where two language varieties co-exist but they are specialized according to function. "Since one would be able to use only one of the languages in certain domains, the ability to use the other language in those domains would decline, or perhaps never be 'fully acquired'" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1984, p. 30). Something similar happens in the case of immigrants who may speak one language at home and another at school or work. One or two generations afterwards, the children or grandchildren of these immigrants, who will be competent enough to speak the majority language in all contexts and will do so in most cases, may still feel a strong affective attachment to their minority language which makes them prefer this language in certain situations (Romaine, 1995, p. 22).

Herdina and Jessner developed an alternative framework to understand multilingual proficiency in 2002: The Dynamic Model of Multilingualism (henceforth, DMM). Jessner expresses it in the following formula:

> LS1 + LS2 + LS3 + LSN + CLIN + M = MP
>
> where:
>
> LS: language systems
>
> CLIN: cross-linguistic interaction
>
> M: M(ultilingualism) factor
>
> MP: Multilingual proficiency.
>
> In DMM the concept of multilingual proficiency is defined as a cumulative measure of psycholinguistic systems in contact (LS1, LS2, LS3, etc.), their interaction as expressed in CLIN [phenomena such as code-switching or borrowing] and the influence that the development of a multilingual system shows on the learner and the learning process [the M-factor]. (Jessner, 2006, p. 33)

While, traditionally, language acquisition was thought of as linear and continuous language growth, the DMM stresses its dynamic quality: "the development of one system influences the development of the others in ways which are not additive. A dynamic multilingual system will thus have properties that its parts do not contain" (Jessner, 2006, p. 33). This is what is referred to as the "M-factor". One of the main components of the M-factor is heightened metalinguistic awareness.

Metalinguistic awareness can be defined as "the ability to focus attention on language as an object in itself or to think abstractly about language and, consequently, to play with or manipulate language" (Jessner, 2006, p. 42). Although we all have some degree of metalinguistic awareness, it also varies from individual to individual and it is affected in different ways by different variables such as age, education, literacy and, most importantly for us, exposure to other languages.

A higher expression of this ability results beneficial when acquiring further languages, as research has shown[4]. Let us take, for example, the ability to neologize. Once subjects become aware of how certain affixes are attached to words to create new meaning, they can recreate this process, thus arriving at new words by trial and error during the communicative process, instead of having to wait for the knowledge to be imparted by the teacher. In other words, metalinguistic awareness makes a learner more autonomous.

2. A multicultural and multilingual approach to language teaching

On an international level, the very influential *Common European Framework of Reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment* (henceforth, CEFR), issued by the Council of Europe in 2001, suggests an approach to language learning linked to the promotion of what they call "plurilingualism" (p. 4)[5].

[4] See e.g. Ianco-Worrall (1972), Diaz (1985) and Cenoz (2005).

[5] We face terminological difficulties once more when resorting to the CEFR. In this case, a distinction is drawn between "multilingualism" and "plurilingualism", associating the first to the mere "knowledge of a number of languages, or the co-existence of different languages in a given society" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 4) while the second would imply that an individual "does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact" (p. 4).

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This plurilingual approach to language teaching results in the focus shifting from the target language(s) to the interaction among these language systems and the way in which this affects an individual's linguistic repertory and/or his/her future language learning:

> The aim of language education is profoundly modified. It is no longer seen as simply to achieve 'mastery' of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the 'ideal native speaker' as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place. (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 5)

In parallel to what has happened in Europe, Latin-American countries have also started to reconsider their position on cultural diversity. During the nineteenth century and well into the second half of the twentieth, schools attempted to turn all their students into "Argentine citizens", disregarding their diverse backgrounds, fulfilling what Thisted calls the "homogenizing" function of the school system (2011). An Argentine citizen had to bear an Argentine identity which, as it is usually the case with national identities, was built on the "we/they" dichotomy, otherwise expressed as "civilization/barbarity" (DINIESE, 2007). Indigenous people lay, of course, on the other side of the dichotomy: they were considered inferior and inclusion was always conditioned to the acceptance of this fact in the form of abandoning their culture or fulfilling a "productive role" in society, either as labor or in the army.

The constitutional reform of 1994 constitutes a pivotal moment in the history of indigenous rights. The new constitution empowered Congress to recognize the ethnic and cultural pre-existence of the indigenous peoples in Argentina and to guarantee respect for the identity and the right to bilingual and intercultural education[6].

Following this change of the Constitution, legislation was passed to provide a legal framework for the rights promulgated in 1994. On a national level, Resolution 107/99 by the Federal Council of Culture and Education (1999), for example, defined bilingual and intercultural education as that which contemplates the diversity of cultures and languages of the populations to which it responds, while, at the same time, it considers

[6] Argentine Constitution (1994), section 75 §17.

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the relationship of these cultures and languages with the national and international societies in which they are inserted.

It becomes clear from this definition that bilingual and intercultural education (henceforth EIB, for its acronym in Spanish) should not only guarantee the learners' right to develop their own cultural identity by receiving formal education in their indigenous language, but also offer the means to communicate with other cultures on a national level (through the teaching of Spanish) and on an international level. This is where the teaching of English, although not mentioned in the resolution itself, becomes fundamental.

On a local level, the 1996 Constitution of the City of Buenos Aires, in its section 17, acknowledges and guarantees the right to be different; stating that discrimination based on ethnicity will not be accepted. However, we should bear in mind that discrimination may take different forms. Not preparing teachers to deal with multicultural classrooms efficiently is one way of disregarding the fact that these classrooms exist. Especially when the Constitution of the City itself states in its 24th article that the City takes responsibility over teacher training to guarantee their competence.

There were not many programs related to indigenous languages being carried out in the City of Buenos Aires at the moment this research was being conducted. The City Government had been participating of regional and national meetings on the EIB modality since 2008, but there were no such schools in the city at the time and none has been founded since. The teacher training center of the City of Buenos Aires, the *Centro de Pedagogías de Anticipación* (CePA, for its acronym in Spanish)[7], which reports to the Ministry of Education of the City, had delivered some courses related to indigenous issues, such as: "Spanish as Second Language in the school. A suggestion to approach Bilingual Intercultural Education"[8] in 2008, addressed to ZAP[9] teachers or coordinators, or "Ethnic and Cultural Diversity in the Foreign Language Class"[10] in 2014, addressed specifically to foreign language teachers. These courses were completely free of cost.

[7] Currently called *Escuela de Maestros.*
[8] *El Español como Lengua Segunda en la escuela. Una propuesta para abordar la Educación Intercultural Bilingüe.*
[9] Areas of Priority Action*: Zona de Acción Prioritaria* (ZAP, for its acronym in Spanish).
[10] *Diversidad Étnica y Cultural en el Aula de Lengua Extranjera.*

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Since 2010, the *Dirección Operativa de Lenguas Extranjeras* (D.O.L.E, for its acronym in Spanish), has held the annual meeting "Buenos Aires and its languages" (*Buenos Aires y sus idiomas*). Talks on EIB projects or indigenous languages have been delivered during some of these meetings. However, these meetings, although free, take place during working hours and teachers who want to attend are not exempted from their duties in order to do so.

Finally, there is one last project we would like to mention: SEEDS, Sowing Experience and Evoking Diversity in Schools. The D.O.L.E., together with the U.S. Embassy, funded this program whose first edition took place during the last semester of 2012, and the second—and last—edition during the first semester of 2013. Each edition consisted of four workshops dictated in Spanish but clearly addressed to foreign language teachers on EIB and material design. This course was also free but it was dictated after school hours.

Another important resolution was passed in 2001, when the Curricular Design for Foreign Languages (*Diseño Curricular de Lenguas Extranjeras*) was created through Resolution 260-SED-01. This document provides the general guidelines for the teaching of foreign languages in the City of Buenos Aires, in multicultural environments or otherwise.

The Curricular Design for Foreign Languages states six general aims. We are particularly interested in aims number one, three and six.

> 1. To generate an attitude of confidence in the students regarding their possibilities of learning a foreign language while being respectful of the different rhythms and learning styles, and acknowledging mistakes as constitutive of learning (Curricular Design for Foreign Languages, p. 26).

We believe this aim to be particularly important for our investigation. Being respectful of a student particular learning style implies being aware of their linguistic background, since as we have seen before, multilingual learners inevitably resort to their previous knowledge when acquiring additional languages. At the same time, in order to generate confidence in the student, teachers must be aware that this previous knowledge can and

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should be used in the students' advantage and thus overcome their own prejudices and stereotypes.

> 3. To generate an attitude of reflection about language functioning in the particular features of each language which may facilitate the learning of other languages (Curricular Design for Foreign Languages, p. 27).

This is the objective that may be most easily linked to a multilingual approach. Schools in the city of Buenos Aires, according to what has been stated above, should not only concern themselves with the teaching of one particular foreign language, English in most cases, but with the attitude of reflection this learning involves, so that this could eventually lead to the acquisition of additional languages.

It is also interesting to notice that the Curricular Design for Foreign Languages makes a distinction between "use of language" and "reflection on language" and stipulates that teachers of foreign languages should encourage both. Students and teachers are asked to reflect on three instances: metalinguistic reflection, cognitive reflection and intercultural reflection. The instance of metalinguistic reflection is described as including the aspects related to the functioning of language in the particular features of each language: linguistic, pragmatic and discursive aspects. It also suggests contrasting other languages against the mother tongue. In the case of multilingual students, one may argue that this contrast should be carried out between the target language and the wealth of their linguistic repertoires, instead of simply assuming that all students' mother tongue is an idealized version of River Plate Spanish.

> 6. To contribute to the perception of a world in which several languages and heterogeneous cultures co-exist involved in different power relations (Curricular Design for Foreign Languages, p. 27).

Almost at the very beginning of the document, taking for granted the instrumental value of foreign languages, the Curricular Design develops, instead, their formative sense. By learning another language, the arbitrary quality of language in general becomes evident. The teaching of foreign languages at schools becomes, therefore, a space that promotes a fundamental ethical attitude for the processes of social and cultural democratization of a linguistic community: the awareness of the existence of the other. Thus conceived, the

foreign language class constitutes a privileged space to learn to co-exist with differences and become aware of the existence of the other. In this sense, it constitutes an invaluable instrument to acknowledge and build one's own sociocultural universe (Curricular Design for Foreign Languages, p. 26).

We could argue that the foreign language class is not only a privileged space to become aware of "the other", embodied in foreign cultures, but also of our own cultural diversity. The teacher of English, the lingua franca per excellence, perhaps the language with the highest social status nowadays, may find himself or herself in a unique position to help students reflect on the inherent value of all languages and cultures, those coming from distant countries and those found in our own territory.

3. Multiculturalism in Buenos Aires: the Bolivian community

Buenos Aires has always been a multicultural city. According to the latest National Census, conducted in 2010[11], the city of Buenos Aires has a population of 2,890,151, out of which 381,778 were not born in Argentina. This means that foreigners constitute 13.21 % of the inhabitants of the city. Most of this foreign population come either from Paraguay (80,325 people, 21.04 %) or from Bolivia (76,609 people, 20.07 %). If we focus on individuals aged between 0 and 14 years old we find that Bolivians are the majority this time with 8,265 people (30.96 % of the foreigners within this age group) while Paraguayans come second with 6,733 (25.22 %). We should not forget that these figures do not include all those children of Bolivian parents who were born in Argentina but are, nevertheless, raised in Bolivian families. Immigrants coming to Buenos Aires, as it happens elsewhere, have always tried to stay together. Consequently, some cultural features are maintained within immigrant communities, despite the fact that language attrition can always be observed within the second generation. This makes the Bolivian community in Buenos Aires both much larger than what the census reflects and also impossible to measure accurately.

Neither do we have accurate information on the languages spoken by this community. However, we can hypothesize that many of them are in fact bilingual. The 2001

[11] Information retrieved from www.censo2010.indec.gov.ar, last accessed in January, 2015.

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Bolivian national census, conducted by the National Statistics Institute of Bolivia[12], states that the total population of the country is of 8,274,325 people[13]. The languages most widely used are Spanish (6,097,122 speakers), Quechua (2,124,040 speakers) and Aymara[14] (1,462,286 speakers).

The exact number of people who speak or understand Quechua or Aymara in Argentina, whether they were born in the territory or not[15], is unknown. The Complementary Survey of Indigenous Peoples (ECPI, for its acronym in Spanish) conducted in 2004-2005 selected its sample population taking into consideration the National Census of 2001. In this census, there were no questions as regards languages. There was, however, the following question: "Is there a person in this house who considers himself or herself a member or descendant of an indigenous people?" The complementary survey conducted in 2004-2005, which did include questions as regards languages, sampled its population among those who replied affirmatively. As a result, individuals who do not consider themselves part of any indigenous people and yet, speak an indigenous language, were thus excluded from the ECPI.

Even if results by the ECPI are not particularly relevant, we can still reflect on the data provided the Argentinian and Bolivian national censuses and safely hypothesize that a large percentage of the Bolivian or second-generation Bolivian population currently living in Buenos Aires must have some knowledge of Quechua or Aymara, even when we cannot know the exact number.

Given that geographical distribution of this population is not even throughout the city's territory, some areas will show a higher concentration of Quechua or Aymara users, making the question even more relevant for those teachers working in such areas. As we can see in Figure 1, while Bolivians represent only 2.65 % of all the people living in

[12] Information retrieved from www.ine.gob.bo, last accessed in January, 2015.
[13] The latest national census, conducted in 2012, shows an increase of the population of over 1.8 million. However, the latest information on languages corresponds to the 2001 census.
[14] Following Dreidemie, we will use the single term "Quechua" to refer to what is in fact a linguistic family that includes several varieties sometimes mutually unintelligible (2011, p. 120). The term "Aymara", on the other hand, will be used to refer to Central Aymara, spoken in Peru, Bolivia, Chile and Argentina (*Ethnologue*, Retrieved from www.ethnologue.com/language/aym, last consulted on January 2nd, 2015).
[15] Current national borders do not necessarily reflect the linguistic distribution of Latin America indigenous languages. Quechua and Aymara are languages spoken both in Bolivia and Argentina by the descendants of the original inhabitants of the continent.

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Buenos Aires, over half of that population, 66 %, live in *comunas* 7, 8 or 9, where they represent 8.78 % of the total inhabitants.

Figure 1: Native and foreign population of the City of Buenos Aires by comunas.

Comunas	Total Population	Bolivian population	Percentage of Bolivian population over total population of each comuna
COMUNA 1	205.886	5.629	2,73%
COMUNA 2	157.932	520	0,33%
COMUNA 3	187.537	2.153	1,15%
COMUNA 4	218.245	5.881	2,69%
COMUNA 5	179.005	1.370	0,77%
COMUNA 6	176.076	823	0,47%
COMUNA 7	220.591	19.566	8,87%
COMUNA 8	187.237	20.365	10,88%
COMUNA 9	161.797	10.677	6,60%
COMUNA 10	166.022	4.595	2,77%
COMUNA 11	189.832	2.166	1,14%
COMUNA 12	200.116	418	0,21%
COMUNA 13	231.331	545	0,24%
COMUNA 14	225.970	728	0,32%
COMUNA 15	182.574	1.173	0,64%
TOTAL	**2.890.151**	**76.609**	**2,65%**

Source: INDEC

Figure 2 allows us to appreciate the geographical disposition of these three *comunas* and their concentration within the South/South-West portion of the city, thus, confirming what we claimed earlier as to the tendency within immigrant population to stay together, as far as possible. The focus of our study will be on schools situated in these areas.

Figure 2: The City of Buenos Aires and its Comunas.

Source: www.buenosaires.gob.ar/noticias/que-son-las-comunas-0

4. Our research: objectives and methodology

The advantages of implementing a multilingual approach to language teaching, as discussed above, have led us to question ourselves about teaching practices and education policies regarding the teaching of English as a third or fourth language in multicultural environments. We have chosen to develop this question in connection to the Bolivian community, since most foreign children living in the City of Buenos Aires belong to this community. The following are some of the questions our study intends to start answering[16]:

[16] This article presents only part of what was a larger research.

1. Are teachers working in these areas aware of their students' linguistic background, especially in the case of Quechua and Aymara? If so, how did they become aware?

2. Do these teachers foster cultural diversity as stated on the Curricular Design for Foreign Languages?

3. Have these teachers had access to any of the training workshops or courses offered by the City of Buenos Aires on multiculturalism or indigenous languages and Intercultural Bilingual Education (EIB, for its acronym in Spanish)?

In order to answer these questions, we decided to interview the very same teachers whose opinions and knowledge we wanted to assess[17]. This means, of course, that we will be confronted with only one side of the situation. We cannot contrast what teachers know about their students with the actual students or what they say they do in class taking into account a multicultural approach with what they actually do. This falls beyond the scope of our research. We only intend to provide a first exploratory approach.

The geographical scope of our research has been dictated by different variables. In the first place, by the results of the National Census as previously discussed. Secondly, given their socio-economic status, most of these children attend state schools[18]. Consequently, we have decided to restrict our scope to teachers of English working in the state school system within the South-Western area of the City of Buenos Aires.

While for government purposes the city is divided into *comunas*, for educational purposes it is divided into school districts. In order to interview the teachers in any district, we needed to request permission from the district supervisor. We decided to focus on districts 13 and 20, whose supervisor at the time, Ms Elena Rivas, was willing to collaborate with our research.

Finally, we decided to restrict our scope to teachers of English working in the first cycle of primary education: first, second and third grade. We made this decision based on the fact that we believe that by interviewing first cycle teachers the feedback of our research

[17] The complete questionnaire used can be found in the Appendix. This article focuses on the results for questions 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9 and 10.
[18] By "state schools" we refer to public schools which are also completely free and funded entirely by the state.

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may eventually have an impact on the rest of the school years of these students, while if we focused on second cycle teachers the chances of this happening would be limited to a fewer number of years.

In short, our population encompasses teachers of English working in, at least, one of the first cycle grades (first, second or third) of state primary schools in school districts 13 and 20, located within *comunas* 8 and 9 of the City of Buenos Aires.

There are 44 schools in districts 13 and 20. Only one of them, the plurilingual school of district 20, does not teach English in first cycle, which gives us a total of 43 schools. Twenty-one of these schools are all-day schools, which means the same group of students attend classes in the morning and in the afternoon, meeting the same teachers. The other twenty-two schools are half-day schools, which means they work as two separate schools, one in the morning with one group of students and one staff, and one in the afternoon with a different group of students and a different staff, sharing only the principal, vice-principal and secretaries.

We cannot know the exact number of teachers of English working in first cycle in districts 13 and 20, but given that the most common situation is for schools to have two teachers, then we should expect the total number to be approximately 86[19]. After careful consideration of both our limitations and the size of the population, we decided to conduct 50 interviews, an amount that was both plausible and representative.

Supervisor Elena Rivas issued a message through official channels to all schools in the districts notifying them of the research, explaining in general terms its purpose and the fact that everyone interviewed was to remain anonymous.

In the end, during the months of November and December of 2014, we managed to conduct 50 interviews in the 29 schools which received us, out of the 43 schools which teach English in first cycle, encompassing as many schools as it was possible given our limitations. These schools are geographically distributed across the districts, making the data more representative of the total population, as it can be seen on Figures 3 and 4.

[19] The Supervisor, who showed utmost collaboration with us, could not eventually gather enough information to provide us with the exact number. However, she did confirm our estimate.

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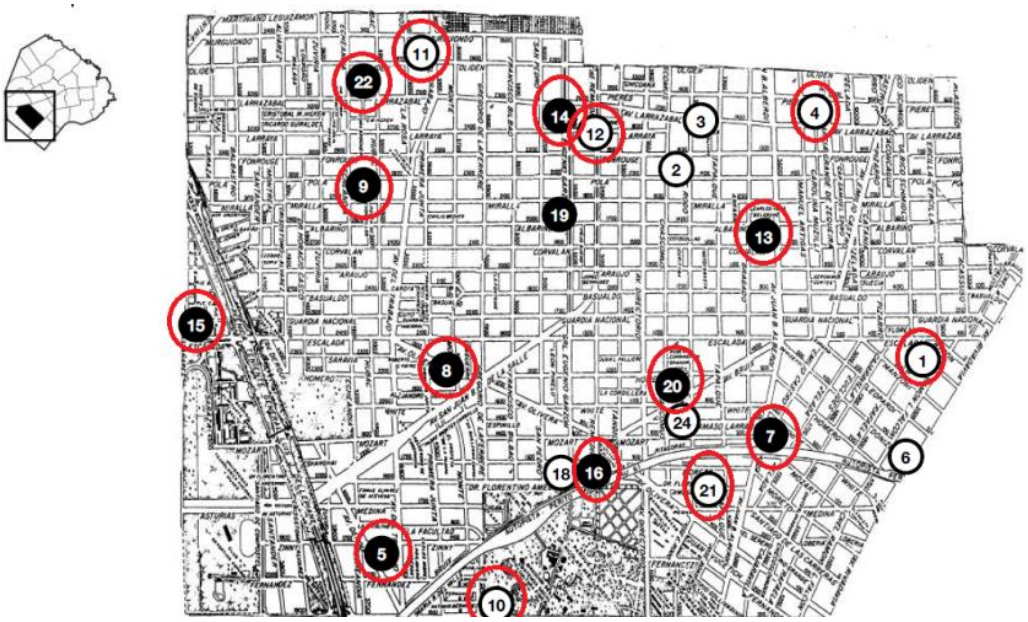
Figure 3: School District Number 13. Schools circled represent schools where at least one interview was conducted.



Source: www.ute.org.ar/index.php/es/publicaciones/nomencladores

Figure 4: School District Number 20. Schools circled represent schools where at least one interview was conducted.

Source: www.ute.org.ar/index.php/es/publicaciones/nomencladores

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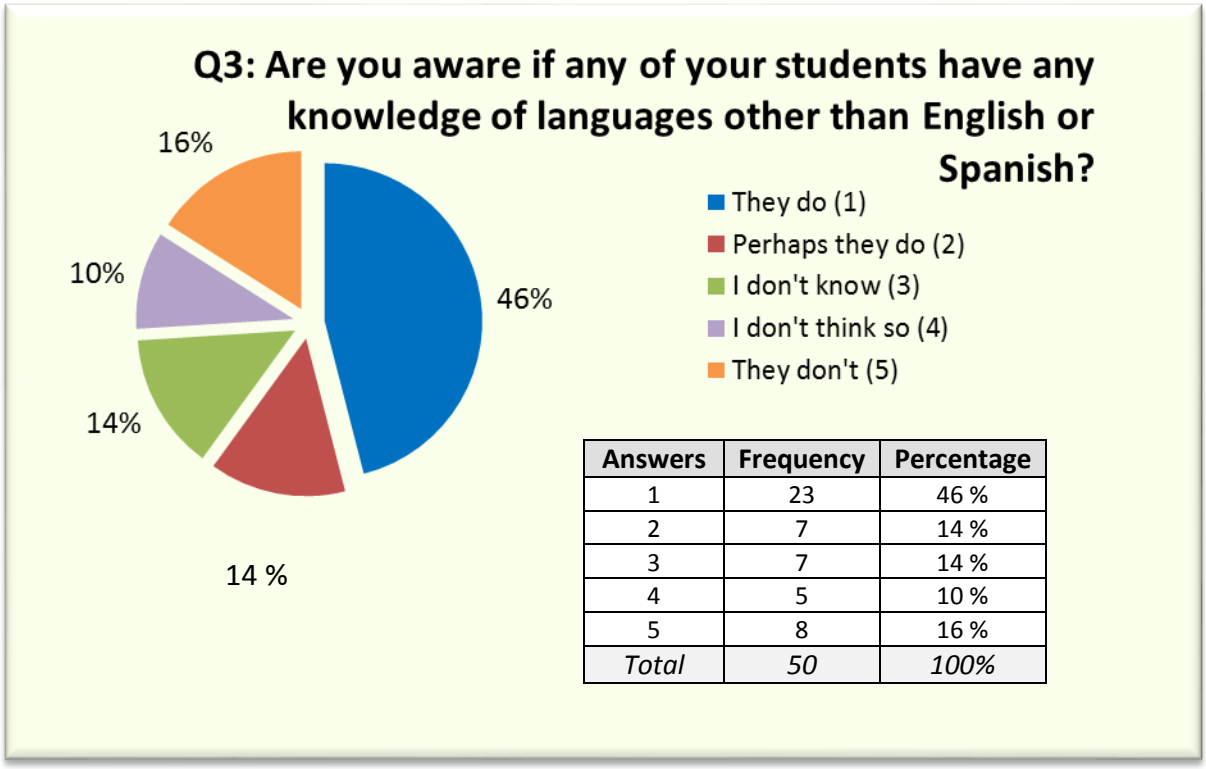
5. Results and analysis

5.a. Teachers' knowledge of their students' linguistic background; especially as regards Quechua or Aymara

Figure 5 graphs interviewees' answers to question 3: "Are you aware if any of your students have any knowledge of languages other than English or Spanish?", while Figure 6 divides these answers into two categories: subjects who claimed to know about their students' linguistic background and subjects who showed some level of uncertainty.

Figure 5: Interviewees' answers to question 3



Answers	Frequency	Percentage
1	23	46 %
2	7	14 %
3	7	14 %
4	5	10 %
5	8	16 %
Total	*50*	*100%*

As we can see in Figure 6, the percentage of teachers who cannot claim to be sure about their students' linguistic background[20] is quite high per se, reaching a 38 %. As stated

[20] We divided answers to question 3 "Are you aware if any of your students have any knowledge of languages other than English or Spanish" as follows: Expression of certainty: *"They don't* (speak other

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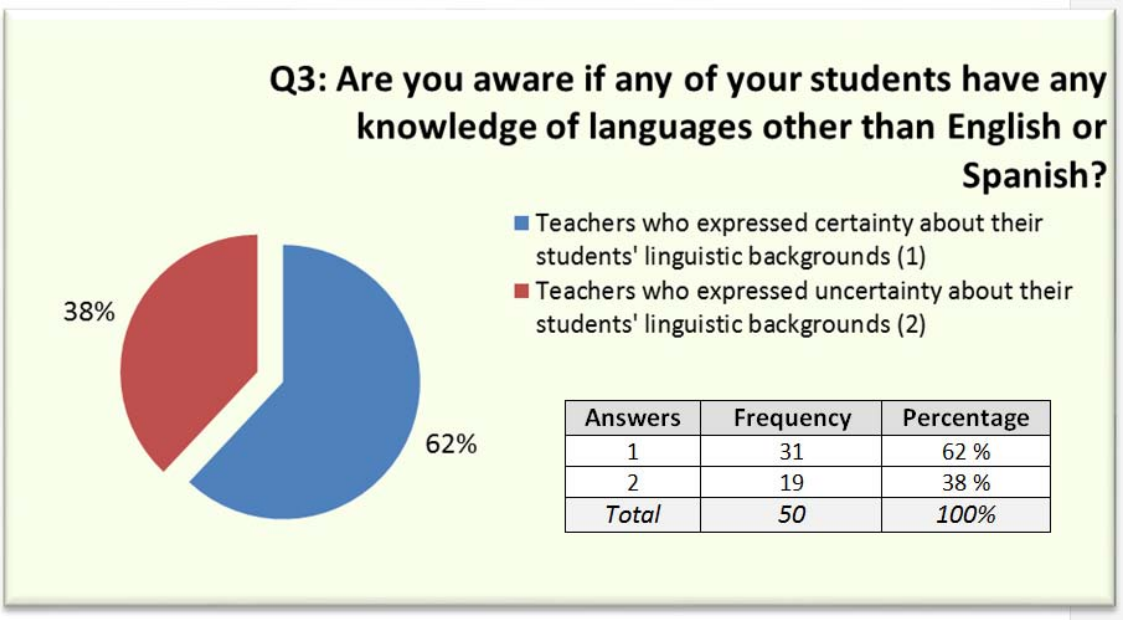
before, we have chosen to study teachers' perspective on the questions, which limits our possibilities to discover if the 62 % who believe they know if their students have any knowledge of languages other than English or Spanish are actually right on their assumptions.

Figure 6: Interviewees' awareness of students' linguistic background



Answers	Frequency	Percentage
1	31	62 %
2	19	38 %
Total	*50*	*100%*

It is within our possibilities, however, to further analyze the answers of this 62 % from the rest of the questionnaire. Let us analyze first the case of the 8 subjects who replied their students had no knowledge of languages other than English or Spanish. When asked in question 6: "Are you aware if any of your Bolivian or second generation Bolivian students speak Quechua or Aymara?", 5 of them changed their answers: one stated that they did speak Quechua or Aymara, while the other 4 claimed not to know. We should conclude that these 5 teachers are not actually certain about their students' linguistic backgrounds.

On the other hand, out of the other 3 teachers who consistently replied negatively to questions 3 and 6, one also claimed that "*They find it difficult to speak Spanish, even*",

languages)" and "*They do* (speak other languages)". Expressions of uncertainty: "*Perhaps they do* (speak other languages)", "*I don't know*" and "*I don't think so* (i.e., "I don't think they speak other languages" as opposed to "I *know* they don't speak other languages").

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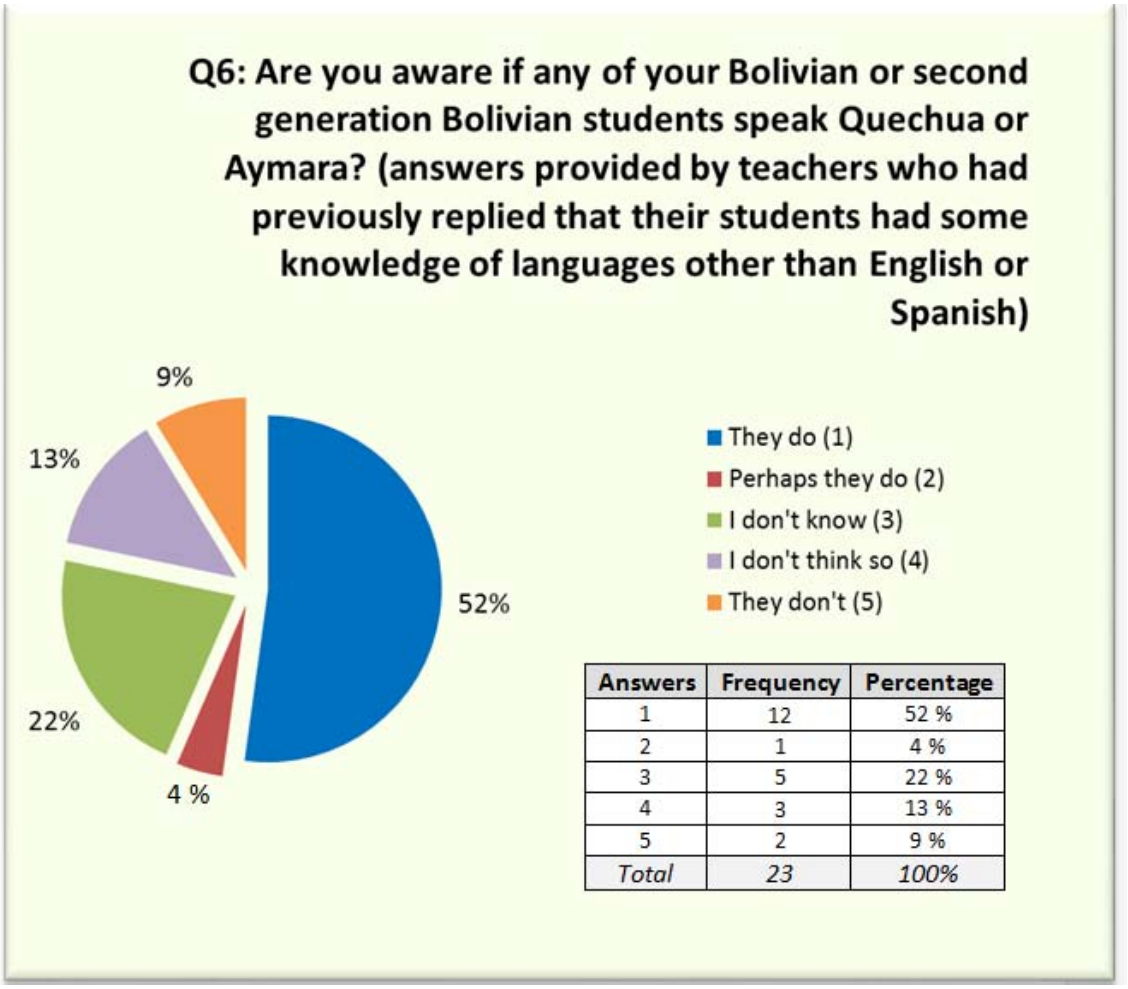
comment that may reveal a level of prejudice against this community, leading us to doubt whether her[21] knowledge was actually based on facts or not.

This leaves us with only 2 teachers who claim to be sure their students have knowledge of no other languages than English or Spanish and who did not somehow contradict this answer throughout the rest of the questionnaire.

Figure 7 shows answers given to question 6 ("Are you aware if any of your Bolivian or second generation Bolivian students speak Quechua or Aymara?") by the 23 teachers who had replied in question 3 that their students did have knowledge of languages other than English or Spanish.

Figure 7: Answers given to question 6



Answers	Frequency	Percentage
1	12	52 %
2	1	4 %
3	5	22 %
4	3	13 %
5	2	9 %
Total	*23*	*100%*

[21] We have decided to use the feminine pronoun for singular references since most teachers interviewed were female. This should not be taken as an indication that this particular teacher, or any other mentioned below, was in fact female.

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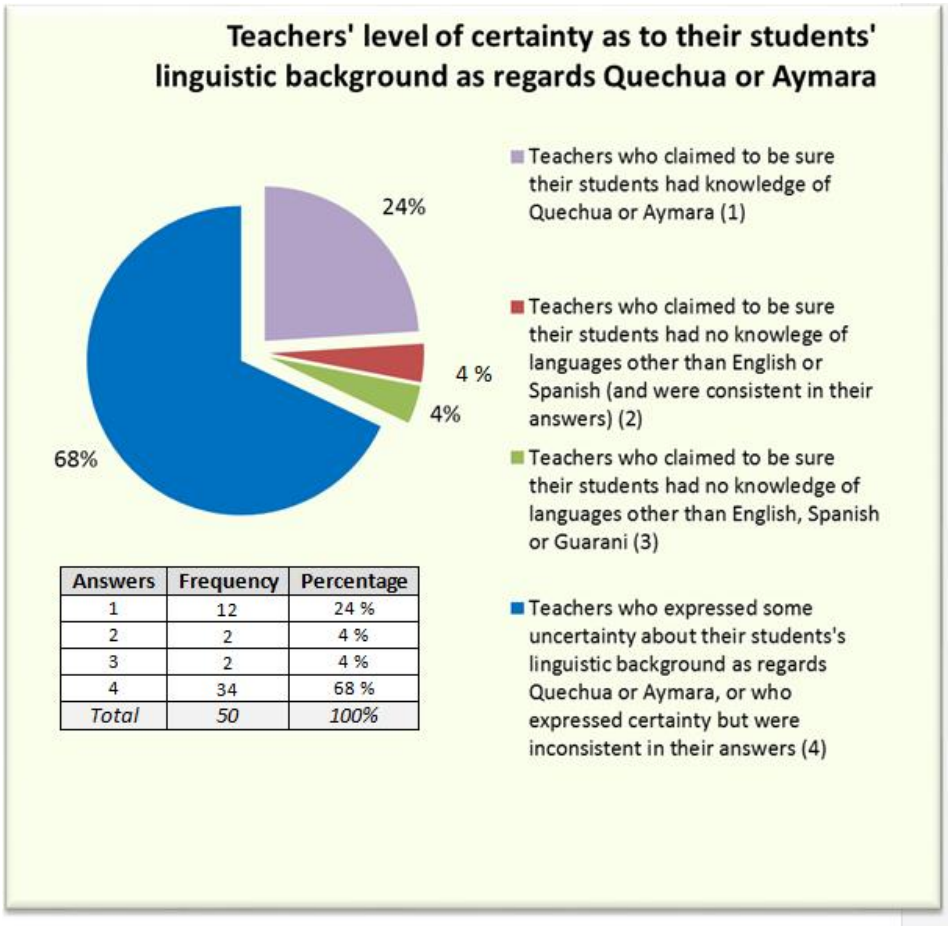
As we can see, the level of certainty diminishes when asked specifically about Quechua or Aymara. Out of the 23 subjects who said their students did have knowledge of other languages, we found that 9 teachers were, nevertheless, uncertain as regards their students' knowledge of Quechua or Aymara. These 9 teachers, as well as those 2 teachers who claimed to be sure their students had no knowledge of these languages, were recorded during interviews to have mentioned Guarani as the language their students spoke.

In short, if we contrast questions 3 and 6 we realize that lack of knowledge as regards students' linguistic backgrounds is especially high when it comes to Quechua or Aymara, since 68 % of our sample either expressed uncertainty on the topic or expressed certainty but then were inconsistent in their other answers. We have graphed our conclusions in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Conclusions

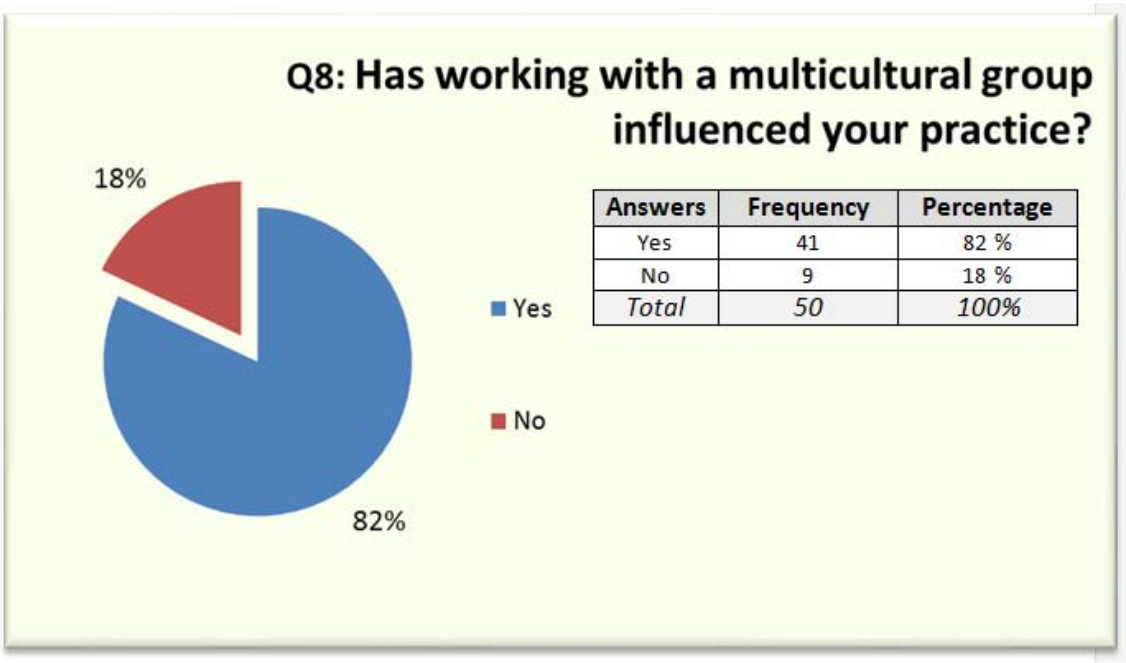


Answers	Frequency	Percentage
1	12	24 %
2	2	4 %
3	2	4 %
4	34	68 %
Total	*50*	*100%*

5.b. Teachers' perception on the effect of multiculturalism on their teaching practices

As it was explained before, when analyzing this variable our intention is not to discuss the actual impact of multiculturalism on teaching practices but teachers' perception of this impact. In order to do so, we will analyze first answers given to question 8, represented in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Interviewees' answers to question 8



Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	41	82 %
No	9	18 %
Total	*50*	*100%*

All teachers surveyed worked in multicultural environments where you could find students from different national backgrounds, especially from Bolivia or Paraguay. Some teachers said their students were not Bolivian or Paraguayan per se, since they had been born in Argentina to Bolivian or Paraguayan parents[22]. Nevertheless, as it has been previously argued, a person's family background informs that person's identity, so all classes encompassed by this study were, in a larger or lesser degree, multicultural. However, 18 % of our sample claimed not to be affected in their teaching practices by the multicultural factor[23].

[22] Even in these cases, teachers said "most" of their students were second generation immigrants. They all allowed for at least one fully foreign student.
[23] One teacher replied multiculturalism had not affected her practice, but then chose option g. (Others) and added: *"Maybe in group management. Because sometimes they offend each other".* We considered that teacher actually did feel multiculturalism had affected her practice.

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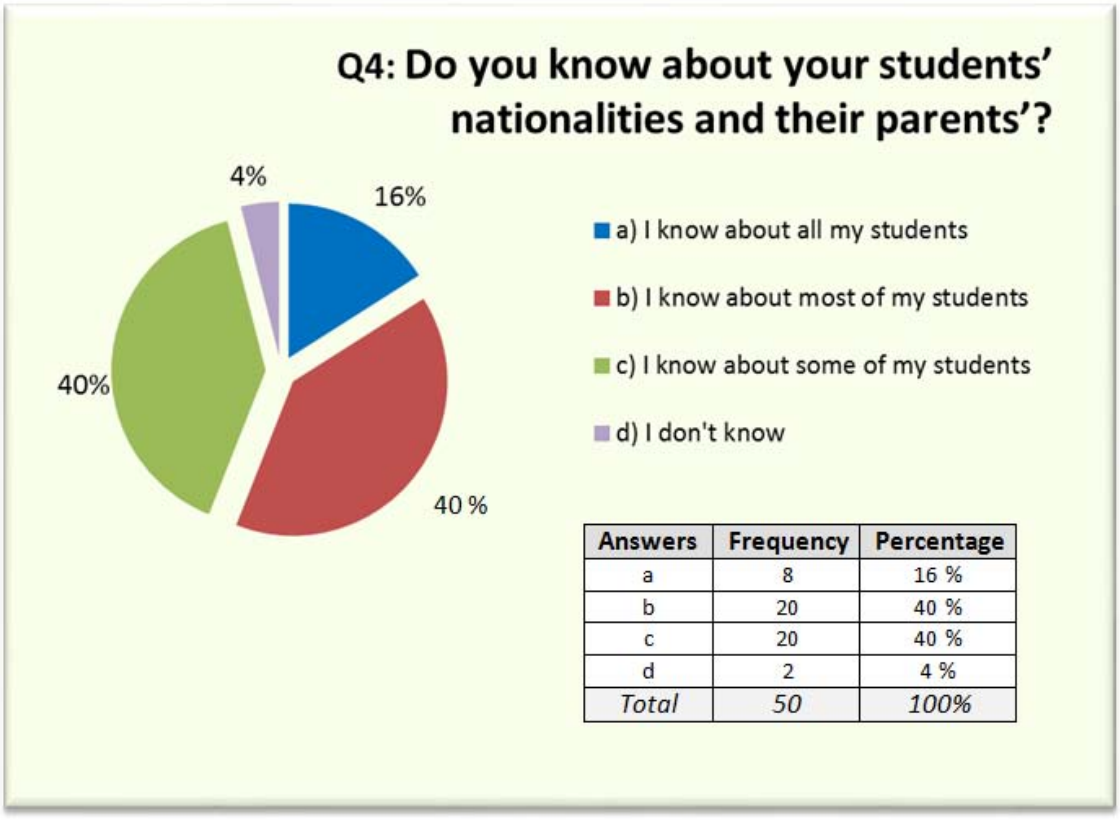
We could also analyze this topic by considering answers to questions 4 and 5, which inquired into teachers' knowledge of their students' national backgrounds. As we can see in Figure 10, 40 % of the teachers surveyed declared to know only about some of their students, while 4 % did not know about any of them at all. This means that almost half of the sample (44 %) was not thoroughly informed on their students' national backgrounds. This inevitably poses the question of how much these teachers actually felt affected by the multicultural factor when, in fact, they could not accurately describe it.

Figure 10: Interviewees' answers to question 4



Answers	Frequency	Percentage
a	8	16 %
b	20	40 %
c	20	40 %
d	2	4 %
Total	*50*	*100%*

It remains to know if these teachers' knowledge on the subject is actually accurate. Figure 11 shows how those 48 teachers who claimed to have at least some knowledge as to their students' national background said to have acquired such knowledge[24].

[24] Subjects could choose more than one source for this question.

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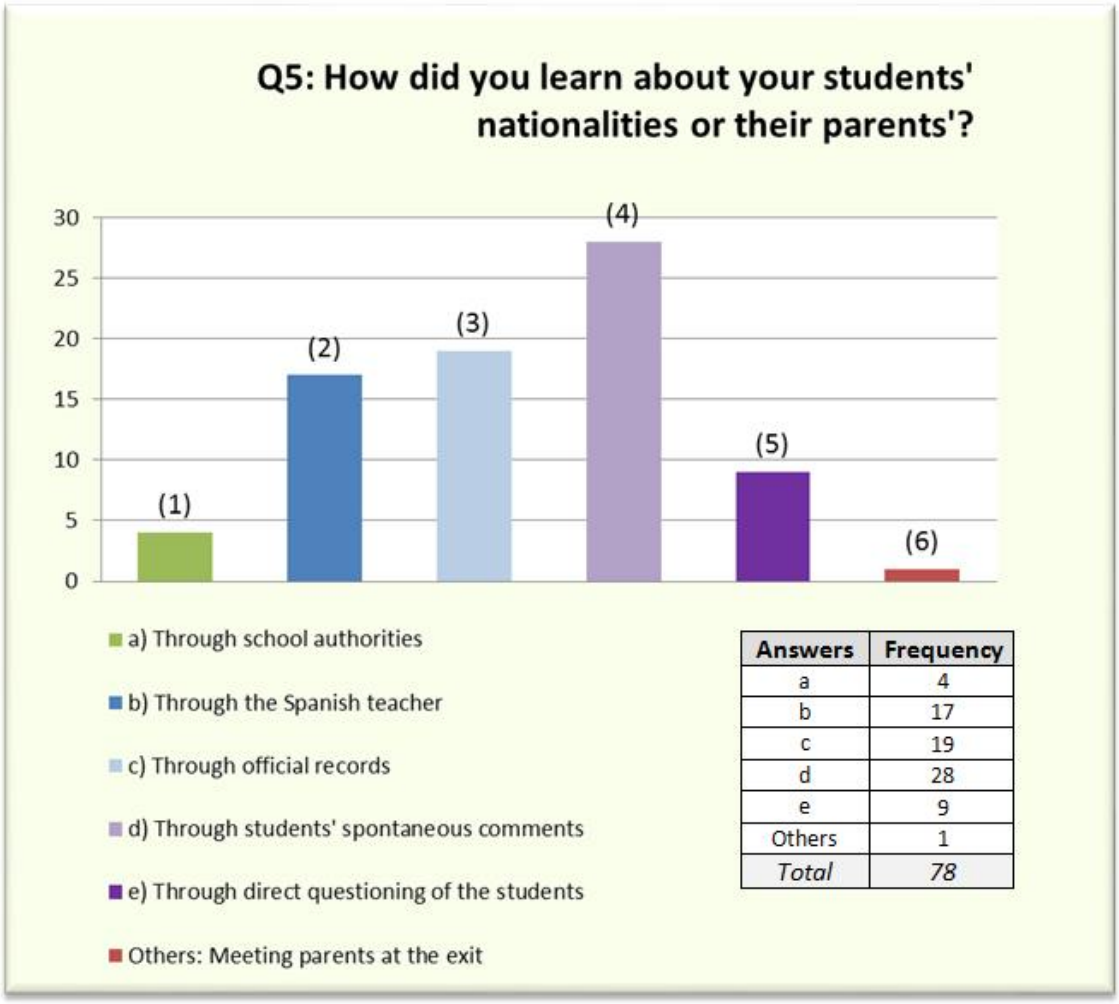
Figure 11: Interviewees' answers to question 5



Answers	Frequency
a	4
b	17
c	19
d	28
e	9
Others	1
Total	*78*

Before analyzing these results, we should bear in mind that teachers had been asked by their supervisor to account for their students' nationalities before this survey took place, which made some of them resort to official records when they had not done so before, as it was sometimes told to us during interviews. Even so, the most common source was students' spontaneous comments. Only nine teachers said to have directly asked their students on this issue. The source least resorted to, except for the one teacher who claimed to personally know their students' parents, was school authorities. Given that we cannot know how much our own study impacted the subjects' answers to this question, we cannot say how many teachers resort to the most reliable source which would be official records. We can say, however, that the number of teachers who actually asked their students is very low (9 teachers), indicating that students' cultural background is not perceived as a relevant factor per se, but something teachers

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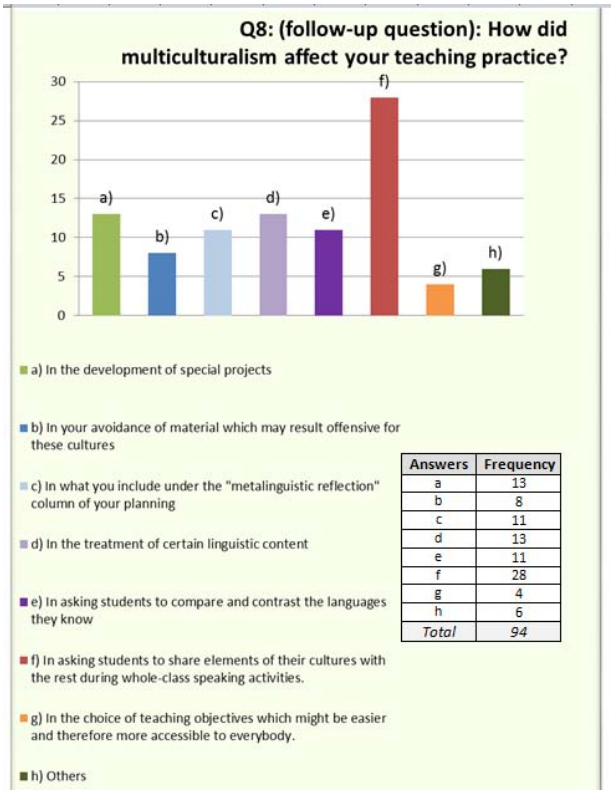
"overhear" while talking to their colleagues (17 teachers) or when listening to their students chat (28 teachers).

Finally, as a follow-up question to item 8 in our questionnaire, teachers were asked to select one or more ways in which they felt multiculturalism had affected their teaching practices, if they had been affected at all, or to provide their own answers. As we can see in Figure 12, once again, spontaneity plays a main role. By far the most chosen option was f): "In asking students to share elements of their cultures with the rest during whole-class speaking activities" (28 teachers). In order to clarify what was meant by this statement, the following example was provided: "for example, if talking about carnivals, asking them to share what carnivals are like in their countries". It is during spontaneous interactions when multiculturalism is most often seen to affect teaching practices, with more planned activities (such as the implementation of special projects or the treatment given to certain linguistic contents) in a distant second position, chosen less than half as many times.

Figure 12: Interviewees' answers to question 8



Answers	Frequency
a	13
b	8
c	11
d	13
e	11
f	28
g	4
h	6
Total	*94*

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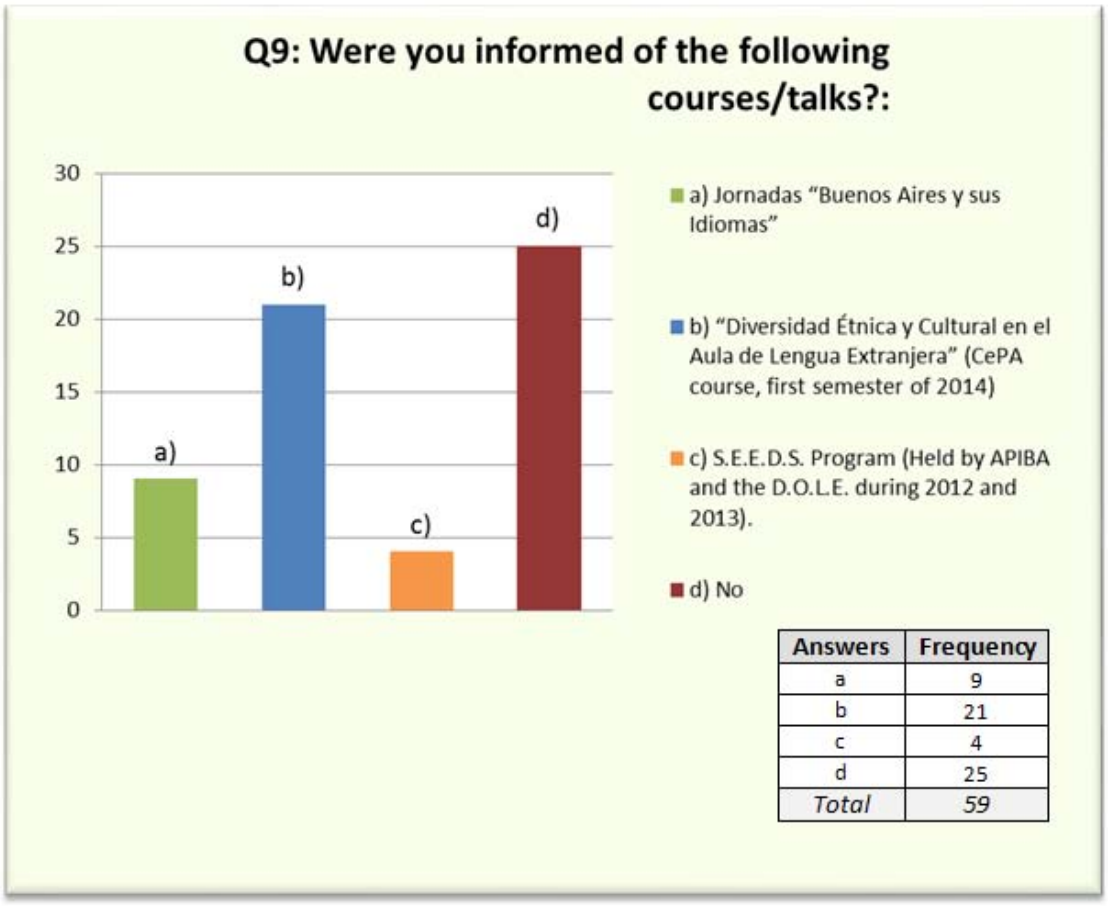
5.c. Teachers' participation in courses or workshops on multiculturalism, multilingualism or indigenous languages organized by the City of Buenos Aires

The last questions in our survey aimed at profiling teachers' training on the subjects of multiculturalism, multilingualism and indigenous languages, as shown in Figure 13. During our research, we discovered only three training opportunities for teachers to deepen their knowledge on these subjects. As shown in Figure 13, half the teachers surveyed had no information at all about any of these courses or workshops. On the other hand, the best known course was the one delivered by CePA, which is a well-known and respected institution among teachers in the City of Buenos Aires.

Figure 13: Interviewees' answers to question 9



Answers	Frequency
a	9
b	21
c	4
d	25
Total	*59*

However, when teachers were asked if they had attended any of these courses, no teacher replied they had attended this particular CePA course. The only four teachers who had actually profited from any of these training opportunities had attended the *Jornadas Buenos Aires y sus idiomas*.

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We believe valuable information can be drawn from these results. Firstly, training opportunities either are not advertised widely enough or they are not advertised through the proper channels. The *Jornadas Buenos Aires y sus idiomas* are always socialized through the *Política Lingüística GCBA* blog and their regular newsletters. This blog communicates all sorts of very relevant information to teachers, yet, as we can see, teachers do not subscribe to its newsletter. Similarly, teachers do not seem to be aware of training opportunities offered by APIBA.

Secondly, even when teachers become aware of a course, they may not attend. We should not take this as an indicator that teachers are not interested in receiving training on the question of multiculturalism, since, we believe, other factors may have influenced their decision as well. On the one hand, this CEPA course that none of our subjects attended was delivered in the neighborhood of Villa Urquiza, more than an hour away from the districts involved in our research. It is also interesting to notice that this neighborhood is part of *comuna* 12, the *comuna* with the lowest percentage of Bolivian population in the City of Buenos Aires—only a 0.21 % while *comuna* 10 holds a 10.88 %. On the other hand, the duration of the course may be a factor as well: you had to attend seven classes of three hours each delivered in the evening.

The fact that four teachers did attend the "Jornadas" points to the possibility that teachers may not be inclined to attend a course that requires meeting several times but might be willing to participate in a whole-day workshop, even if it does not represent a quantifiable asset for their careers[25].

6. Conclusion

We should not be surprised if teachers who have received no training on the importance of a multicultural approach do not consider it a relevant element in their classes. As long as a multicultural and multilingual approach to the teaching of English remains a mere concept it will have little impact on teaching practices. The aims stated in the Curricular

[25] Passing a course delivered by CePA may provide teachers with up to 0.24 points. These are used, in turn, to rank teachers in the city according to how many points they have accumulated in their careers. Teachers who rank the highest get to choose where they want to work before the rest, which means teachers who rank in the last positions may not have jobs to choose from when it becomes their turn to choose. Attending the "Jornadas Buenos Aires y sus Idiomas" provided no points at all.

Design for Foreign Languages can only be truly achieved if further education policies guarantee teacher training on the subject. This teacher training should not be optional and it should be implemented taking into consideration the geographical distribution of multicultural population across the city.

Further research on these subjects should inform the content of this training. We should not forget that the present research focuses on teachers' perceptions. For us to have the complete picture, we should also start wondering about students and how they live their own multiculturalism.

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Appendix: Teachers' Interview Questions

Q1: Are you bilingual?

Which languages do you speak?

Q2: Do you think that knowing a second language:

a) Makes it easier to learn a third language.
b) Has no influence on the learning of a third language.
c) Makes it more difficult to learn a third language.
d) No opinion.

Why?

Q3: Are you aware if any of your students have any knowledge of languages other than English or Spanish? If so, which languages and how many students per class?

Q4: Do you know about your students' nationalities and their parents'?

a) I know about all my students.
b) I know about most of my students.
c) I know about some of my students.
d) I do not know.

Q5: How did you learn this information?

a) Through school authorities.
b) Through the Spanish teacher.
c) Through official records.
d) Through students' spontaneous comments.
e) Through direct questioning of students.

Q6: Are you aware if any of your Bolivian or second generation Bolivian students speak Quechua or Aymara? If so, how many?

Q7: Do you think knowing any of these languages may influence the students' learning of English?

a) No.
b) Yes. / How?
c) No opinion

Q8: Has working with a multicultural group influenced your practice? **No / Yes** In which ways?

a) In the development of special projects.
b) In your avoidance of material which may result offensive for these cultures.
c) In what you include under the "metalinguistic reflection" column of your planning.
d) In the treatment of certain linguistic content (e.g.: the teaching of grammar, pronunciation, etc.).
e) In asking students to compare and contrast the languages they know.
f) In asking students to share elements of their cultures with the rest during whole-class speaking activities (for example, if talking about carnivals, asking them to share what carnivals are like in their countries)
g) In the choice of teaching objectives which might be easier and therefore more accessible to everybody.
h) Others.

Q9: Were you informed of the following courses/talks:

a) Jornadas "Buenos Aires y sus Idiomas"
b) "Diversidad Étnica y Cultural en el Aula de Lengua Extranjera" (CePA course, first semester of 2014)
c) S.E.E.D.S. Program (Held by APIBA and the D.O.L.E. during 2012 and 2013).

Q10: Have you attended any of the above mentioned courses/talks?

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Junior Researchers' Contributions

Racism in the American Press and Policies

Stephanie Olah[26]

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to identify whether the depiction of the stop-and-frisk policy in the American press is racist. The first phase of the paper consists of a brief summary of the implementation and practice of the stop-and-frisk policy in New York City. The second phase studies racism in the American press as a whole. The final phase involves a critical analysis of an article appearing in *The American Signal* following T.A. van Dijk's theory on critical discourse analysis. By applying these guidelines, different levels of scrutiny have been assessed since there is not only one form of racism. This research will provide information regarding the way in which racism is conveyed through the press and policies in America.

Keywords: racism, press, stop-and-frisk, Afro-American minorities.

Resumen

El objetivo de este estudio es identificar si la descripción de la política ¨detener y registrar¨ en la prensa estadounidense es racista. La primera fase del documento consiste en un breve resumen de la implementación y la práctica de la política ¨detener y registrar¨ en la ciudad de Nueva York. La segunda fase estudia el racismo en la prensa estadounidense en general. La fase final incluye un análisis crítico de un artículo de *The American Signal*, siguiendo la teoría de T.A.van Dijk sobre el análisis crítico del discurso. Al aplicar estas pautas, se han evaluado diferentes niveles de escrutinio ya que no solo hay una forma de racismo. Esta investigación proporciona información sobre la manera en que se transmite el racismo a través de la prensa y las políticas en Estados Unidos.

Palabras claves: racismo, prensa, «detener y registrar», minorías negras.

"To see what is in front of one's nose needs a constant struggle."

G. Orwell (1968)

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Introduction

Racism has been sitting at the core of American society since its birth. However, in today's postmodern world, many people –including scholars, politicians, and journalists– believe that it has been eradicated simply because there is a legal framework protecting minorities from overt abuse and malicious discrimination. Nevertheless, regardless of the current rules and norms which govern harassment and degradation of Black and Latino groups, inter alia, there still exists a pervading attitude of disdain towards these ethnic groups. This is the concern of our paper.

In order to examine whether both American policing policy and at least a segment of the American press promote racism, a recent article appearing in *The American Signal* which refers to the stop-and-frisk program in New York City has been analyzed. This critical analysis has been performed following T. A. van Dijk's theory on critical discourse analysis from his book "Racism and the press". Therefore, this investigation provides grounded conclusions, a summary of the main issue and an overview of racism in the American press.

Overview of the Main Issue

More often than not, somewhat heated arguments concerning New York City's controversial program "stop and frisk" arise within the members of their fractured society. This policy allows police officers to stop and question certain individuals if they hold enough reasonable suspicion that they may have committed a crime or that they may be about to commit a crime. Moreover, a police officer may even frisk individuals if they are believed to be carrying a weapon. The grand debate involves the questions of the effectiveness, constitutionality, and partiality of the practice. Nevertheless, there are substantial reasons to affirm that the "stop and frisk" program is ineffective, racist, and unconstitutional.

The first detriment of "stop and frisk" is that it has proven to be highly ineffective. According to the New York City Bar Association's report, "Only approximately 6% of

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the stops have resulted in arrests and approximately 2% in the recovery of weapons."(2013, p. 1). Not only does this show how futile this program is, but it also demonstrates that it enables unjustified psychological coercion towards innocent and unarmed citizens. People often claim –and politicians largely profit from this assertion– that this practice lowered the number of crimes committed in New York City. While figures illustrate that crime rate in NYC has lowered considerably (New York City Bar Association's report, 2013, p. 11), the Brennan Center for Justice sustains that "statistically, no relationship between stop-and-frisk and crime seems apparent" (Cullen, J., & Grawert, 2016, p. 2) since the trend continued in the same direction regardless of the decrease in number of stops between 2012 and 2014. Similarly, the effectiveness of this tactic has proven to be almost nonexistent when it comes to gun possession. Only less than 0.02 percent of stops resulted in the recovery of a gun in New York City –known for its highly restrictive firearm policy (New York Civil Liberties Union, 2014). Therefore, there exists no factual basis to a claim that "stop and frisk" is beneficial to society.

A further problem with this program is that it has become broadly biased. The proportion of people belonging to a minority group who are stopped based solely on the poor standard of reasonable suspicion of the police officer is outrageous. As per the New York Civil Liberties Union data reveals, 53% of New Yorkers who were stopped during 2011 were black and 34% were Latino (New York Civil Liberties Union, 2014). Racial imbalance opens up a serious issue because it is not present in just a few cases, but in the vast majority of them. These groups are obviously being targeted due to their ethnic characteristics, rather than due to potentially dangerous behavior. Moreover, the public perception of these groups is badly damaged as a result of this situation. Therefore, the system of "stop and frisk" has resulted in major cases of racial profiling, leading to an even deeper concern regarding discrimination.

Last but certainly not least, the practice of "stop and frisk" has been upheld to be unconstitutional. The system in itself has proven to be constitutional, as it carves out an exception to the Fourth Amendment requirement that a police officer must conduct searches and seizures only with "probable cause". Officers need only to prove there exists "reasonable suspicion" that the person has committed or is about to commit a crime for them to conduct a brief interrogation on the street. However, subject to the

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Fourteenth Amendment, the practice of "stop and frisk" should not be performed differently when dealing with minority groups, such as African American or Latino. As Judge Shira A. Scheindlin of Federal District Court in Manhattan ruled in Floyd v. City of New York, "stops (should) be conducted in a racially neutral manner" (Scheindlin, 2013, p. 2) in order to be constitutional. In practice, treatment of minorities diverges greatly from that of non-minorities; but, in theory, "race may not be the sole factor that causes an officer to conclude that there is likely criminal activity" (Office of the Attorney General, 1999, p. 44). Thus, as the modus operandi fails to observe the supreme law of the land, it represents a threat to the liberties of all of its inhabitants.

All issues considered, the "stop and frisk" program is highly ineffective, racially biased and unconstitutional. Statistics have proven the low, almost non-existent, effects its implementation has had in crime rates and unlawful gun possession. Furthermore, it fuels discrimination and prejudice against minority groups, as they are being continually targeted by police officers. Besides, it does not comply with the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution, making it illegitimate and menacing for each individual and for society as a whole.

Overview of Racist Discourse in the American Press

Racism, understood as "the structural subordination of a group based on an idea of racial inferiority" (Matsuda, 1989, p. 2358), is ubiquitous in today's society. There is little to no doubt regarding its existence: hate speeches are being pronounced with escalating frequency and long forgotten extremist institutions have begun to reappear with an alarming popular endorsement. However, "most Americans vociferously denounce overt acts of racism, people of color remain economically and socially disadvantages compared with whites" (Bonilla-Silva & Dietrich, 2011, p. 202). Accordingly, the press unknowingly purports this same behavior to the presentation of news in the media. The press, thus, conveys a unilateral perspective of news because "the media are sometimes (…) instruments in the hands of those in power" (Löwstedt and Mboti, 2017, p. 114). Racist communication is achieved through processes of detachment, de-legitimization, and de-humanization.

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One of the many ways in which journalists transmit an utterly biased view of society is through the process of Othering (Fozdar et al., 2009). This kind of discourse alienates members of the other-group from the center of society and places them at the margins of society. Löwstedt and Mboti (2017, p. 117) retrieve a situation whereby the NY-based Associated Press (AP) and the Agence France-Presse (AFP) addressed the same issue with entirely different approaches. Both news agencies "reported the same action by hurricane victims as 'looting a store' when done by a black man (AP), and 'finding food' when done by whites (AFP)". This paradox exemplifies how conclusive racism is at the time of delivering information. This method of fragmenting groups of people into 'us' and 'them' inaccurately represents racism as normal, even inevitable, and the news media are largely to blame.

A further course of action followed in the American press that conveys racism is the de-legitimization of the other-group. Members of the dominant-group feel fortunate to be as distant as they can be from members of the victim-group (Matsuda, 1989, p. 2339). This erroneous conception that places subjects in remote positions deepens racism in the media because it grants a sense of intellectual superiority to the dominant-group. Therefore, the main issue arises when allocation of rationality depends solely on facts related to cultural preferences, sexual orientation or nationality, rather than depending on reasonable and logical standards. Moreover, not only is their intelligence underestimated but also their honor and adherence to universal values. Presumptions of lack of intelligence or morality delegitimize the opinions, testimonies, and suggestions made by members of the other-group, leading to plain racism.

Lastly, racism is also purported by the dehumanization of discriminated subjects. Matsuda (1989, p. 2358) determined that "racist speech proclaims racial inferiority and denies the personhood of target group members." This means that words are such a powerful and persuasive tool that they may deprive a group of people of the common virtues of humanity. The effect caused by this kind of speech is such that it permeates both, members of the dominant-group causing them to disregard the others as alike and inferior, and members of the other-group, whose inner perception and understanding of themselves within their communities gradually deteriorates. Furthermore, Charles (2015) explains that the use of de-humanization is not new, since this method of violating the other as an animal-object is the epitome of racism, present at the times of

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slavery and –even– in the Nazi regime. The American press consummates its racist speech by rating the appearance and origins of people superficially over their substance or character; or, in the words of Löwstedt and Mboti (2017, p. 125), "racism in the media is the (re)presentation of others as disposable lives".

The American press is almost essentially racist since it emerges within a culturally stratified society. Not only does it segregate certain groups of the population from the rest, but it also disprizes their voice and undermines their humanity. This paper, however, does not claim to place any culpability on journalists, but to demonstrate how installed this trait is in the American idiosyncrasy. In postmodern times, when racism is not as overt, it "emerges not so much out of (concrete) individual reporters or editors or individual media organizations as out of the entire (abstract) mass media system" (Löwstedt and Mboti, 2017, p. 117). The press, therefore, exteriorizes a categorical feature of the people of the United States –racism–; and this process is executed by journalists who are simply following "cultural patterns of which they are only imperfectly aware" (Charles, 2015, para. 6).

Critical Analysis

This section will analyze the article "How White Liberals Enable Crime in Black Communities", published on February 15, 2017, on *The Daily Signal* (see Appendix) in accordance with Teun A. Van Dijk's (1991) theoretical basis. In summary, the article intends to demonstrate that blacks' aversion to the stop-and-frisk policy is not only exaggerated, but also groundless. It tries to establish that the program is favorable to black people, in contrast with the liberal assertion that it victimizes minorities. The article portrays how attached racism is to both the stop-and-frisk practice and the press. A critical analysis shows that this depiction is achieved through a separation between white and black subjects, the latter being in a passive role, and a particular topicalization of the article itself.

To begin with, the topicalization of the article, "the headlined definition of the situation" (Van Dijk, 1991, p. 67), is both confusing and erroneous. The main idea is reduced to the word "SOCIETY". This, at first, appears to be a positive representation

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of black people as being a part of the whole; however, simply labeling the article as such will not suffice when they remain in the outskirts of society. Van Dijk posits that "topics influence the representation readers construct in their mind" (1991, p. 74). In this case, it means that the perspective of readers of the situations mentioned in the development of the article is shaped by its ambiguous topicalization. Many understatements in the article indicate that black people are naturally inferior to white people, such as the remark that blacks "cannot afford to go along with the liberal agenda" and that they would not be alive today if it had not been "for proactive policing". Moreover, doubt in the reader's convictions is fostered by means of a very straightforward rhetorical question: "If you're trying to prevent shootings and robberies, whom are you going to focus most attention on, blacks or whites?" This is to show the reader that an honest inquiry regarding the subject matter would only lead to the same conclusion the writer has arrived to, presupposing that there is an ideologically framed opinion on the matter. This makes the reader believe that he is in agreement with the article and the racist representation of minorities, making him or her into one of the members of the "us" group.

Another way in which the article depicts racism is a positive self-representation and a negative other-representation. This is accomplished by presenting information that endorses the writer's view as indisputable facts while discrediting the opinions of members of the other-group. When introducing numbers and information to support the claim that stop-and-frisk is necessary and beneficial, the information is assumed as facts not subject to questioning. On the other hand, opinions in favor of the other-group are introduced vaguely without quoting any specific source. "Academic liberals and civil rights spokespeople" are the voice of black people, while "Manhattan Institute scholar Heather Mac Donald", "the U.S. Justice Department", and "John R. Lott Jr. and Carlisle E. Moody of the Crime Prevention Research Center" represent the white majority. The binary schema of "us" and "them" manifestly exposes the disqualification of the black community as an ideological opponent.

Racism is also conveyed in the article by undermining the role of the other-group. Black people are portrayed as passive actors accepting white liberals' influence upon them. Agency is not granted to the minority group since they are not portrayed as the masters of their own destinies. Even their very existence is reduced to the implementation of the

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Terry stop when the article establishes that "more than 10,000 blacks are alive today who would not be had it not been for proactive policing". Blacks are literally depicted as beneficiaries of the same policy to which they are victims. The article even identifies black people as "pawns for white liberals", personifying them as submissive characters. The only exceptions to this pattern emerge when members of the other-group are placed close to negative predicates, such as "violent crime", "likelier (…) to shoot and use force against black suspects", and "responsible for 75 percent of shootings and 70 percent of robberies". Moreover, minorities are seldom portrayed as "speakers and definers of their own reality" (Van Dijk, 1991, p. 154). In conclusion, the assumption that black people are not active builders of their own lives further encourages racism.

By means of a thorough analysis of the article "How White Liberals Enable Crime in Black Communities" from *The Daily Signal*, the effect racism has on the press and the practice of the stop-and-frisk program is revealed. A clearly defined division line has been drawn between white and black people segregating the latter group. Besides, blacks are represented as passive actors who do not conduct themselves in ways that may alter their current situations. Furthermore, the article is topicalized in such a way that racism is blatantly obvious. All issues considered, racism as a social construct seems to affect the entire construction of thought of individuals and the structural systematization of society.

Conclusion

The overall purpose of this paper has been to examine whether both American policies and press are racist. In order to satisfy such purpose, a summary of the dilemma of stop-and-frisk in New York City has been included. Next, the inference of racism as a social construct in the American press has been examined. Finally, we have analyzed to what extent racism permeated an article from *The Daily Signal*. It is reasonable to conclude that, even when the author believes he is writing in favor of the black community, there exists an implicit racist trend behind knitting words. The difficulty in identifying racism in the press and policies is that racism is so entwined within American society that people simply do not identify it as such.

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Appendix

THE DAILY SIGNAL

How White Liberals Enable Crime in Black Communities

Walter E. Williams / February 15, 2017

Ordinary black people cannot afford to go along with the liberal agenda that calls for undermining police authority. That agenda makes for more black crime victims.

Let's look at what works and what doesn't work.

In 1990, New York City adopted the practice in which its police officers might stop and question a pedestrian. If there was suspicion, they would frisk the person for weapons and other contraband. This practice, well within the law, is known as a "Terry stop."

After two decades of this proactive police program, New York City's homicides fell from over 2,200 per year to about 300. Blacks were the major beneficiaries of proactive policing.

According to Manhattan Institute scholar Heather Mac Donald—author of "The War on Cops"—seeing as black males are the majority of New York City's homicide victims, more than 10,000 blacks are alive today who would not be had it not been for proactive policing.

The American Civil Liberties Union and other leftist groups brought suit against proactive policing. A U.S. district court judge ruled that New York City's "stop and frisk" policy violated the 14th Amendment's promise of equal protection because black and Hispanic people were subject to stops and searches at a higher rate than whites.

But the higher rate was justified. Mac Donald points out that while blacks are 23 percent of New York City's population, they are responsible for 75 percent of shootings and 70 percent of robberies. Whites are 34 percent of the population of New York City. They are responsible for less than 2 percent of shootings and 4 percent of robberies.

If you're trying to prevent shootings and robberies, whom are you going to focus most attention on, blacks or whites?

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In 2015, 986 people were shot and killed by police. Of that number, 495 were white (50 percent), and 258 were black (26 percent).

Liberals portray shootings by police as racist attacks on blacks. To solve this problem, they want police departments to hire more black police officers. It turns out that the U.S. Justice Department has found that black police officers in San Francisco and Philadelphia are likelier than whites to shoot and use force against black suspects. That finding is consistent with a study of 2,699 fatal police killings between 2013 and 2015, conducted by John R. Lott Jr. and Carlisle E. Moody of the Crime Prevention Research Center, showing that the odds of a black suspect's being killed by a black police officer were consistently greater than the odds of a black suspect's being killed by a white officer. And little is said about cops killed. Mac Donald reports that in 2013, 42 percent of cop killers were black.

Academic liberals and civil rights spokespeople make the claim that the disproportionate number of blacks in prison is a result of racism. They ignore the fact that black criminal activity is many multiples of that of other racial groups. They argue that differential imprisonment of blacks is a result of the racist war on drugs.

Mac Donald says that state prisons contain 88 percent of the nation's prison population. Just 4 percent of state prisoners are incarcerated for drug possession. She argues that if drug offenders were removed from the nation's prisons, the black incarceration rate would go down from about 37.6 percent to 37.4 percent.

The vast majority of blacks in prison are there because of violent crime—and mostly against black people. That brings us to the most tragic aspect of black crime. The primary victims are law-abiding black people who must conduct their lives in fear. Some parents serve their children meals on the floor and sometimes put them to sleep in bathtubs so as to avoid stray bullets. The average American does not live this way and would not tolerate it. And that includes the white liberals who support and make excuses for criminals.

Plain decency mandates that we come to the aid of millions of law-abiding people under siege. For their part, black people should stop being pawns for white liberals and support the police who are trying to protect them.

SOURCE: http://dailysignal.com/2017/02/15/how-white-liberals-enable-crime-in-black-communities

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Can PARLASUR Change it all? An Analysis of its Impact on the Integration Process of Mercosur in the Light of the Evolution of the European Parliament

Mariela L. Iñiguez[27]

Abstract

This paper explores some of the institutional insufficiencies existing in Mercosur under the POP regarding the implementation of joint policies, and analyzes how the creation of Parlasur could mitigate said insufficiencies by setting forth a movement from traditional international law to communitarian international law. Through a comparative law perspective, this paper traces the differences regarding applicability and hierarchy between European law and Mercosur law under the POP and examines the impact of the evolution of the European Parliament in the integration process of the EU in order to understand how the creation of Parlasur could be seen as a decisive step in the deepening of Mercosur integration, subject to the political will and joint efforts of the Member States.

Key words: Mercosur, European Union, Parlasur, European Parliament, Comparative Law, communitarian law, integration process.

Resumen

Este artículo explora algunas de las insuficiencias institucionales del Mercosur conforme al POP respecto de la implementación de políticas conjuntas, y analiza cómo la creación del Parlasur podría iniciar una transición del derecho internacional tradicional al derecho comunitario que mitigaría estas insuficiencias. Desde la óptica del derecho comparado, se trazan las diferencias de vigencia y jerarquía entre el derecho europeo y el del Mercosur conforme al POP, y se examina el impacto de la evolución del Parlamento Europeo en el proceso de integración de la UE, con el objeto de comprender por qué el Parlasur podría ser un factor decisivo para profundizar la integración del Mercosur, sujeto a la voluntad política y a los esfuerzos conjuntos de los Estados Miembros.

Palabras claves: Mercosur, Unión Europea, Parlasur, Parlamento Europeo, Derecho Comparado, derecho comunitario, proceso de integración.

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The topic of Latin American integration is as old as the independence wars themselves. The yearning for the *Patria Grande,* preached by figures such as San Martín and Bolívar, has become part of the political folklore of the south of the continent. When the negotiations that led to the creation of Mercosur were taking place, this ideal was cited in order to give strength to the project of creating a common market as a way to fulfill the objectives of the Treaty of Montevideo of progressively developing Latin American integration. Mercosur is, however, a long way from the mythical *Patria Grande*. Still, the integration process is not necessarily doomed to failure. On the contrary, if the proper actions are taken, in the future, integration in Latin America could resemble what the European Union (EU) is today: a modern type of confederation or "community of states".

In a community, member states, without waiving their sovereignty, delegate certain functions into intergovernmental or autonomous bodies, and acknowledge the rules stemming from these bodies as binding upon them and superior to their domestic legislation. Thus, the impact of law-making on integration is great. In the EU, the ordinary legislative procedure is carried out jointly by the European Commission (which represents the interests of the EU as a whole), the European Parliament (EP) (which represents the people) and the Council of the EU (which represents the member states). While the Commission has the power to initiate laws, the EP and the Council of the EU adopt them. This structure resembles that of the government of federal countries: an executive branch with power (either constitutional or informal) to propose bills, and a legislative branch organized in two chambers, one representing people and the other, the different states. Despite the fact that the EP and the Council of the EU are separate institutions and not two divisions of the same body, they are so closely connected as far as law-making is concerned that the result of their interaction is the same one achieved by bicameral legislatures: ensuring a combination of proportional representation for the people and equal representation for the states.

When comparing this situation with that of Mercosur, Hekimian (2003) asserted that "although Mercosur aims to establish itself as an integrated democratic community, up to now it has evidenced a substantial degree of *institutional insufficiency*" (p. 20). Among the causes of said insufficiency, he mentions lack of parliamentary representation and lack of internalization of Mercosur law. Indeed, in 2003 Parlasur –

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the Parliament of Mercosur– was yet to be created. Moreover, under the Protocol of Ouro Preto (POP), Mercosur law was binding on the member states, but not until they incorporated it into their domestic legislation, and even when it was incorporated, it had no special hierarchy regarding domestic law. Since the execution of the Protocol up to the present date, however, certain measures have been taken in order to progressively revert these situations. If they are successful, then the integration in Mercosur could eventually deepen up to the point of establishing a community of states.

The POP created three decision-making bodies: the Consejo del Mercado Común (CMC), which, being in charge of the political leadership of the integration process, is the highest body in Mercosur; the Grupo Mercado Común (GMC), which has been expressly established as the executive body of the block, and the Comisión de Comercio del Mercosur (CCM), which aids the GMC in connection with the joint commercial policies. The protocol, however, created no legislative organ but was limited to setting up a body in which each country's legislatures would be represented: the Comisión Parlamentaria Conjunta. This body has an equal number of representatives for each member state, appointed by the states' legislatures. The purpose of setting up such a body was to accelerate the domestic procedures in connection with the adoption of the rules of the decision-making bodies of Mercosur.

In the EU, the situation is different. Among the legislative acts in the EU there are regulations, which are binding and immediately applicable throughout the Union. One of the most important consequences of this kind of legislative acts is that they are applicable in every member state, irrespective of what the vote of each member state representative's vote was during the decision-making process. Of course, when the decision is a highly important one (such as the admission of a new member into the Union), all member states must agree to it before it is implemented, and therefore, each member state has a veto power.

Hence, even though Mercosur is a process of regional integration, under the POP its rules were governed by traditional international law, and not by communitarian international law, as is the case in the EU. Under the POP, each Mercosur member state has a veto power on absolutely every rule passed by a Mercosur body. Pastori (2001)

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quotes Otermin's opinion that this system of internalization is similar to that applied to international treaties (p. 106).

Many circumstances may affect the actual implementation of the joint policies. For instance, it is not hard to imagine a situation in which the political party to which the president of one of the member states belongs is not the majority party in the legislature. Since members of the CMC are the International Relations and Economy Ministers of each state, members of the GMC are appointed by each government and members of the CCM answer to the International Relations Ministers of each state, any decision taken by a Mercosur body is, ultimately, a decision favored by the Administration. Therefore, an opposing legislature may refuse to pass a law incorporating said decision for political purposes only. Were this to happen in any of the member states, the decision would not be enforceable anywhere in Mercosur due to the internal political circumstances of a member state. It may also occur that one of the countries does not agree with a measure to be taken by Mercosur, but it is nevertheless adopted due to the vote of the other countries' representatives. In such a case, the dissenting country could choose not to ratify the decision, thus precluding it from being in force.

Pastori (2001), however, notes that, in practice, countries adopting Mercosur regulations before they are enforceable tend to deem them applicable since the date of adoption by the country, without waiting for the rest of the countries to incorporate them (p. 109). This is, nevertheless, an internal practice which could be discontinued at any time since under the POP the member states are not bound by a regulation until 40 days after the last member state has adopted it. Consequently, severe criticism arose among the legal scholars from the different Mercosur countries.

Puñal (2005), for instance, claims that Mercosur lacks an efficient institutional structure in connection with the adoption of rules which are immediately and directly applicable in the member states, as well as superior to domestic legislation, thus failing to provide economic and social agents with certainty as to an efficient development of the integration project, which is, one of the key purposes of any integration process (p. 74). Indeed, in addition to not providing for an immediate application of community laws, neither the Treaty of Asunción (TA) nor the POP state whether the decisions taken by a

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Mercosur body will have any special hierarchy in respect to the domestic legislations of the member states once they are applicable.

Consequently, the question of superiority of community law is left to each country to answer, which poses a new problem due to the lack of correspondence among the criteria adopted by the member states. According to the 1994 reform to the Argentine Constitution, integration treaties are superior to the laws passed by Congress; hence, all the rules arising in connection with said treaties are superior to the domestic laws. The Venezuelan Constitution indicates that the rules adopted in connection with the integration treaties shall be considered immediately binding and shall have primacy over domestic legislation. The Paraguayan Constitution, while establishing that international treaties form part of the country's law, does not indicate whether rules derived from integration treaties shall enjoy any preferential hierarchy or not. The Uruguayan Constitution also fails to include any express provision concerning the hierarchy of international treaties and the rules arising therefrom, although the tendency is to acknowledge that international treaties are superior to domestic laws. Neither does the Brazilian Constitution make any special reference in connection with the hierarchy of the international treaties and the law arising according to them. In case of conflict, the Federal Supreme Court of that country rules as to the hierarchy of the rules, following, in general, the principle that *lex posterior derogat priori*[28].

In the EU, on the other hand, the matter as to whether European law was to be superior to domestic law or not was addressed by the European Court of Justice (ECJ) in the landmark case *Costa v. ENEL* in 1964. There, the court established the doctrine of supremacy of European Community Law over national law in the following terms, which were later enshrined in the Treaty of Lisbon.

Whether community law is directly applicable to the member states and superior to domestic law or not has a significant impact in the integration process itself. Consequently, Mercosur saw the need to change the procedure for the adoption of joint legislation and thus the CMC adopted a series of decisions that amend the procedure

28 Even though Bolivia is not a full member of Mercosur yet, it is worth noticing that its constitution establishes that international treaties ratified by the country shall have the same hierarchy as domestic laws.

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established by the POP. One of them was Decision Nº 23/00, pursuant to which Mercosur laws will be immediately applicable (that is, not subject to any subsequent incorporation into the member states' domestic legislation) if the member states jointly understand the importance of the norm in connection with the integration process, and if such a provision is included in the text of the norm. The Decision also established that when the decisions, resolutions and directives include a date or a term for their incorporation, the member states shall be bound to incorporate them by the agreed-upon date.

In turn, Decision Nº 22/04 establishes a procedure for the enforcement of the Mercosur rules that do not require subsequent legislative treatment, and indicates that once the procedure has been adopted, every Mercosur rule shall include the date in which it will be in force, notwithstanding the rules that will be immediately binding if they so provide. One of the most important aspects of the new procedure is that the Mercosur rules enforced accordingly would supersede the domestic laws of lower or equal hierarchy that contradict the community rule.

These Decisions reflect an effort to create an effective incorporation of community law into the domestic legislation of the member states. In doing so, they paved the way for what was to become one of the key elements in the integration process: the creation of Parlasur. In 2005, the Decision Nº 23/05 of the CMC approved the Protocol of Creation of the Mercosur Parliament drafted by the Comisión Parlamentaria Conjunta, and by 2006 all the member states had ratified the Decision. The people were directly represented in Mercosur for the first time, since in the old *C*omisión Parlamentaria Conjunta it was each country's legislature and not the people that was represented. Now, members of Parlasur cannot belong to the states' legislatures. Moreover, while in the Comisión Parlamentaria Conjunta each country was entitled to the same number of representatives, the number of members of Parlasur is proportional to the population of each country. The Protocol also established that by 2014 all the members of Parliament had to be directly elected by the people, although only Paraguay met the deadline. In Argentina, the bill indicating that the Argentine representatives in Parlasur would be directly elected by the people was enacted in January 2015. The CMC set up a final deadline for all Members of Parlasur to be elected: 2020.

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The transition from a body representing the legislatures to a Parliament –with all that this word implies– representing the people resembles the history of the European Parliament. In the European Coal and Steel Community the members of the Common Assembly (the body that later became the European Parliament) were appointed by each of the Member States' national parliaments. In 1976, the Decision and Act on European Elections by Direct Universal Suffrage were signed in Brussels. Thus, Parlasur appears to be following in the steps of the European Parliament.

What we should ask ourselves now is if, once Parlasur representatives are elected in all Mercosur member states, it will be substantially the same as the European Parliament. The answer would have to be in the negative. Notwithstanding the word "Parliament", Parlasur is only involved in decision-making indirectly. Unlike the EU, it is unable to make rules which are immediately binding on the member states, and it is not included among the decision-making institutions. It can only make recommendations to the decision-making bodies which are, nevertheless, not binding upon them. As representative of the people, Parlasur's functions are connected with rendering decision-making bodies accountable. However, in the future, the situation could be quite different.

If we look at the story of the European Parliament, we shall see that its legislative functions did not appear immediately together with the election of its members but developed gradually. Firstly, under the Treaty of Luxembourg its budgetary powers were increased. Then, the cooperation procedure was created under The Single European Act, thus enhancing Parliament's role in certain legislative areas, which were extended under the Maastricht Treaty. This treaty also introduced the co-decision procedure in certain areas of legislation which, according to Bux (2017), "marked the beginning of Parliament's metamorphosis into the role of co-legislator (…) [and] represented an important step forward in terms of Parliament's political control over the EU executive" (p. 2). Co-decision (known now as the "ordinary legislative procedure") was then extended to most areas of legislation under the Treaty of Amsterdam, the Treaty of Nice and the Treaty of Lisbon.

The increase in power of the European Parliament is directly connected with the fact that its members were elected by the people. Since it is in the people that sovereignty

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ultimately lies, no institution is better qualified to make binding rules than one that gets its power directly from them. As we have already noted, a body in which all the states are represented equally is also entitled to a direct involvement in the law-making in order to guarantee that the largest states will not concentrate all the power. Moreover, the history of the EU shows how the legitimacy of an elected parliament can deepen the integration process. Indeed, once a body which represented people directly had been established, member states felt less reluctant to delegate powers on the supranational organization.

In the light of the evolution of the European Parliament, the election of Parlasur members could be seen as the beginning of the process which could eventually lead to a greater integration of Mercosur. If Mercosur is to follow the path of the European Union, as the similar evolution of the parliaments of these two communities seems to indicate, the creation of an elected body can be seen as a decisive step in the deepening of Mercosur integration. We have seen that one of the main barriers to the integration process under the POP was the failure to grant power to the decision-making bodies to create immediately binding laws with primacy over domestic legislation. The creation Parlasur is the last in a series of attempts to solve these problems.

Indeed, its constitutive protocol sets forth that "the accomplishment of the common purposes of the member states requires a balanced and efficient institutional framework that allows for the creation of rules which are effective and which guarantee legal certainty and foreseeability in the development of the integration process" (p.1). Given to the legitimacy people will grant to Parlasur once all this members are elected, this body could gain more and more legislative power (as was the case with the European Parliament). Once the elected body has a significant role in law-making, its legitimacy could turn community laws into directly applicable, superior laws.

What will become of Mercosur depends on the political will and the joint efforts of the Member States. If by 2020 all member states honor their commitment to have elected representatives in Parlasur, a huge step will have been made towards the future of Mercosur as a true community of states. It will be one of many steps in the long journey that started in 1991 when the TA was signed. That it will be a long journey, however, should not be an obstacle. After all, the European Union was not born in one day.

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Situación actual de la disciplina

La traducción *freelance* para agencias

Sofía Elizabeth Tidona[29]

Introducción

Existen muchos métodos y etapas desconocidos en muchos ámbitos. Quizá sea costumbre solo ponerle atención al resultado final y así dejar a un lado los pasos que sirvieron para arribar allí. Quitar el velo que cubre el proceso de la traducción y el trabajo de los traductores en el ámbito de una agencia es el objetivo principal que se perseguirá en las próximas líneas a fin de dar a conocer lo que muy pocas veces se ve descripto en bibliografía a la que recurren estudiantes de traducción. Asimismo, los clientes que ignoran las etapas podrán empaparse del tema y, luego, entenderán mejor los plazos de entrega que se estipulan en vistas a satisfacer íntegramente los objetivos de cada fase.

La invisibilidad del traductor

Ver el proceso de traducción desde su interior es una experiencia excepcional y se sabe que la mayoría de las personas no tiene la oportunidad de conocer y explorar este mundo en el que la figura del traductor emerge como protagónica. La traducción va pasando por diferentes manos, y este proceso podría compararse con la producción en una cadena de montaje o línea de ensamblado en la que se le agregan, quitan y modifican elementos a un producto hasta llegar acabado al cliente. En lo referido al hecho de quitarle el velo y hacer visible el trabajo de los traductores, en la obra *La traductología: miradas para comprender su complejidad* (Cagnolati, 2012, p. 28), se cita al autor Lawrence Venuti cuya preocupación, en su libro *The Translator's Invisibility* (Venuti,1995), ha sido justamente la de hacer visible el trabajo del traductor en la cultura receptora. Venuti utiliza el texto de Schleiermacher, *Über die*

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verschiedenen Methoden des Übersetzens («Sobre los diferentes métodos de traducir»), para definir el concepto de extranjerización o domesticación[30] (estrategias traductivas) del texto traducido, con el fin de que la figura del traductor salga a la superficie. Al implementar dichas estrategias, el traductor mismo hace visible su participación en la medida en que toma decisiones, a la vez que actúa como mediador.

Con respecto a las personas que intervienen en un proyecto de traducción, se pueden mencionar las siguientes: el *project coordinator*, el *project manager*, los traductores, los editores, los *proofreaders* y los maquetadores.

Coordinators y managers

En primer lugar, el *project coordinator* es quien hace cálculos de palabras en relación con una jornada laboral de ocho horas y envía asignaciones de trabajo, las cuales se controlan mediante planillas que el traductor/editor/QC/*proofreader* debe aceptar y completar donde corresponda. En segundo lugar, nos encontramos con el *project manager*, quien es el responsable principal de un proyecto en su totalidad y quien debe responder ante cualquier problema que surja y cuando se suscitan inconvenientes a último momento. A los *project managers* recurren los demás eslabones de la cadena del proceso con dudas referidas a preferencias terminológicas, glosarios, uniformidad, etc.; en inglés, diríamos que los *project managers pull translators' chestnuts out of the fire*, es decir, resuelve asuntos de último momento y saca de apuros a los traductores. La forma de presentarle una duda a un *project manager* es mediante capturas de pantalla del documento original en PDF que deben pegarse en un documento en Word. Debajo de la captura, debe presentarse la consulta y luego se debe enviar el archivo adjunto en un correo electrónico. La razón por la cual las consultas deben plantearse de esta manera se encuentra en el hecho de que el *project manager* necesita contexto para responder inquietudes. Incluso cuando una consulta esté referida a un único término, jamás podría ser resuelta si dicho término está descontextualizado.

[30] Domesticación**:** estrategia traductiva que difiere de la extranjerización y, mediante la cual, se intenta producir una traducción fluida y transparente.

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La edición y el quality control

El siguiente eslabón de la cadena son los traductores. El traductor trabaja con documentos en formato PDF no editable y traduce en un documento de formato editable (Word) lo que lee, además de realizar aclaraciones entre corchetes de la ubicación de diversos elementos en la hoja. Para realizar dichas aclaraciones, el traductor debe aprender una nueva forma de expresión acortada y en inglés para que luego las lean los maquetadores que montarán la página del libro. Después de la traducción, llega la tarea de edición. El editor trabaja sobre un documento en Word preparado por un traductor y, con la herramienta de control de cambios de Word, introduce modificaciones, quita o suma elementos. También es tarea del editor dar un *feedback* respecto de la traducción con la que trabajó si encuentra excesiva cantidad de errores graves. A partir de dicha devolución, se decide si determinado traductor continuará con el proyecto en el que está involucrado o si es conveniente trasladarlo a uno con una temática diferente. Una vez editado, el documento con marcas pasa a un encargado del *quality control* que aceptará o rechazará los cambios introducidos por el editor y agregará otros si lo cree necesario. Cuando se finaliza el QC, el texto queda limpio y pasa a manos de los maquetadores, quienes cambian el formato de editable a no editable (PDF) y, posteriormente, interactuarán con los *proofreaders* mediante notas que el *proofreader* insertará en el PDF.

El proofreading o proofeado

Por último, llega la etapa del *proofreading* mencionada anteriormente. Para llevar a cabo el *proofreading*, se trabaja con el texto ya maquetado (en formato PDF, ya no en Word) y se hacen tres rondas de «proofeado». El *proofreader* debe aprender las marcas que se usan para corregir redacciones y mediante las que se les solicita a los maquetadores que agreguen espacios, quiten o cambien palabras, sangren algún párrafo, modifiquen la ubicación de elementos en el espacio de la hoja, agreguen viñetas etc.

Pick up math and delete second line

Como es sabido, en las agencias trabajan traductores y maquetadores nativos de diversos países del mundo, como Bulgaria, España y la India. Para comunicarse con los

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maquetadores en especial, se debe manejar el *plain English* y un patrón especial de escritura para hacer notas tanto en los archivos de Word en la etapa de traducción como en los PDF, en la fase del *proofreading*. Como ejemplo, se puede mencionar el *p/u math or numbers,* que es la nota para que los maquetadores «hagan *pick up*» o «levanten» los números del original y el traductor no tenga que transcribirlos. De esta manera, ahorra tiempo y puede concentrarse solo en las palabras y en su traducción. También se usa la indicación de *pick up* para las imágenes. Otras indicaciones muy usadas son las siguientes: *delete*, *move (sth) to the right*, *move (sth) to the left*, *indent*, *replace* «aquí se deben transcribir las primeras y las últimas palabras de la oración que se desea sustituir» *by* «aquí debe escribirse en su totalidad la oración reemplazante». En un documento con formato PDF, dichas notas quedan agregadas al margen del texto por lo que, para indicar con exactitud un renglón en particular, por ejemplo, deben usarse flechas.

Las rondas del proofreading

En la primera ronda, se coteja el texto maquetado (en PDF) y traducido contra el original y se agregan marcas en el PDF con indicaciones y pedidos, si es necesario. En la segunda ronda, se debe revisar el texto traducido, maquetado y marcado en la ronda anterior contra el traducido, maquetado y limpio (sin las marcas) para ver si los cambios pedidos fueron introducidos por los maquetadores. En la tercera ronda, «se proofea» el texto final contra el original de nuevo.

La retraducción

Los proyectos en los que el profesional puede estar involucrado son muy variados: libros de Álgebra, de Matemática, de Ciencias y de Lengua. Los libros de Lengua, generalmente, representan un desafío, ya que no siempre se encuentran equivalencias para temas de fonética o gramática, por ejemplo. Otra dificultad que el profesional puede encontrar es el proyecto de traducción de un libro bilingüe. Tomemos, como ejemplo, un libro de Lengua escrito en inglés que debe traducirse al español para quedar bilingüe a los fines de que niños en EE. UU. estudien español como segunda lengua. Se debe pasar del inglés al español y lo traducido en español debe traducirse al inglés de nuevo, es decir, el profesional puede valerse del texto original para la parte en inglés del

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libro bilingüe pero, como deben hacerse infinidad de adaptaciones dado que los temas que se tratan en inglés, en muchos casos, no funcionan en español, se debe recurrir a la retraducción. Es posible que las adaptaciones en español provengan de una versión anterior del libro por lo que, en esos casos, solo se copia y pega y luego se retraduce al inglés para una sección del libro llamada *English wrap*, que es la columna en inglés que contiene cada página del libro. Dicho concepto de «retraducción» puede relacionarse con lo que se menciona en la obra *La traductología: miradas para comprender su complejidad* (Cagnolati 2012, p. 27) con respecto a la noción de que el traductor crea el original. Este pensamiento nuevo es el de la deconstrucción, el cual ofrece un nuevo modo de ver los fenómenos de traducción. El concepto de los deconstruccionistas sirve para reconocer la noción de autoría y, con ella, la autoridad sobre la que se basa la comparación de versiones de texto con las subsiguientes traducciones. Los deconstruccionistas argumentan que los textos originales se reescriben constantemente en el presente y toda lectura/traducción reconstruye el texto fuente.

La uniformidad terminológica y las instrucciones

Lo vertiginoso del trabajo en las agencias es algo que no puede dejarse a un lado. Demás está decir que hay que ser muy disciplinado con los horarios de trabajo para poder cumplir con las fechas de entrega. El problema también radica en que la traducción de ciertos términos va cambiando por pedido del cliente a lo largo del proyecto y se vuelve una tarea ardua cuando el pedido de cambio se realiza en etapas avanzadas del proyecto y cuando, a su vez, esa expresión o ese término está diseminado por todo el libro. Es muy probable que pueda quedar con la traducción antigua en alguna parte. También es un desafío el hecho de que haya tantos traductores trabajando al mismo tiempo en el mismo proyecto y que lo que la agencia pida de ellos sea uniformidad terminológica y apego tanto a instrucciones (extensos documentos de Word que necesariamente tienen que leerse antes de empezar cualquier traducción, edición, etc.) que imparten por escrito los *project managers* como a los glosarios que son proporcionados para cada proyecto.

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El aprendizaje y la huella de un traductor

Además de nutrirse a partir de su trabajo en sí, el traductor aprende al lidiar con colegas tanto de su país como de otras nacionalidades. Las agencias, generalmente, cuentan con una determinada cantidad de personas contratadas (planta permanente) y un número variable de traductores *freelance* que cambia de acuerdo con la demanda y los proyectos que estén activos. Por ende, el cambio es permanente y las conexiones, múltiples. En resumidas cuentas, participar en un proyecto de una agencia resulta una experiencia única de aprendizaje y de disciplina. Con el solo hecho de pensar que niños en EE. UU. leerán textos en los que uno intervino de una u otra manera, el profesional siente que cumplió su misión, que dejó parte de él allí, lo cual es realmente reconfortante.

Tantos profesionales, un proyecto y un objetivo

Por lo general, hace falta una numerosa cantidad de profesionales para un único proyecto y quienes desconocen el *backstage* de las fases de la traducción, probablemente, lleguen a la conclusión de que es innecesario. Sin embargo, al dar a conocer cuáles son los detalles de cada etapa, el trabajo aunado de gran cantidad de profesionales y la interacción permanente entre estos, también se hace visible el objetivo principal que siempre se tiene en mente al emprender un proyecto de traducción: el aseguramiento de la calidad y un resultado final óptimo.

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