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# Liebe Leserinnen und Leser,

wieder ist es Zeit für ein Editorial, mit dem wir Sie auf den neuesten Stand bringen wollen. Seit 2018 ist die „Fachsprache“ nun auch ein E-Journal. Verlag und Herausgeberteam arbeiten Hand in Hand und kontinuierlich an der damit zusammenhängenden Modernisierung und Optimierung des Begutachtungs- und Publikationsprozesses und an der internationalen und fachlich breiten Sichtbarkeit der Zeitschrift. Dazu gehört auch, dass sich die „Fachsprache“ einen neuen Untertitel gegeben hat: Ab sofort heißt unsere Zeitschrift „Fachsprache. Journal of Professional and Scientific Communication“ – mit dem deutschen Haupttitel wollen wir der jahrzehntealten Traditionslinie zur Fachsprachenforschung die Treue halten und unsere Wertschätzung gegenüber diesen initiierenden linguistischen Ansätzen ausdrücken. Auch mit dem neuen Untertitel bleiben wir natürlich „international“. Das müssen wir aber angesichts der Sprachen- und Autorenvielfalt inzwischen nicht mehr explizit betonen. Der neue Untertitel soll verdeutlichen, dass die Zeitschrift thematisch und disziplinär breit aufgestellt ist und aufgestellt bleiben soll: Gegenstand sind weiterhin Fragen der Terminologieforschung, der Varietätenlinguistik und der Fachsprachendidaktik. Es soll in den Beiträgen aber weiterhin und verstärkt auch um pragmastilistische, diskurslinguistische, medien- und kommunikationswissenschaftliche Perspektiven auf Sprache und Kommunikation im Beruf sowie auf interne wie externe Wissenschaftskommunikation gehen. Um die Einführung und Umsetzung der neuen Zitationsweise zu unterstützen, sind alle publizierten Originalbeiträge in Zukunft auf der Titelseite mit einem eindeutigen Zitationsnachweis versehen.

Noch etwas in eigener Sache: Leider verlässt uns unsere Kollegin Prof. Dr. Hanna Risku, die sich aus Gründen neuer und wachsender beruflicher Aufgaben aus dem Herausgeberteam zurückziehen muss. Wir alle danken Hanna Risku hiermit herzlich für die vielen Jahre der sehr guten, konstruktiven und fröhlichen Zusammenarbeit! An ihrer Stelle begrüßen wir als neues Mitglied des Herausgeberteams ebenso herzlich Prof. Dr. Merja Koskela von der Universität Vaasa (Finnland), die unser Team mit neuen Arbeitsschwerpunkten und Sprachkompetenzen wertvoll ergänzt und sich bereits prima ins Team eingefunden hat.

Ihnen allen nun und weiterhin eine anregende Lektüre – bleiben Sie uns verbunden!

Ihr Herausgeberteam – Jan Engberg mit Ines Busch-Lauer, Nina Janich und Merja Koskela

# Dear Readers,

It is time for another editorial, with which we want to update you on recent developments of our journal. Since 2018, “Fachsprache” has also developed into an e-journal. The publishing house and the editorial team are working hand in hand to continuously improve the review and publication processes, helping to increase the international and broad professional recognition of the journal. Therefore, “Fachsprache” has changed its subtitle and from now on our journal is called “Fachsprache. Journal of Professional and Scientific Communication”.

The German main title is kept to express our loyalty to the decade-old tradition of research into languages for specific purposes and to express our appreciation for these initiating linguistic research approaches. The new subtitle remains international, but in light of the diversity of languages and authors of the journal, we do not need to express this explicitly. The new subtitle is intended to underline that the journal has a wide thematic and discipline base (areas of interest include aspects of terminology research, variational linguistics and LSP didactics.) Moreover, contributions will also continue and increasingly focus on pragmastilistic, discourse-linguistic, media and communicative science perspectives on language and communication in the workplace as well as on the internal and external science communication. Furthermore, in order to support the introduction and implementation of the new citation method, all published articles will in future have a clear citation reference on the title page.

Finally, we would like to inform you about a change in our editorial team. Unfortunately, our colleague Prof. Dr. Hanna Risku has to withdraw from the editorial team for reasons of increasing professional duties. We would like to thank Hanna for her many years of excellent, constructive and cheerful cooperation! At the same time, we like to warmly welcome Prof. Dr. Merja Koskela from the University of Vaasa (Finland) as a new member of our editorial team. Merja is a valuable addition to our team with new key areas of research and language skills. We are looking forward to working with her!

We hope you have a stimulating read & stay in touch with us!

Your editorial team – Jan Engberg, Ines Busch-Lauer, Nina Janich and Merja Koskela

# Improving English L2 Writing in Web Communication: Can Peer Feedback Help?

*Marian Flanagan & Carmen Heine*

**Abstract** As teachers of English as a second language (L2) in web communication, our aim is to help L2 students improve their spoken and written English language skills. Teacher feedback has been shown to do this in some cases. However, only using teacher feedback can put huge pressure on the teacher, both in terms of time and resources. This paper describes and discusses our attempt at introducing peer feedback as an additional way of providing students with feedback on their English writing. Before conducting this study, we did not know if peer feedback would be feasible in our teaching environment or whether it would benefit the students and teachers. Our aim was to establish a status quo of our students' abilities in providing and implementing peer feedback. We introduced peer-feedback tasks and focused on the types of feedback provided by the students, the phrasing of the feedback, both when implemented and not implemented by the students, and the types of revisions made by the students. Our findings allowed us to develop peer-feedback process guidelines for web communication as a way towards improving written feedback processes in higher education, and hopefully for others to adapt and implement in their own communication classrooms.

**Keywords** peer feedback, L2 writing, scaffolding, feedback types, revision types, phrasing of feedback, professional skills

## 1 Introduction

Well-targeted and constructive feedback in educational settings is particularly powerful, since activities within this environment involve significant new learning (Hounsell 2007: 101). For many students, activities they undertake while at university can be unfamiliar, which makes feedback even more beneficial. Traditionally, the majority of feedback is provided by the teacher either in the form of a grade accompanied by written comments, or written comments without a grade (Hounsell 2008: 5). It is then expected that students use these feedback comments to identify any shortcomings in their work, and to use them as a guide when undertaking a similar exercise in the future. However, Hounsell (2003) has shown that students do not always use the feedback as intended by the teacher and sometimes do not receive sufficient feedback during the semester. These findings are perhaps the result of the era of mass higher education, which has meant larger class sizes, lower unit costs and increased student-staff ratios. A knock-on effect of these is a reduction in the number of assignments students complete during the semester. It also means the students have fewer opportunities to receive written feedback and to discuss the feedback they received with their teacher. Furthermore, a perhaps unintended consequence of semesterisation at some European universities has been "the 'bunching' of

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assignments and assessments towards the end of a course unit, limiting the scope for students to carry forward what they have learned from feedback in one task to a subsequent one in the same course unit" (Hounsell 2008: 2).

Given these new challenges, it is important to identify ways of giving effective feedback to students that do not ultimately add to the teachers' existing workloads (Hounsell 2008: 3). Teacher-led feedback does not always result in "enhanced learning or higher student satisfaction" (Nicol 2011: 1).

One way identified in the literature is to alter the role of the student in the feedback process (Askew 2000, Black et al. 2003, Nicol 2014, Nicol/Macfarlane-Dick 2006, Sadler 1989). Students can take a more active role in their own learning, and peer feedback is one way of ensuring this. We define it as an activity whereby students assess their peers' texts and provide written comments within the same topic domain. This practice has also been termed *peer review* (Nicol 2014), *peer assessment* (Boud/Cohen/Sampson 2001) and *peer editing* (Keh 1990). Taking an active role in the feedback process allows students to develop self-regulatory skills which cannot be achieved "through assessment practices that are solely carried out and controlled by teachers or where the primary conception of feedback is that of teacher transmission" (Nicol 2014: 198).

To self-regulate their learning effectively, students must develop evaluative judgement. To achieve this, students need to be directly involved in assessing other students' work and generating feedback for those students. Likewise, gaining experience in reviewing and assessing peers' work results in students being better at reviewing and assessing their own texts (Nicol/Thomson/Breslin 2014: 116, Rollinson 2005: 24).

We teach web communication to students on an undergraduate course, who have English as their L2. This course is taught in English and during the semester, the students are expected to produce a number of written tasks focusing on English business communication in a web communication context. The final exam is a 12-hour written exam, covering various topics within web communication. Therefore, while the students are encouraged to engage in discussions during class time to develop their English oral skills, particular focus is placed on their English written skills.

The course trains students to describe, explain, analyse, produce and critically discuss web content. It lays a path for student understanding of the key concepts that constitute the building blocks of web-based communication theory, social media marketing strategies and their practical application (Lardi/Fuchs 2013). These concepts comprise accessibility, usability and social media marketing (to name but a few) – utilized to the advantage of companies and organisations. The students acquire "web-based information literacy" (Edwards 2006).

They learn differences between online and other communication means, become familiar with page design and site architecture and practice writing for the web (Felder 2012, Lior 2013, Redish 2007). Text production for the web includes writing succinctly, in a conversational style using plain and precise terms, chunking information, and writing for interaction (e. g. using hyperlinks in the writing). The students obtain knowledge about website user behaviour, such as scanning and browsing, and learn how to optimise texts to meet online receivers' needs. The main aim of the course is to train the students in processes and strategies to provide web content that contributes to the overall understanding and successful interaction between stakeholders in web communication contexts. Localisation is a part of the course content, to enable students to manoeuvre in the global information ecosystem.

The motivation to conduct this study came from our experiences of teaching on this course during two previous semesters. We observed that the students' writing needed to improve significantly, if they were to achieve higher grades in the final exam and for their professional careers following graduation from university. However, despite the fact that in previous semesters students received extensive feedback from the teachers, we could see that, similar to Hounsell (2003), not all students were using this feedback to improve their work. This is why we opted to include a new method in our teaching with the aim of improving the students' writing. While we knew from the literature that this method had received clear support, some research had also shown that not all types of feedback, including peer feedback, were suitable in every context (Hattie/Timperley 2007, Kluger/DeNisi 1996, Price/Handley/Millar 2011, Shute 2008, Strijbos/Narciss/Dünnebier 2010). Furthermore, some critics have said that peer feedback has limited value in the L2 classroom (Nelson/Murphy 1992, Zhang 1995). Given the contrasting views in the literature, we considered it an important step to conduct an exploratory study to test the peer-feedback method of providing feedback comments on L2 writing. Our communication students have English as their L2 and we believe that the students require skills to provide feedback in their L2 for future professional practice. More specifically, our goal was to determine if peer feedback could be a method to use in the future that would provide the students with the opportunity to: reflect more on the concept of feedback and the important role it plays in the learning and writing processes (Boud 1995, Quinton/Smallbone 2010, Topping 1998); become critical, independent learners, and hence develop learner autonomy (Falchikov 1995, Searby/Ewers 1997); and develop responsibilities and a sense of ownership for both their own and their peers' work (Topping et al. 2000).

The small-scale study involved 4th- and 6th-semester students of a content-based course in International Business Communication. In addition to teacher feedback on several tasks during the semester, students provided and received peer feedback on four text production tasks in groups of two or three, which were specific to the medium of web communication. The tasks allowed the students to be more involved in the feedback phase of writing texts, and the feedback as a course element did not put an extra, unsustainable workload onto the teachers (Rada/Michailidis/Wang 1994). The approach also incorporated the idea of providing and responding to feedback as a professional skill, rather than simply a skill used in a classroom environment and practised exclusively by the teacher.

One of the four tasks included in the overall study has been published previously with a focus on translation training (Flanagan/Heine 2015). This translation and translation commentary task applied a similar methodology to the present study and explored peer feedback as a teaching tool from a translation didactics perspective. The focus of Flanagan/Heine (2015) was on the types of feedback provided, the revisions made by students in a translation/localisation context and which findings could be used in a translation-training environment. We report on the remaining three tasks (T1, T2 and T4) in this paper. Insights gained from the previous study informed the present one.

The primary research questions in the present study were:

1) Which elements of the texts did students provide feedback on?
2) How did the phrasing of the feedback affect implementation?
3) What kind of revisions did the students make based on the feedback received?

The remainder of the paper is organised as follows: in Section 2, we discuss the theoretical underpinnings of the current study; in Section 3, we present the core concepts of peer feedback in L2 writing with a focus on student instruction (scaffolding). We discuss types of feedback identified in previous studies and the types of revisions made by students in their writing, as well as present the concepts of higher-order and lower-order concerns in the feedback process. The topic of writing for the web is also introduced in this section. The methodology is presented in Section 4 and our results are outlined in Section 5. Finally, in Section 6, we put forward suggestions for how to integrate the current findings to further develop students' professional skills in providing feedback when working with English as their L2. Our peer-feedback process guidelines are provided in the Appendix.

## 2 Theoretical underpinnings

In this study, we drew on socio-constructivist perspectives on feedback. This approach to feedback required students to "actively engage with the feedback" (Rust/Donovan/Price 2005: 234) in order for it to positively affect future learning and student achievement (Boud/Molloy 2013, Hattie/Timperley 2007, Moore/Teather 2013). In essence, our approach was to explore the zone of proximal development (in the Vygotskyan [1978] sense) between our students' own abilities and what they could achieve based on support from a peer. We wanted to deduce information on how we could support students' self-reflective learning via peer-feedback tasks in the future. While we did not assume peer-feedback tasks would address all the weaknesses and problems identified with our current teacher feedback practices (for example, students not using the feedback in subsequent tasks or in the final exam), we had some key assumptions in mind when designing the study, which are implicit in the socio-constructive approach to feedback:

- The students are active participants in a continuous reflexive process (Nicol/MacFarlane-Dick 2006) which allowed them to construct meanings based on their own experience.
- Peer feedback must ultimately trigger an inner dialogue in the students' minds so that they engage in a process with the feedback comments. The process involves decoding, assimilating, internalising, comparing, judging the quality, and using the comments to improve the final task. The trigger results from peer feedback as "a dialogical and contingent two-way process" involving "peer-to-peer interaction and active learner engagement" (Nicol 2010a: 503).
- The teacher-student relationship is built on guidance rather than instruction (Adams 2006) (cf. Section 3.1 'Degree of scaffolding').

Feedback can be viewed as either a product or a process (Price/Handley/Millar 2011: 881). When feedback is viewed as a product (Lalande 1982), the expected response from the student is most likely a behavioural one (e. g. making edits), rather than a cognitive one (e. g. listening, reflecting, thinking, acting). When feedback is viewed as a process (Mittan 1989, Zamel 1985), it can be deemed a social practice. For this study, we regard peer feedback as a process in which the students engage on a regular basis. Given our theoretical approach, we first wanted to determine our students' capabilities in providing peer feedback through minimal teacher guidance (scaffolding) before providing them with ancillary guidelines and checklists, as described further in the next section.

## 3 Peer feedback in L2 writing

### *3.1 Degree of scaffolding*

Several studies on peer feedback in the L2 writing classroom have reported the benefits of including this method in the overall feedback process. These benefits included students' increased awareness of their audience and ownership of the text (Ho/Savignon 2007, Mendonça/Johnson 1994, Nelson/Murphy 1992, Paulus 1999, Tsui/Ng 2000), students' increased understanding of their own strengths and weaknesses in writing (Tuzi 2004), social, cognitive and affective benefits (Lundstorm/Baker 2009, Rollinson 2005, Storch 2005) and improved communication (Diab 2011, Dochy/Segers/Sluijsmans 1999). Many studies on peer feedback support the idea of providing students with pre-defined feedback criteria, clear assessment criteria or some form of guidance or elaborated instructions before engaging in the peer-feedback process (Goldberg 2012, Hillocks 1986, MacArthur et al. 1995, Min 2005, 2006, Topping 2009, Van Steendam et al. 2010, Yang/Meng 2013). Such framework approaches to teaching are commonly referred to as *scaffolding* (Wood/Bruner/Ross 1976). Students are expected to adhere to this scaffolding when providing and implementing feedback until such a time the scaffolds can be withdrawn and tasks assigned can be mastered without guidance, e. g. using a 'no guideline' method (Chandrasegaran 1989).

Rollinson (2005: 26) is a strong advocate of training students in peer interaction and response because untrained students may be "destructive and tactless or overgenerous and uncritical". Mangelsdorf/Schlumberger (1992) suggest that untrained students' feedback tends to deal with surface matters rather than with suggestions of improvement on meaning and content. They claim that untrained peer reviewers might be prescriptive and authoritarian in their comments rather than collaborative and supportive. Furthermore, guidance in the form of instruction and support prior to the peer-review task or as part of the peer-review task is considered a crucial element in teaching approaches with feedback (Min 2005, Nelson/Schunn 2009, Van Steendam et al. 2014). Yet open questions remain: To what degree should scaffolding be applied? Should the criteria used for scaffolding be pre-defined or self-administered by the students (Leijen 2014: 179, Nicol 2010a), and should a combination of both be applied (Hounsell 1997, Nicol 2010b). Another open question is which aspect(s) of the feedback tasks should be scaffolded?

In our view, recommendations given to students should not draw on over-generalised checklists for appropriate (academic and English-language) writing. Textbook checklists or peer-editing sheets are intended for broad audiences, not for specialised domains and more often than not, they exclude guidance on content. Generalised peer-editing sheets can cause students to focus more on the concerns of their teachers who assign these sheets than on interaction with their peers. Content-related instructions, in turn, may invoke helpful comments from the peer regarding the content taught in class and appear in line with expectations towards the content expressed by the teacher. Yet these comments may neglect structural and mechanical concerns (e. g. such as academic writing).

Despite our awareness of scaffolding recommendations and our general appreciation of the notions behind them, we opted for a minimalist approach to scaffolding. The rationale was that we wanted to observe the students' understanding of feedback and their behaviour around feedback and feedback performance before providing them with scaffolding in a web communication context. We also drew on findings from Cho/MacArthur (2010: 334) in which the students "*demonstrated* that at least under some conditions, [they] are able to provide useful feedback to their peers without training in evaluation or revision" (emphasis in original). Since the participants in our study were 4th- and 6th-semester students, we knew that they had previously been exposed to academic writing, concepts of English grammar, drafting and formulating texts within a business environment, and that many of the 6th-semester students had also spent a semester abroad in an English-speaking environment. Therefore, the concept of receiving feedback (predominantly from teachers) and implementing it into their texts was not new. However, as a baseline measure, we ensured that all students received the same information on providing and exploiting feedback. In all of the task descriptions, we instructed student groups to provide constructive feedback reciprocally, which was to include corrective feedback and comments on the content, with specific relation to the course literature. Corrective feedback takes the form of "responses to learner utterances that contain a linguistic error" (Ellis/Loewen/Erlam 2006: 340).

A chapter on exploiting feedback (McMillan/Weyers 2011), which provided examples of feedback types and tips on how to deal with feedback, was available to the students. Instructions on using the track changes and commenting functions in Microsoft Word for providing feedback and submission instructions for their writing tasks were offered (cf. Sections 4.1 and 4.2 for a description of participants and the peer-feedback tasks). Other than this, we did not instruct the students explicitly on how to interpret and implement the feedback received.

### *3.2 Lower-Order Concerns and Higher-Order Concerns*

There are two kinds of concerns that teachers and students providing and implementing feedback can focus on: lower-order concerns (LOCs) and higher-order concerns (HOCs). LOCs include areas such as spelling and grammar, while HOCs include the focus, organisation, and development of the paper (Krest 1988: 28 f.). It has been suggested that students (both in their L1/first language and in their L2/second language) should focus first on HOCs and then when working on subsequent drafts, they can focus on the LOCs identified (Krest 1988, McDonald 1978). Unfortunately, this multiple-draft peer-feedback cycle was not possible in our case. Given that our web communication course was not a specific 'composition course', we also had to cover other aspects of communication, including presentations and website design. Therefore, we had to restrict the peer-feedback tasks to one peer review stage, which meant that students had to identify both LOCs and HOCs in the same draft. This situation was clearly not ideal. Furthermore, even though students were given the opportunity to finish the peer-feedback tasks outside of class before submitting them to the teacher, no students availed of this (cf. Section 4.2). Therefore, the limited class time available for the peer-feedback task might have influenced the students negatively, meaning that they focused more on LOCs rather than HOCs.

### *3.3 Feedback types, phrasing of feedback and revision types*

Based on a review of the literature, we discuss feedback types, the phrasing of feedback and revision types that have inspired the present study.

Cho/Schunn/Charney (2006) and Cho/Schunn (2007) use feedback categories such as directive, non-directive, criticism, praise, summary and off-task feedback. They explain that directive feedback involves explicit suggestions of specific changes, while non-directives are general observations. They use criticism (negative evaluation) and praise (encouraging observations) as counterparts and introduce the category of summary and off-task feedback which remain unexplained. Nelson/Schunn (2009: 381) comment that praise is commonly included as a feature of peer feedback, but research has shown that praise rarely results in changes in university students' writing (Ferris 1997). It is also argued that praise is "ineffective in enhancing learning" (Hattie/Timperley 2007: 102). Yet, undergraduate peers are still very likely to include praise in their feedback (Cho/Schunn/Charney 2006). Literature on feedback in general and especially models of good feedback in educational settings suggest to include praise (Nilson 2003, Saddler/Andrade 2004) as it appears to be liked (Cho/Schunn/Charney 2006) by students and could be considered a motivator that affects the students' general behaviour (e. g. writing or revision/feedback activities in general) (Nelson/Schunn 2009: 376). However, due to the complex nature of writing performance, it could be difficult to pinpoint the effect of praise on feedback implementation without follow-up interviews with the students.

Coding of the feedback types in our data is inspired by the literature discussed above. We detected five feedback types: motivation (praise to suggest a good standard was achieved or how performance could be improved), questions (looking for clarification), statements (neutral declaratives), directive suggestions (feedback specificity, cf. Nelson/Schunn 2009 below) and expressive suggestions (which includes the opinions of the feedback provider and the use of mitigating language, cf. Nelson/Schunn 2009 below).

In studies of revision types, Berg (1999), Min (2006) and Cho/MacArthur (2010) all use a revision coding scheme based on Faigley/Witte (1981), while Cho/MacArthur (2010) also incorporate the coding system implemented by Sommers (1980). Faigley/Witte (1981) distinguish between "surface-level change, micro-level change, macro-level meaning change and reference" categories (cf. Table 4 for more details). Surface changes and reference categories do not change the meaning of the text, while micro- and macro-level meaning changes do. We adopted the scheme used by Cho/MacArthur (2010: 336) and incorporated two subcategories within 'surface change' in accordance with Faigley/Witte (1981: 403) to cover all the revision types identified in our data. In this scheme, surface-level changes are considered LOCs, while the other three categories (micro-level meaning, macro-level meaning and reference) are considered HOCs.

Nelson/Schunn's (2009: 376–380) study focused on the features or phrasing of peer feedback. They examined five feedback features for their effect on feedback implementation. Four of these features, *summaries*, *specificity*, *explanations* and *scope*, are cognitive in nature, while the fifth, *affective language*, is emotional in nature. "Summaries" are often short, condensed statements, which can focus on various aspects of the writing (e. g. action taken, claim or topic). "Specificity" refers to the information contained in the feedback comment, including problems, solutions and identifying the location of the problem or solution. "Explanations" clarify the reasons for providing feedback. "Scope" differentiates between local-level feedback (surface features) and feedback at a global level (overall writing performance). "Affective language" includes praise, inflammatory language and mitigating language. While praise is always deemed positive, mitigating language can include praise and criticism. Inflammatory language is criticism that is considered insulting rather than constructive. Based on the findings, they concluded that feedback was more likely to be implemented if the receiver understood the problem identified in the feedback. The study found three features that aided the understanding of the problem: solution provided (specificity), location of problem provided (specificity), and a summary included in the feedback (summaries). The feature "solutions" positively impacted feedback implementation, which meant that feedback was implemented if the solution was understood, but this did not necessarily mean that the problem was understood. Nelson/Schunn (2009: 393) noted that implementing a solution without understanding the problem could result in the peer implementing the solution unsuccessfully.

## 4 Methods

### *4.1 Participants, groups and tasks*

The participants were not subject-matter experts in the field of web communication, but they had background knowledge in both business communication and academic writing from previous courses obligatory for all students. The course encompassed the analysis of websites on the basis of web-communication theory, followed by reflection, production of web content and production of written texts outlining the findings.

The study was conducted during one semester and comprised four written peer-feedback tasks to be completed in groups of two or three. Students also carried out several other written and oral tasks outside of the study. To address previously-identified concerns in the literature that feedback should be provided in good time for students to use it in subsequent tasks (i. e. due to the 'bunching' of assignments, cf. Section 1), we spread the peer-feedback tasks evenly throughout the semester. Participation in this study was optional. Hence, not all students participated in or completed all tasks fully. From 65 course participants, ten groups will be focused on who completed at least three of the four tasks in full. Of these groups, nine consisted of two students, while one consisted of three students. Group and task participation are outlined in Table 1.[1] The lowest number of students participated in Task 4. This could be attributed to the task being the last one in the semester, when student numbers attending class can sometimes dwindle. Furthermore, given the peer-feedback task was voluntary, students could decide in advance whether or not to attend class and participate. Perhaps some students felt that their time would be better spent revising specific topics for the upcoming exam.

*Table 1: Groups and feedback tasks (+ participation, – non-participation)*

| Groups / Tasks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | Total participants per task |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | + | + | + | + | + | + | – | + | + | + | **19** |
| **2** | – | + | + | + | + (2) | + | + | + | + | – | **16** |
| **4** | + | – | + | + | – | + | + | – | – | + | **12** |

### *4.2 Task description*

We have previously analysed and reported on Task 3 in detail in Flanagan/Heine (2015). Therefore, we excluded it from our analysis in this paper. In Tasks 1, 2 and 4, student groups were asked to write an individual text (e. g. an analysis of a website, see specific details in Table 2) during class time, and then to assess each other's work through changing roles from writer to reader to feedback provider and feedback receiver (Altstaedter 2016, Crasnich/Lumbelli 2004,

1 Group 5 usually had three students, but had only two for Task 2.

Holliway/McCutchen 2004). Upon receiving written feedback from their peer, each student had the opportunity to incorporate the feedback and apply newly acquired knowledge to their respective tasks. Students were able to start the peer-feedback process in class and were given the opportunity to submit their final text to the teachers to also receive teacher feedback one day after the class.

At the outset of the study, we assumed that students would implement peer feedback that they regarded as making a serious and/or appropriate improvement to their own text. The tasks specified in Table 2 were of varying difficulty and represent different text production types. Task 2 comprised two parts: an 'About Us' text for a website and a commentary in which the students addressed the writing task with reference to course literature on writing for the web.

*Table 2: Peer-feedback tasks*

| Task | Description of the task | Information provided to the students | Word count (after integrating feedback) |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | *Text production task*<br>Describe moves and rhetorical strategies of a homepage (relying heavily on an understanding of the literature, and no text provided to start off) | Provide each other with constructive feedback on the text | 400 words |
| 2 | *Text production task (revision task and academic commentary)*<br>Using an existing 'About Us' text as a point of departure, rewrite the text in line with the literature on writing for the web. Write an academic commentary on the reasons for your edits | Provide each other with constructive feedback on the 'About Us' text and the commentary | 'About Us' text: 360 words<br><br>Academic commentary: 200 words |
| 4 | *Text production task (comparison)*<br>Compare two websites with a focus on a website analysis model provided by the teachers | Provide each other with constructive feedback on the text | 500 words |

### *4.3 Coding the data*

We coded the data in two stages: peer-feedback types provided and types of revision made. The coding of the data in the present study is identical to the previous localisation/translation study (Flanagan/Heine 2015).

#### *4.3.1 Coding stage 1: Peer-feedback types*

We adopted the coding approach taken by Artemeva/Logie (2002). Similar to their study, we worked together with one task in order to define our unit of analysis and to devise meaningful feedback type categories. In this paper, a unit of analysis equals an *idea unit.* An idea unit is a self-contained message on a single problem (of peer feedback) (Cho/Schunn/Charney 2006: 268). This means that a feedback comment in our data can contain more than one unit of analysis. All units of analysis and feedback types were discussed and negotiated together for the first task before we continued with the coding process independently for the remainder of the tasks. Once we had coded all of the tasks independently, we met again, and negotiated all of the codes until we reached high agreement. Table 3 provides an overview of the peer-feedback types identified and an explanation of each type.

*Table 3: Peer-feedback types identified*

| **Feedback type** | **Explanation** |
|---|---|
| Motivational | Motivational feedback is defined as praise for specific parts of the task or the task overall. |
| Suggestions (directive) | Suggestions (directive) feedback is defined as explicit suggestions (solutions) by the peer to specific changes in the student's writing (without necessarily providing the problem). |
| Suggestions (expressive) | Suggestions (expressive) feedback is defined as comments on specific aspects of writing, which often provide both the problem and solution, but do not explicitly direct the student to implement the feedback. |
| Questions | Questions are defined as comments that use a question to highlight specific aspects of writing and are followed by a question mark. A question can require students to confirm the question (e. g. "isn't it?"), or be used as a means of initiating a conversation with the peer (e. g. "Do you think …?"). |
| Statements | Statements make a non-directive, neutral comment about an aspect of the writing, which can be either specific to the writing task (e. g. "'More popularity' doesn't sound like proper English") or could apply to any writing task (e. g. "I think you make an important point in this last sentence, but it is not really linked with the rest of the paragraph"). This feedback type often identifies problems without presenting an explicit solution. |

### *4.3.2 Coding stage 2: Revision types*

Revision types refer to the revisions made by students based on the feedback they received from their peers, i. e. *implemented feedback*. We adopted Cho/MacArthur's (2010: 336) revision coding scheme, and the two subcategories from Faigley/Witte (1981: 403) under 'surface change' to code revisions made by students (cf. Table 4). Similar to coding feedback types, both authors worked closely together to identify the types of revisions made in one task, before working independently on the remaining tasks. All revisions types were reviewed together until we reached high agreement.

*Table 4: Revision coding scheme as used in Flanagan/Heine (2015)*

| **Revision type** | **Explanation** |
|---|---|
| **Surface change: Lower-order concerns (LOCs)** | |
| Formal change | Spelling, tense, punctuation, abbreviations, and format |
| Meaning-preserving change | Additions, deletions, substitutions, permutations, distributions, and consolidations |
| **Micro-level meaning change: Higher-order concerns (HOCs)** | |
| Complex repair | This includes fixing constituents in a sentence by deletion or changing existing constituents in a sentence or paragraph level |
| Extended content | This means elaboration on and/or justification of an existing point or example |

| **Macro-level meaning change: Higher-order concerns (HOCs)** | |
|---|---|
| New content | This refers to new points, including entire new paragraphs |
| Organization | This involves changes to, addition of and deletion of headers, movement of a paragraph, or change to or deletion of connectives/transitional phrases |
| **Reference: Higher-order concerns (HOCs)** | |
| Adding supportive materials | This refers to the addition of tables, figures, figure captions, and references, including footnotes and citations |
| Changing supportive materials | This refers to changes to and/or movements of tables, figures, figure captions, and references, including footnotes and citations |

## 5 Results

We now provide a detailed analysis on the three aspects of this study: the types of feedback provided and the textual elements that this feedback related to; implementation of the feedback and whether the phrasing of the feedback had an effect on the implementation; and, the revision types made by the students.

### *5.1 Feedback types*

A total of 384 feedback comments were provided in commenting boxes across Tasks 1, 2 and 4. This resulted in a total of 421 units of analysis or *idea units.* Table 5 provides a breakdown of the feedback types. Feedback types are listed according to the most common type identified across the three tasks. On average, students provided more feedback comments in Tasks 1 and 4 (9.7 and 9.6 respectively) than in Task 2 (7.5).

*Table 5: Feedback comments divided into feedback types per task*

| **Task** / **Feedback Types** | **1** **N = 19** **μ = 9.7** | **2** **N = 16** **μ = 7.5** | **4** **N = 12** **μ = 9.6** | **Total feedback comments per type** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Suggestions (directive) | 39.0 % (72) | 16.6 % (21) | 41.4 % (48) | 33 % (140) |
| Motivational | 23.2 % (43) | 28.3 % (34) | 22.4 % (26) | 24 % (103) |
| Suggestions (expressive) | 17.8 % (33) | 29.2 % (35) | 19.0 % (22) | 22 % (90) |
| Questions | 14.6 % (27) | 14.2 % (17) | 11.2 % (13) | 14 % (57) |
| Statements | 5.4 % (10) | 11.7 % (14) | 6.0 % (7) | 7 % (31) |
| **Total feedback** | **100 % (185)** | **100 % (121)** | **100 % (116)** | **100 % (421)** |

The feedback types identified are now discussed in more detail. The categories from Table 4 above are used to discuss the results relating to LOCs and HOCs. Students most often provided *suggestions (directive)* feedback type in Tasks 1 and 4, and it was the most common type when looking at all three tasks (33 %). Some examples taken from the students' work included:

[MV5]: *Change "but" into "However" followed by comma.*
[MM12]: *Use "do not"*
[MN21]: *Add a comma ☺*

In the example from student [MN21], there are in fact two idea units in this one comment. The first, *add a comma*, is an example of *directive* feedback and the second, a smiley emoticon ☺, is an example of *motivational* feedback. We coded these idea units (and others) accordingly in our data set, but we have kept the full example here under *suggestions (directive)* feedback.

From our analysis, we identified that the majority of *suggestions (directive)* feedback was provided on LOCs in the texts (94 %), which included comments concerning spelling, grammar (including tense), punctuation, deletions and additions (of words and punctuation). The remaining 6 % of feedback comments concerned HOCs: complex repair (4 %), new content (0.7 %), organization (0.7 %) and adding supporting materials (0.6 %).

*Motivational* feedback was the second most common type, constituting 24 % of all feedback provided in Tasks 1, 2 and 4. *Motivational* feedback included all types of praise, and the feedback related to specific sentences or paragraphs, as well as to the entire text. It should be noted here that one student in this study did not provide any motivational feedback in any of the tasks. Some examples taken from the students' work included:

[NM5]: *A well-structured text. Arguments for and against the claim. The customers are also people that are interested in high-quality and homemade food.*
[CM16]: *Your thesis statement is good, short and to the point.*
[M10]: *A good analysis of the structure.*

*Motivational* feedback was provided in all cases on HOCs. These included the use of headings (6 %), domain concepts described at sentence level (25 %) and paragraph level (22 %), the organisation of the complete text (16 %), argumentation used in the text (5 %), referencing (6 %) and use of specific web communication terminology and concepts, including references to writing for the web (20 %). *Suggestions (expressive)* were the third most common type of feedback, constituting 22 % of the total feedback provided. While *suggestions (expressive)* as a feedback type highlighted problems, offered solutions or both, they almost always included hedging words, making them non-directive. Some examples taken from the students' work included:

[K10]: *I think it would be good if you could compile these two sentences in some way.*
[MM10]: *Maybe you could delete the full stop and instead write "which identifies the sender" to give a better flow in the text.*
[CM22]: *I think 'on' is the correct preposition.*

Similar to *suggestions (directive),* our analysis showed that the majority of *suggestions (expressive)* feedback was provided on LOCs in the texts (70 %), which also included comments on spelling, grammar (including tense), punctuation, deletions and additions. Feedback on HOCs for this feedback type included complex repair (18 %), extended content (6 %), organisation (4 %) and new content (2 %).

The fourth most common type of feedback was *questions*. This feedback type constituted 14 % of all the feedback comments provided. *Questions* as a feedback type are closely related to *suggestions (expressive)*, since the students avoided telling the students what to do explicitly. However, *questions* were identified by the use of an explicit question mark or tag question, once the feedback provider described the problem, the solution or a mix of both. Some examples taken from the students' work included:

[A17]: *Isn't this something from the B2B site?*
[TGO2]: *Why do you use might?*
[M3]: *What information?*

The feedback type *questions* also focused mostly on LOCs (67 %), with a similar emphasis on grammar, spelling and punctuation as per the feedback types mentioned above. Furthermore, the students once again used this feedback type to comment on HOCs, which included complex repair (22 %), extended content (4 %), organisation (2 %), new content (2 %), adding supporting materials (2 %) and changing supporting materials (1 %).

The last feedback type was *statements*, which only accounted for 6 % of all feedback analysed. Some examples taken from the students' work included:

[NL14]: *Really long list.*
[A23]: *I wanted to mention this!*
[CM19]: *It is obvious that we have structured our texts differently. You made it shorter and mentioned only the important information.*

Like most of the other feedback types, *statements* focused predominantly on LOCs (65 %). The remaining feedback focused on HOCs, including the categories complex repair (19 %), extended content (10 %), organization (3 %) and referencing (3 %).

While it was encouraging to identify 421 idea units in the data set that focused on both LOCs and HOCs and covered a range of categories, not all of this feedback was implemented by the students and not all of the feedback implemented actually improved the quality of the final text. We will take a closer look at the implementation and non-implementation of the feedback in the next section, with a particular focus on the phrasing of the feedback and the effect of implementation on the final quality of the text.

### *5.2 Phrasing of feedback*

Of the 421 idea units (feedback) provided by the students, 301 of these (71 %) were implemented by their peers, leaving 120 units (29 %) not implemented. In this study, students may have decided to implement or not implement the feedback based on a number of variables, which remain unknown to the authors. In our data set, we noted cases where the feedback was implemented correctly, which led to an improvement in the quality of the final text. Yet there were also cases where the feedback was implemented incorrectly or the feedback implemented actually reduced the quality of the final text. Conversely, there were cases where the feedback should have been implemented to improve the quality of the final text, but the student decided not to do so. One way of trying to understand the behaviour in this context is to investigate the implementation of feedback and the corresponding phrasing of the feedback. Table 6 below presents an overview of the feedback implemented and not implemented, which are sorted according to the tasks and feedback types.

*Table 6: Peer feedback implemented and not implemented by task and feedback types (IM: implemented; NIM: not implemented)*

| Task / Feedback Type | 1 | | 2 | | 4 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **IM** | **NIM** | **IM** | **NIM** | **IM** | **NIM** |
| | **N = 19** | | **N = 16** | | **N = 12** | |
| | **μ = 6.7** | **μ = 2.9** | **μ = 5.7** | **μ = 2.8** | **μ = 6.8** | **μ = 2.9** |
| Suggestions (directive) | 54 % (69) | 5 % (3) | 27 % (20) | 2 % (1) | 56 % (46) | 6 % (2) |
| Motivational | 0 | 76 % (43) | 0 | 71 % (34) | 0 | 76 % (26) |
| Suggestions (expressive) | 23 % (29) | 7 % (4) | 37 % (27) | 17 % (8) | 26 % (21) | 3 % (1) |
| Questions | 18 % (23) | 7 % (4) | 22 % (16) | 2 % (1) | 11 % (9) | 12 % (4) |
| Statements | 5 % (7) | 5 % (3) | 14 % (10) | 8 % (4) | 7 % (6) | 3 % (1) |
| **Totals** | **100 % (128)** | **100 % (57)** | **100 % (73)** | **100 % (48)** | **100 % (82)** | **100 % (34)** |

Table 6 shows the percentage of feedback comments implemented and not implemented across the three tasks. It also includes the number of students who participated in each task and the mean implementation/non-implementation results. The average implementation rate and non-implementation rate are very similar across the tasks. The implementation pattern across Tasks 1 and 4 is the same. Students most often implemented *suggestions (directive)*, followed by *suggestions (expressive)*, *questions*, and *statements*, while in Task 2, the students implemented more *suggestions (expressive)* than *suggestions (directive)*. The authors assume that the differences observed between Tasks 1 and 4 and Task 2 relate to the text type that the students were asked to produce (cf. Table 2). In Task 2 the students engaged in an authentic, professional task that evoked comments on course content, offering suggestions for improvement – *suggestions (expressive)* – and praise for their peers work (*motivational* feedback). All the data on implementation and non-implementation of feedback are based on edits made to the final text. Since there were no visible edits made based on the *motivational* feedback, we cannot say that this feedback was implemented by the students. However, as mentioned in Section 3.3, the high percentage of *motivational* feedback identified in each task could have contributed to the students' willingness to implement the other feedback types and to revise their final text.

The next step in this process was to investigate whether the implementation of the feedback led to improvements in the quality of the final text. The two authors independently judged the quality of the final texts, both in terms of implemented feedback and whether the quality would have improved if the non-implemented feedback had in fact been implemented. A consensus was reached by the authors for all feedback comments. Table 7 below illustrates the results per task and per feedback type. The data in Table 7 correspond to the percentage of feedback implemented that led to improvements in the final text based on the overall implemented feedback in each task (cf. Table 6).

*Table 7: Peer feedback implemented that had a positive effect on final quality*

| Feedback Type \ Task | 1 | 2 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Suggestions (directive) | 86 % (59) | 75 % (15) | 93 % (43) |
| Suggestions (expressive) | 93 % (27) | 70 % (19) | 100 % (21) |
| Questions | 83 % (19) | 75 % (12) | 100 % (9) |
| Statements | 71 % (5) | 90 % (9) | 100 % (6) |

The data in Table 7 show that the majority of the feedback implemented across the three tasks led to improvements in the quality of the final text. In Task 1, the highest percentage of comments implemented was *suggestions (expressive)*, in Task 2, it was *statements*, and in Task 4, it was a three-way tie between *suggestions (expressive), questions* and *statements*. One variable that could influence implementation rates is the phrasing of the feedback. Since we identified cases in our data set where the feedback was not implemented but should have been to improve the quality of the final text, it is worth investigating examples of phrasing of feedback that were both implemented (improved quality) and not implemented (that would improve the quality if they had been implemented). Table 8 illustrates some selected examples from the data.

*Table 8: Phrasing of implemented feedback that improved the text quality and feedback not implemented that would improve the text quality**

| Task \ Feedback Type | Original Text | Feedback Comment (focused on bold, italicised text) | Feedback Implemented |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Suggestion (directive)** | | | |
| Example 1 (Task 1) | "***On the customer page is branding the*** company as attractive, friendly, and natural." | [DoP5]: Rephrase | Yes |
| Example 2 (Task 1) | "When entering the website you are met with a navigation bar at the top of the homepage which contains several different generic links, ***but*** none of these links have more than one layer of links below." | [MV5]: Change "but" into "However" followed by comma. | Yes |
| Example 3 (Task 2) | "Prestigious, high-quality, shops and cafes around the country are today ***stocking my range***." | [HM10]: Consider to rephrase | No |
| Example 4 (Task 4) | "These qualities that are mentioned are ***probably*** all something that attracts customers." | [LA9]: Leave this out – either they are or not. | No |

| Feedback Type / Task | Original Text | Feedback Comment (focused on bold, italicised text) | Feedback Implemented |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Suggestion (expressive)** | | | |
| Example 5 (Task 1) | "The target audience could be middle ages women, which are costumers of the product and with an interest in making food and trying new ***recipes***." | [A7]: I think you could be right about the target audience but they need to be interested in the product (not a recipe). Another target audience could be stores that wish to sell the products because there is a link asking: "Like to stock our products?" | Yes |
| Example 6 (Task 2) | "This resulted in a really tasty homemade jam made the old-fashioned way, using high quality ***ingredients***." | [J19]: Perhaps somewhere in this sentence you could make a hyperlink to the "product" page at the website. | Yes |
| Example 7 (Task 2) | "***And*** the popularity of my jams and chutneys was growing." | [M10]: I'm not a big fan of sentences starting with an 'and'. Instead I would write, "I attended markets most weekends, and the popularity …". | No |
| Example 8 (Task 4) | "The pictures on the B2B webpage have a professional look ***like*** the picture of the Arla truck on the front page." | [J17]: Maybe write: an example is the picture… | No |
| **Questions** | | | |
| Example 9 (Task 1) | "They are not establishing a discourse community." | [TG08]: Why mention this if it is not relevant? | Yes |
| Example 10 (Task 2) | "However, I also wanted to experiment with recipes to mix innovation and tradition, and this is what you will find in my homemade ***products*** today." | [E7]: This could maybe be a link to the products? (I have also forgotten to include links) | Yes |
| Example 11 (Task 1) | "BRK gives the ***target audience (TA)*** a welcoming greeting especially because of the text in the buttom of the homepage and the opportunity to contact them." | [TGO2]: Who is the target audiance? | No |
| Example 12 (Task 4) | [Feedback comment provided at the end of the text]. | [MV13]: No reference list? | No |

| Feedback Type / Task | Original Text | Feedback Comment (focused on bold, italicised text) | Feedback Implemented |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Statements** | | | |
| Example 13 (Task 1) | [In reference to the student having not provided a title for the academic text on the moves and rhetorical strategies of a homepage]. | [K9]: Missing title | Yes |
| Example 14 (Task 2) | "I brought my homemade jam to a few local craft fairs and stocked my local café (Seamus Ennis Cultural Centre, Naul, Ireland)." [Feedback comment referring to the beginning of the sentence, which began a new paragraph]. | [J18]: I am missing a little bit of a topic sentence here. | Yes |
| Example 15 (Task 1) | [Feedback comment offered at the end of the text in relation to the entire text]. | [M8]: There are some phrases that need revising to make it a little more "academic". | No |
| Example 16 (Task 2) | [Feedback comment offered at the end of the text in relation to the entire text]. | [CM19]: It is obvious that we have structured our texts differently. You made it shorter and mentioned only the important information. But you have made the about us section text much more serious. When I read it, I don't really feel the cosy atmosphere that I think the owner would like the reader to feel. | No |

**All examples are transcribed exactly as they appear in the students' peer-feedback tasks.*

Example 1 did not outline the problem (specificity, Nelson/Schunn 2009), but provided a solution and the location of the problem.[2] While Example 1 was implemented correctly in this context, the directive 'rephrase' was quite vague. Taking similar directive feedback from our data that were not implemented correctly as a starting point, we would suggest that students provide more detailed feedback to ensure successful implementation in all instances. The feedback comment in Example 2 is clear and concise in terms of what the student should do. However, it did not explain why a change should be made. If the feedback receiver did not understand the reasoning behind this comment, or the information contained in the comment, then the receiver could implement it incorrectly or simply ignore the feedback (Nelson/Schunn 2009). Both an explanation of the problem and a solution should have been provided. The feedback in Example 3 gave a clear order to reconsider the phrasing of the sentence. However, no suggestion for how to rephrase was provided, which possibly meant that the student ignored the feedback. Here, the stronger L2 learner could offer the weaker L2 learner a suggestion for how to implement the feedback successfully. The phrasing in Example 4 was clear and concise, and it included an argument for the feedback. Yet, the peer decided not to implement

[2] For all of the examples relating to implementation analysis, where we state the location was specified, this refers to the use of the comments function in Microsoft Word to highlight the specific location.

the feedback. In such a case, a suggestion would be that the feedback provider and receiver enter into a dialogue to ensure the receiver understands the feedback fully.

Example 5 incorporated praise for the receiver and a specific suggestion in the feedback, incorporating support for the suggestion from the website under analysis. The explicitness of this feedback most likely motivated the receiver to implement the comment. Example 6 used support from the course literature to argue for why edits should be made, which resulted in a successful outcome. In Examples 7 and 8, the conditional tense and hedging were used before a solution was provided. These linguistic elements can be analysed as politeness markers, which Brown/Levinson (1987) argue that students should apply to formulating feedback. We also believe that enculturating students in an appreciative, forward pointing and encouraging approach to feedback prepares them not only for (future) feedback practices during their studies, but particularly for the workplace, where such feedback behaviour is part of the professional practice and crucial to team work. However, in these instances, it might have been a mix of the subjectivity/politeness and lack of reference to theory that affected implementation.

Example 9 was feedback posed as a question with a clear message that the receiver should delete this information as it did not contribute to the text. Even though the feedback was correctly implemented in this context, it could be envisaged in other instances that the receiver could ignore this comment. Therefore, the feedback should be phrased differently (e. g. identify the problem and then offer the solution) (Nelson/Schunn 2009) or in cases where a question is posed, students should enter into a dialogue to discuss the feedback (Nicol 2010a, 2010b). The feedback in Example 10 was more likely to be implemented due to two things: it referenced terminology from the course literature and the subsequent acknowledgment from the feedback provider of the importance of links in the text strengthened the argument. Both Examples 11 and 12 should have been implemented into the final text to improve the quality. Yet the questions posed in both feedback comments did not provide enough guidance to the feedback receiver on how to act on the feedback. While a problem was identified by both feedback providers, neither a possible solution nor an explanation of the problem was provided (Nelson/Schunn 2009). Providing a solution has been identified in the literature as a feature of feedback phrasing known to positively affect implementation, but providing an explanation has had mixed outcomes, where in some cases feedback with explanations has been implemented less often (Nelson/Schunn 2009: 379). We could argue here that without a solution and possibly an explanation of the problem resulted in the student not implementing the feedback suggestion.

Examples 13 and 14 were *statements* that stated a problem, indicated the location of the problem and indirectly included *directives* (e. g. add in the missing title; add in a topic sentence). The phrasing of the feedback in Example 14 was strongly connected to several politeness strategies (e. g. hedging, using the conditional). The use of such strategies may improve the willingness of the peer to embrace the feedback (Wachholz 1997: 17). Both examples included references to specific writing structures – a title or heading and a topic sentence, which most likely aided comprehension of the feedback. Examples 15 and 16 were also *statements*, and they were provided as feedback comments at the end of the text. Neither of the feedback comments specified the location of the problem nor the particular problem (e. g. "some phrases need revising" and "I don't feel the cosy atmosphere"). The feedback concerned HOCs in both texts. Therefore, the lack of a solution and location of the problem most likely negatively affected implementation. If such feedback were to be effective, more details would have to be provided or the feedback provider and receiver would have to engage in a dialogue to discuss these issues in more detail.

### *5.3 Revision types*

Table 9 presents the revision types related to the implemented feedback that improved the quality of the final text. The revision types are taken from Table 4 (Cho/MacArthur 2010, Faigley/Witte 1981).

*Table 9: Revision types made by students across tasks*

| Task / Revision type | 1 | 2 | 4 | Total revision types |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Surface change (LOC)** | | | | **83 % (203)** |
| Formal change | 66 % (74) | 51 % (28) | 63 % (50) | |
| Meaning-preserving change | 15 % (16) | 27 % (15) | 26 % (20) | |
| **Micro-level meaning change (HOC)** | | | | **14 % (34)** |
| Complex repair | 11 % (12) | 20 % (11) | 10 % (8) | |
| Extended content | 3 % (3) | 0 | 0 | |
| **Macro-level meaning change (HOC)** | | | | **2.5 % (6)** |
| New content | 3 % (3) | 0 | 0 | |
| Organisation | 2 % (2) | 2 % (1) | 0 | |
| **Reference (HOC)** | | | | **0.5 % (1)** |
| Adding supportive materials | 0 | 0 | 1 % (1) | |
| Changing supportive materials | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| **Totals** | **100 % (110)** | **100 % (55)** | **100 % (79)** | **244** |

The revision types predominantly made by the students (83 %) were *surface changes* (LOCs). Across the three tasks, the percentage of formal changes dropped slightly and the percentage of meaning-preserving changes increased slightly. This could signal an improvement in the students' writing, since the formal changes are related to the mechanics of writing, while the meaning-preserving changes require the writer to have a higher competence in the L2. The percentage of revisions relating to HOCs are low in comparison (17 %). Unsurprisingly, the majority of the HOCs related to *micro-level meaning* (*complex repair* – 13 %, *extended meaning* – 1 %), since these revision types would be the next step up from *surface changes*. While only 3 % of revisions made related to *macro-level meaning* and *reference*, it is at least encouraging to identify revision types relating to these kinds of HOCs. We would speculate that with structured guidance (see our peer-feedback process guidelines below), the rates of peer-feedback comments and revisions concerning HOCs would increase.

## 6 Discussion and conclusions

The peer-feedback approach with minimal scaffolding adopted in this study was conducted to gain insight into our students' abilities to provide useful feedback and to implement the feedback appropriately. Given the small scale of this study and the restricted number of peer feedback comments, generalisations cannot be made. Another limitation of the study is that we assumed the students to be equal-status learners, but did not test them on their language skills prior to the study. In addition, group composition was random, and we did not assign students to ability groups, we did not rotate participants and we did not know who was a high or low achiever (Patchan et al. 2013). Also, it would have been beneficial for classroom situation and research project as a whole, if we had followed-up on the complex learning implications that feedback might have (had) on the students, but shortage of classroom time did not allow that.

This study focused on feedback types and the focus of students' feedback, the phrasing of the feedback in relation to implementation and non-implementation, and revision types made by the students. Despite the limitations mentioned above, the findings of this study allowed us to draw the conclusions highlighted below. We also developed peer-feedback process guidelines (see Appendix) for our teaching context to help students develop self-regulatory skills required at university and later on in the workplace. The guidelines encompass a peer-feedback loop, including preparation, providing, receiving and implementing feedback. These focus areas integrate concepts from the literature that are known to improve the use of peer feedback as a method in the classroom, including familiarisation with assessment criteria, assuming responsibility and ownership of texts, and taking a dialogical approach to the peer-feedback process (see for example, Nicol 2010a). The guidelines acknowledge that self-initiated and self-governed feedback is difficult for learners who are in the process of "acquiring genre-specific criteria for what a good text entails at the same time as they are in the process of experiencing what texts do to readers" (Rijlaarsdam et al. 2008: 55). They provide students with process steps, actions and states of the feedback process. Our guidelines raise awareness to the process element "time" and the text production component "quality". We view high quality of the submitted final text product a crucial component of the overall peer-feedback process. Therefore, the guidelines suggest that students take responsibility for their own and their peers' work during the peer-feedback process loop. The guidelines not only address responsibility, but encourage students to engage in reflective thinking beyond their own work, while at the same time respecting the approach and style of the peer and acknowledging that the final decisions about implementation of feedback lie with the author. At their core, the guidelines acknowledge the importance of student dialogue about their feedback. These guidelines are not limited to the L2 web communication classroom. They can be adopted and applied by others looking to introduce peer feedback as a method taking a dialogical approach into their own classroom environment.

Our data showed that students most often provided their peers with the feedback type *suggestion (directive)*. Regarding the phrasing of feedback, the examples provided in Section 5 show that the feedback comments sometimes consisted of only a couple of words, e. g. "Use 'do not'", but could also include a specific suggestion, e. g. "Change 'but' into 'However' followed by comma". However, this type of more elaborate comment within this feedback type was the exception rather than the rule. While the short, brief feedback comments seemed to be accepted and implemented by many students (cf. Tables 6 and 7), the directive feedback was not necessarily correct and often lacked clarity, which led to misunderstandings on the receivers' part. For example, the feedback comment "Reference?" led the receiver to include the word *reference* rather than incorporate an in-text citation. The feedback comment "Find a synonym for the word 'below'" made the receiver find a different word for *below*, when he should have rephrased the sentence to relate more to domain literature. These examples echo Nelson/ Schunn's (2009: 393) findings concerning a misunderstanding of the problem resulting in an incorrect implementation of the solution. Based on this finding, we addressed this point in our peer-feedback process guidelines (guideline 7a), where we suggest to phrase feedback clearly, in order to remind our students of the importance of the transparency of their comments.

In much of the *suggestion (expressive)* feedback, students highlighted a problem or offered a solution. Most importantly, the fact that students highlighted a possible problem made the receiver reflect on the highlighted word, sentence or paragraph. We identified some cases where the feedback comment was incorrect (e. g. [TGO3]: *was* instead of *are*? relating to the text "To begin with the homemade jams ***are*** being sold"). This feedback comment is incorrect (cf. tense), but it did trigger the receiver to edit the text, which led to better quality in the final text. If no comment had been provided, the receiver would most probably not have revised the text. This finding is reflected in our peer-feedback process guidelines under receiving feedback (guideline 9), where we have stressed the importance of carefully reading and evaluating the feedback received.

The focus of the students' feedback was unduly placed on LOCs and often a lack of consideration was shown towards HOCs, which has been reported as a downside when scaffolding is not implemented (Wachholz 1997: 21). In this regard, guideline 7 concerns the phrasing of feedback and the focus of the feedback. It suggests feed-forward feedback with a focus on providing a problem and a solution and stresses that peer comments should relate to sentence, paragraph and document level. Guideline 8 suggests focus areas for students to concentrate on – including areas that would invoke comments at other levels than mere language errors, stylistic errors or errors regarding the mechanics of writing; namely course content areas and overall text organisation.

The high number of *motivational* feedback comments identified across the tasks (cf. Table 5) might signal that this is the kind of feedback that students expect to see in their own tasks. Researchers are divided on whether motivational feedback is useful (cf. Section 3.3). Nelson/ Schunn (2009: 381) suggest that "the use of praise and mitigation in the form of compliments may augment a person's perception of the reviewer and feedback, resulting in implementation of the rest of the feedback". Based on our findings, we would argue that some form of motivational feedback is necessary, but students should offer this feedback more often in relation to the overall organisation of the text (HOCs), rather than at several individual instances throughout the text. Our guidelines exclude any reference to praise or motivational commenting. Instead, we included a guideline (6) on the respectful treatment of peers' work and the idea of being thoughtful and helpful as an implicit reference to the social roles performed in peer-feedback tasks. Future peer-feedback instructions could indicate to students that praise or mitigating language relating to HOCs would be more useful for the peer's learning process and professional development.

Regarding revision types, the majority of revisions made (83 %) were *surface changes*, which most often addressed LOCs. The remaining revisions made (17 %) addressed HOCs, with *micro-level meaning changes* being the most common. These results were not surprising, since previous research has shown that without structured training in providing and implementing peer feedback, L2 revisers mainly focus on LOCs (Flynn 1982, Leki 1990, Mangelsdorf/Schlumberger 1992, Van Steendam et al. 2010). The findings are also in line with Cho/MacArthur (2010: 334), who found directive feedback to be positively associated with surface changes. Previous studies also noted that too much focus on LOCs (Nelson/Carson 1998, Tsui/Ng 2000) and a high number of surface change revisions (Cho/MacArthur 2010) will not improve the meaning of the text, and hence the quality of the text. We would argue that in an L2 setting, being able to identify a problem in the writing and suggesting a solution that improves the accuracy, comprehensibility and readability of the text is still worth pursuing. However, in terms of feedback guidelines, we need to highlight the differences and roles played by HOCs and LOCs in L2 writing (cf. Keh 1990, Nelson/Carson 1998), and the resulting revisions that could be made based on the feedback. Likewise, we need to discuss the concept of providing feedback on local vs. global issues, since global issues are considered to address HOCs. In particular, feedback should be specific when referring to global issues (Nelson/Schunn 2009: 395); otherwise, students may misunderstand the feedback and fail to implement it when necessary.

Our guidelines address the HOC/LOC and local/global issue by stressing the importance of indicating the problem (7b), suggesting a solution (7c) and by emphasising the importance of the inclusion of balanced feedback (7d). In addition, the relevance of HOCs is emphasised by guideline 7e, which directs students to relate their feedback comments to sentence, paragraph and document levels.

In addition to the guidelines, we want to contribute further to the study of peer feedback in the classroom. Our intention is to conduct focus group interviews and surveys with students during and after the semester to gather data that could inform teachers about issues concerning feedback types, phrasing of feedback, feedback implementation and revision types made. These data could be used to further develop and improve our process guidelines and course content. Another area to investigate is the incorporation of predefined versus self-administered assessment criteria integrated into the feedback tasks and their respective influences on feedback implementation and implementation quality. In the same vein, the influence of student dialogue about feedback prior to or during the implementation stage of feedback sessions requires scholarly attention. Student pair composition, role descriptions and students' perceptions of their roles in feedback sessions, as well as teacher feedback on student feedback could be other avenues of research to pursue in the future. Our main goal remains to help communication and language students to develop an understanding of the importance of feedback as a professional skill.

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## Appendix

*Peer-feedback process guidelines*

**Preparing for the peer-feedback process**

1. **Familiarise yourself** with the assessment criteria of the course and the assessment criteria specified in the feedback task prior to the feedback session.
2. **Schedule time** for the feedback task, for discussion with your peer if necessary and for feedback implementation.
3. **Take responsibility** for the quality of your own work **and** your peer's work.

**Providing feedback**

4. **Begin** the peer-feedback process immediately after the text production task is completed.
5. **Engage** with the peer's style and the peer's argumentation – do not superimpose your own style on your peer.
6. **Treat** the work of your peer respectfully, be thoughtful and make your feedback comments as helpful as possible.
7. **Provide** feed-forward feedback comments by:
   a) **Phrasing** the feedback clearly
   b) **Indicating** the problem in the text (use track changes and commenting function in Word)
   c) **Suggesting** a solution to the problem if possible
   d) **Including** balanced feedback: textual edits and problem-solution feedback comments
   e) **Relating** your comments to sentence, paragraph and document level
8. **Focus** your feedback on:
   a) Course content, including theory and terminology
   b) Organisation of the text for web communication
   c) English language and stylistic errors
   d) Academic writing, including the mechanics of writing

**Receiving feedback**

9. **Read and evaluate** the feedback you receive carefully.
10. **Implement** the feedback you deem appropriate. Note that you as the author of the text have the power to make the final decision regarding feedback implementation.
11. **Discuss** unclear feedback comments with your peer, engaging in this dialogue in a professional manner.

**Submitting the final document**

12. **Submit** a polished and proofread final version to your tutor.

# Journalistic News Writing: A Case Study on Revisions of Content and Form

*Rikke Hartmann Haugaard*

**Abstract** News products provide a major part of the foundation of what we know about the world in which we live. However, we lack empirical knowledge about the process of writing news texts, e. g. knowledge about the choices made by journalists as to *what* to communicate and *how* to communicate it. This paper aims to contribute to filling this research gap by reporting on a case study of some of the decisions journalists make as regards content and linguistic form when composing news articles. More specifically, the study investigated the revision practices of three journalists during text production at a Spanish newspaper, as these revisions yield insights into the progression of the text and thus contribute to our understanding of how journalists work with the content and linguistic form of a text. Results indicate that journalists' revisions are related to form markedly more often than to content (approx. three to four times more often). Moreover, revision type (e. g. addition, omission and substitution) and effect on the text (content or form) seem to suggest two writing phases serving different overall purposes; producing (more) text for the newspaper article in the first phase and evaluating, and especially reducing the length of the article in the second phase.

**Keywords** journalistic writing and revising, democratisation of knowledge, professional text production, workplace writing, online revisions, revisions of content and form, keystroke logging, qualitative research

## 1 Introduction

According to the American Press Institute, the "purpose of journalism is [...] to provide citizens with the information they need to make the best possible decisions about their lives, their communities, their societies, and their governments" (American Press Institute 2017). Hence, a journalist's basic task is to keep citizens informed about what is currently happening in society and in the world at large, thus empowering the citizens to make the best possible choices. This democratising role of journalism implies that news media shape the settings in which we discuss events and get information about ourselves and the world we live in (Hartley 2011: 21). Consequently, news journalism possesses an orchestrating, manipulating power regarding the public debate (Willig 2011: 16; cf. also Jakobs/Perrin 2014a: 1). For this reason, and because journalistic products provide a large part of the foundation for what we know about the world we inhabit, it becomes important to examine how news articles are written.

The last stage before a news article reaches the consumers is the very process of writing, in which the journalist, among other things, makes deliberate choices concerning the content and form of the news, i. e. choices pertaining to *what* to communicate, on the one hand, and

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*how* to communicate it, on the other. In other words, these are choices made to ensure that the story is understood by the consumers, thus empowering them and consequently creating social value[1]. Typically, studies in news production do not look into this journalistic writing process. However, a few studies have dealt specifically with journalistic text production, e. g. Pitts (1982), Schumacher/Scott/Klare et al. (1989), Perrin (e. g. 2001) and Van Hout (2010), but our empirical knowledge about journalists' choices of *content* and *form* in the production of news articles is still very limited. The current paper aims to contribute to filling this research gap by investigating the content-form dichotomy in journalistic text production.

In terms of theory, this study is rooted in the process-oriented, cognitive writing research concerned with investigating and understanding how texts are written. As a cognitive activity, writing is perceived as a recursive activity drawing on hierarchically organised cognitive processes which are, somewhat simplistically, the cognitive elements that plan and generate, formulate, evaluate, and revise content and form if necessary.[2] Writers use these processes actively and in different combinations during text production "to progressively create a text that meets their conception of topic, task and audience" (Lindgren/Sullivan 2006a: 32). The interaction between planning, generating, formulating, evaluating and revising results in a recursive process as text producers elaborate on their texts, giving up existing ideas and structures in favour of new ones (Lindgren/Sullivan 2006a: 32). The recursivity and the hierarchical structure imply that choices regarding the content and form of a text are continuously being evaluated and revised while the text is being produced. Accordingly, revision constitutes an inherent part of text production. In the study, the "revision strand" was extracted for separate examination, precisely because revision provides insights into the progression of a text and thus contributes with a significant element to understanding how journalists shape the content and form of the evolving text.

Thus, focusing on the content-form dichotomy in journalistic writing and revising, the present paper reports on an observational study (Haugaard 2016), aiming at gaining insight into some of the decisions concerning content and form which journalists made while producing a text. The study explored different aspects of revision occurring during three professional text producers' ordinary writing practices as they unfolded in everyday life in an editorial office of a major Spanish newspaper.[3]

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1 The why question, which is the reasoning behind the journalists's choices, is also highly relevant. Nevertheless, an investigation of this aspect is beyond the scope of this article.

2 From a more context-oriented perspective, these cognitive processes are embedded in and influenced by a number of contextual factors, which affect both the writing process and the product. This line of research is demonstrated in the work of various scholars, e. g. Van Hout's (2010) ethnographic approach to the study of intertextuality in newswriting in the workplace, Perrin's (2013) "Linguistics of Newswriting" and Leijten/Van Waes/Schriver et al.'s (2014) comprehensive model of skilled professional text production.

3 Research on revision has been engaged both in classifying the textual changes that writers make to a text and modelling the complex cognitive and/or social processes that are assumed to precede or influence these changes. Thus, the term *revision* has been used with reference to process and textual changes alike (e. g. Fitzgerald 1987: 483, Fredmann 1985: xi, Alamargot/Chanquoy 2001: 100) (see Haugaard 2016: 52 for a brief summary of other terms used). The object of study of this paper is the textual changes made in the text during writing.

For each journalist, the study investigated the characteristics of the revisions of content and form separately. This means that the study examined *time of occurrence* during the writing process, *revision type,* such as addition, omission and substitution, and the possible *relation* between timing and revision type. Moreover, the study analysed the *distribution* of revisions on content and form and the *differences* between and *similarities* shared by the three journalists.

In the following, the research design will be described, the analytical framework of the study will be introduced, and the results will be presented and discussed.

## 2 Research design

Research on writing is an eclectic field comprising a great variety of disciplines, traditions, approaches to and perspectives on text production (Jakobs/Perrin 2014b: 27). Even so, many researchers consider the composing process to be both a cognitive and a situated activity (e. g. Schultz 2006: 368). Recognising that text production does not take place in a vacuum, and that the writing process and, hence, the genesis of the text are influenced by a number of external factors affecting both process and product, the study combined a cognitive and a contextual approach (cf. also Perrin e. g. 2001, 2003, 2013, Perrin/Ehrensberger-Dow 2006, Van Hout 2010, Leijten/Van Waes/Schriver et al. 2014) in the examination of naturally occurring composing processes embedded in everyday life at a workplace.

Using case studies is highlighted as a suitable method for investigating the peculiarities and complexities of a phenomenon (Stake 1995: xi) within its real-life context (Yin 2003: 13). Furthermore, multiple cases often accentuate complementary aspects of a phenomenon and can therefore strengthen the accuracy and validity of the analysis (Neergaard 2007: 22). Based on the research interest of the study, i. e. identifying and comparing specific characteristics of journalists' revisions, a qualitative and exploratory multiple case study was chosen to explore and thoroughly describe authentic journalistic writing and revising in their natural context. More specifically, the study investigated three instances of text production processes embedded in the journalistic everyday life at the business section of the Spanish national newspaper *El Mundo*. The participants were selected using strategic and convenience sampling, ensuring a sample of journalists with suitable qualities and a willingness to participate in the study[4] (Thagaard 2012: 55 f.). As regards level of experience, the participants had been working at the business section for between two and nine years (cf. Table 1); two of the participants had at least a couple of years of experience within their subject area, while one participant (P1) had recently changed her subject area due to a reorganisation of the section and had only a few months of experience within this new field. This heterogeneity in relation to years of employment at the section and expertise within subject areas was not thought to be problematic, as all three participants had either experience from other sections and subject areas within *El Mundo* (P1, P2) and/or experiences prior to their employment at *El Mundo*, including other media houses with similar (P3) and other (P1, P3) subject areas. Moreover, they all researched their own articles and wrote the final version themselves. Accordingly, they all were "experienced" journalists "with length, depth, and/or breadth of experience" (Perrin/Ehrensberger-Dow 2006: 320). Before the study, the participants had been informed as to how the study would proceed.

4 Four journalists agreed to participate in the study, but due to technical problems during observations, the study only included empirical material from three articles.

Adhering to a mixed methods approach placing the research agenda at the centre (Johnson/Onwuegbuzie/Turner 2007) and in order to present a description as comprehensive as possible of the revisions made during the three composing processes, the study applied a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (Creswell 2014: 4, Dam-Jensen/Heine 2009: 11 f.), i. e. the multi-method approach of Progression Analysis (PA) which aims at collecting and analysing writing in natural workplace settings at three different levels: the macro level, i. e. the situational context of the writing process by means of interviews and observations, the meso level, i. e. the evolving text during writing by means of keystroke logging[5, 6], and the micro level, i. e. the writers' consciously applied strategies by means of cue-based retrospective verbalisations (e. g. Perrin 2003). More specifically, the present study made use of keystroke logging and participant observation during the writing process and retrospective interviews immediately following the process giving insights into the journalists' revisions of content and form. In the present study, the macro level and the micro level feed into the analysis and interpretation of the meso level, that is: revisions of content and form.

During the elaboration of the research design, pilot tests were conducted primarily to qualify the participant observation and the retrospective interview. The observation was based on a template with predefined time slots (0–59) that allowed both specified observations (e. g. keyboard activity [insertion or deletion], mouse movements, the use of notes, etc.) and comments to be recorded (e. g. talks to colleague, visits to the toilet, etc.). In this sense, the participant observations served, to a great extent, as a triangulation of the log files. Anticipating that the time for the retrospective interview would be very limited, the interview guide concentrated primarily on the overall process and the how and why of the genesis of the text, and focused on specific activities or challenges that the journalists might identify as relevant to speak about.

### *Data generation*

Striving for homogeneous composing processes in terms of non-participant-dependent variables such as article length and time of writing, the aim was to study the production of the prioritised news article of the day, which has a length of approximately 5000 characters, including spaces. However, for various reasons, this was not possible in all cases, and consequently the texts vary in length (cf. Table 1). All articles were written during the hours immediately before deadline and were printed the following day in the business section of the newspaper, thus addressing the same potential readers.

5 A keystroke logger is a type of software that records the writing activity as writers compose on a computer, i. e. which keys are activated, what is deleted and how the cursor moves while the text is being written. The software records the exact time of each activity, including the pauses between them, giving access to all the various stages a text passes through before reaching its final state. The recording is saved in a log file which can be used to analyse various aspects of the text production process.

6 At this level, other computer loggings such as screen recordings and eyetracking have also been used (e. g. Ehrensberger-Dow/Perrin 2013: 77).

*Table 1: Participants' subject areas, years of employment at the business section and article details*

| | Participant 1 (P1) | Participant 2 (P2) | Participant 3 (P3) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Subject area | banking[7] | labour market | financial market |
| Years of employment | 9 | 2 | 4 |
| Date and time of text production | 26 April 2012 approx. 18.43–20.45[8] hrs | 27 April 2012 approx. 19.55–21.07 hrs | 30 April 2012 approx. 19.35–20.55 hrs |
| Number of words | 533 | 653 | 746 |

Prior to the study and after being security-cleared, the keystroke logging software, Translog (Carl 2012), was installed on the participants' personal computers. When a participant was about to write an article, she was introduced to the software, and the recording was then started simultaneously with the participant observation.[9]

To ensure fruitful retrospection, the retrospective interviews were conducted immediately after the text production process and were only interrupted by the normal obligations that apply when an article is submitted for print. The retrospective interviews were conducted as semi-structured interviews in front of the participants' computers. With very few exceptions, the retrospective interviews did not provide insights that could inform the analysis of the revisions. However, the retrospection proved useful for creating insight into the normal workflow of journalists and into the sources and tools they used during the composing processes.

In addition to the completed article, the dataset comprised three process protocols, each containing a keystroke log, an observation protocol, a retrospective interview, source material including handwritten notes, a search history and the tools used during text production. As keystroke logging provides a detailed and nuanced picture of how the articles come into being, as well as nuanced insight into the revisions of content and form, the keystroke logs were the primary data source, and the analysis of these was informed by the remaining empirical material, particularly the observation protocols and the retrospective interviews. In preparation for the analyses, the log files were synchronised with the observation protocols and the retrospective interviews and merged into one document (cf. Table 2).

7 Changed from transport, turism and infrastructure.

8 P1 had a downtime period of about 45 minutes approx. halfway through the process during which she didn't produce text. Moreover, during this period and about 50 minutes into the process, the editors changed the spot for the article in the newspaper moving it from the front page to a location inside the section, which resulted in less space.

9 Afterwards, the Translog recordings were converted into another file type to be analysed by another type of keystroke logging software, Inputlog (Leijten/Van Waes 2013), with different and more sophisticated qualities (see Haugaard 2016 for the reasoning and a thorough discussion of the two softwares).

*Table 2: Synchronisation and merging of empirical material*

| Time – log file | Time – observation | Logging activity | Description | Revision | Paragraph no. / sentence no. | Written text |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pause: 15085 ms | 07,16 | | Observation: Uses little red book<br>Retrospective interview: Checks up on date | | 1/3 | |
| 7,29,94-7,46,47 | | [▼][▲]despidió marzo.[▼][▲][▼][▲][▼][▲][_][o] _nivel en el [▼][▲] | The cursor is placed in position 378 and *lo hizo el pasado 1 de abril.* is marked backwards and overwritten with *despidió marzo. lo_* is marked, the space between *por debajo de_lo que* is deleted, the *o* in *lo que* is then deleted before *_nivel en el* is written. | 2 contextual revisions | 1/3 | Mañana, cuando las plazas del Viejo Continente retomen su actividad, el selectivo español arrancará la sesión 1.000 puntos por debajo de lo que lo hizo el pasado 1 de abril.[10]<br>→<br>Mañana, cuando las plazas del Viejo Continente retomen su actividad, el selectivo español arrancará la sesión 1.000 puntos por debajo de lo que **despidió marzo**.[11]<br>→<br>Mañana, cuando las plazas del Viejo Continente retomen su actividad, el selectivo español arrancará la sesión 1.000 puntos por debajo del **nivel en el que despidió marzo**.[12] |
| Pause: 3089 ms | | | | | | |

The extract above illustrates the temporal sequence of two revisions made to the third and last sentence of the article at the time. After a pause of about 15 seconds during which, according to the observation protocol and the retrospective interview, the author uses her personal calendar to clarify her doubt about a date, in the first revision, R1, she marks the last part of

[10] Tomorrow, when the European stock exchanges resume their activity, the Spanish stock exchange index will start the session 1,000 points lower than last April 1.

[11] Tomorrow, when the European stock exchanges resume their activity, the Spanish stock exchange index will start the session 1,000 points lower than at the end of March.

[12] Tomorrow, when the European stock exchanges resume their activity, the Spanish stock exchange index will start the session 1,000 points lower than the level at the end of March.

the sentence, *lo hizo el pasado 1 de abril*, and overwrites it with *despidió marzo*. In the next step, R2, the author deletes the space between *de* and *lo que,* followed by the *o* in *lo que* before writing *nivel en el*. This takes place between 7 minutes 29 seconds and 7 minutes 46 seconds in the process.

## 3 Analysing online revisions

When tracking the text production process as it unfolds in computer-based writing, the continuous revisions made as part of the ongoing text production process become visible to the researcher. Because these online revisions are actions which are continuously shaping the text, certain issues must be considered when they are to be analysed and their effect on the text is to be interpreted. In the following, some of these issues will be addressed.

### *3.1 Categorising online revisions*

At any given point during writing, the written text can be revised at its leading edge, also known as the *point of inscription* (e. g. Matsuhashi 1987, Stevenson/Schoonen/de Glopper 2006), where new text is being transcribed, and it can be revised in the text already written, i. e. after the text has been transcribed. When revisions occur at the leading edge, no textual context is transcribed following the revision, only before (cf. Example 1 below). Consequently, these revisions are pre-contextual, a term coined by Lindgren (2005). At the leading edge, the writer continually makes decisions about content and form while creating the emergent text (Matsuhashi 1987: 204, Lindgren 2005: 32), and revisions are made when what has just been transcribed or is being transcribed needs adjustment (Lindgren/Sullivan 2006b: 161). As opposed to revisions at the leading edge, revisions in the text already written are undertaken when writers move away from the leading edge to insert new text or to omit, substitute or rearrange already transcribed text (cf. Example 2 below). In this sense, these revisions are both preceded and followed by text. Thus, writers are operating within an already transcribed context, which makes the revisions contextual (Lindgren/Sullivan 2006b: 171).[13] The difference between the two revision categories is illustrated in the following two examples, which include data from one of the writing processes in the study.

In Example 1, the writer (P3) was working on the first sentence of her article (R0). As soon as she had transcribed the preposition *en* ('in') at the leading edge, she replaced it by another preposition, *desde* ('since'), while also transcribing the complement in the preposition phrase, *noviembre de 2010* ('November 2010') (R1).

[13] It appears from the text that Lindgren (2005) and Lindgren/Sullivan (2006b) use the two adjectives *pre-contextual* and *contextual* to refer to the difference in linguistic environment of a revision. In contrast, other scholars, e. g. from the Systemic-Functional tradition, use the term *co-text* to refer to the linguistic environment of a word, reserving *context* to mean "the context of language, a connotative semiotic system" (Matthiessen/Teruya/Lam 2010). However, as this article takes its point of departure in the framework of Lindgren/Sullivan (2006b), it makes most sense to adhere to their terminology.

(R0)
La Bolsa española cerró ayer el peor abril en 25 años y su peor mes en
*The Spanish Stock Exchange closed yesterday the worst April in 25 years and its worst month in*

(R1)
La Bolsa española cerró ayer el peor abril en 25 años y su peor mes desde noviembre de 2010
*The Spanish Stock Exchange closed yesterday the worst April in 25 years and its worst month since November 2010*

*Example 1*

When this revision was being made, it constituted the leading edge of the transcribed text, i. e. there was only transcribed text preceding the revision and no textual context transcribed following the revision. Accordingly, the revision is pre-contextual.

In Example 2, the text producer (P3) had completed the 9th sentence (R0). After a short pause of barely 2.5 seconds, the journalist, hitting *Enter*, created space for a new paragraph, which she initiated after another 2 seconds, then stopped transcribing the second word. After a little more than 4 seconds, the author returned to the beginning of the previous sentence, marking *el peso* ('the weight') and overwriting it with *la proporción* ('the proportion') (R1).

(R0)
Así, el peso que los inversores no residentes tienen en el reparto de la tarta de deuda soberana ha pasado del 50,4 % al 37,5 % en tan sólo tres meses.
*Thus, the weight that non-resident investors have in the distribution of the sovereign debt pie has gone from 50.4 % to 37.5 % in just three months.*

(R1)
Así, la proporción que los inversores no residentes tienen en el reparto de la tarta de deuda soberana ha pasado del 50,4 % al 37,5 % en tan sólo tres meses.
*Thus, the proportion that non-resident investors have in the distribution of the sovereign debt pie has gone from 50.4 % to 37.5 % in just three months.*

*Example 2*

Then the cursor was moved back to the leading edge of the text, and the transcribing of the word was resumed. The revision was made within an already transcribed context preceded and followed by text, hence this is a contextual revision.

### *3.2 Interpreting the effect of online revisions*

The distinction between pre-contextual and contextual revisions according to their location, i. e. in the text already transcribed (*contextual revision*) or in the text currently being transcribed (*pre-contextual revision*), is relevant when the effect of a revision is to be interpreted; at the leading edge of the text, the future text has not yet been transcribed, which makes it impossible to know what the writer is intending to write after the revision has been made (Lindgren/Sullivan 2006a: 43). Therefore, the effect of pre-contextual revisions is interpreted based on the preceding text, that text being the only one, which the researcher can safely assume the writer to be conscious of when making the revision. Accordingly, pre-contextual revisions lack analytical context, which makes their effect on the text difficult – even impossible – to interpret on the basis of an observation of the writing process, e. g. by keystroke logging. This is excellently illustrated by the Example 1 in Section 3.1 above. In this example, the prepositions, *en* ('in') and *desde* ('since'), are contingent on the following text, which is yet to be transcribed at the time of the revision. Hence, the revision is not made in a semantically meaningful context that may qualify an interpretation as to whether the revision reflects a change in the non-transcribed content, or whether it affects the form of the text (see Section 3.3 regarding the concept of semantically meaningful context and Section 3.4 regarding the content-form dichotomy). By contrast, in Example 2 in Section 3.1 above, the substitution of the noun, *peso* ('weight'), by another, *proporción* ('proportion'), is made within a semantically meaningful context which allows for the interpretation of the revision as only involving the form of the text, leaving the content unaffected. As appears from the above, only the effect of revisions made in a semantically meaningful context is interpretable on the basis of keystroke logging alone. The interpretation of the effect of revisions made in semantically non-meaningful contexts often – if not always – requires a verbal protocol from the writer, e. g. *think aloud* or *stimulated recall,*[14] as a supplement. Hence, such revisions were not included in the study.

### *3.3 Analytical framework*

The approach to the analysis and interpretation of revisions was inspired by the online revision taxonomy developed by Lindgren and Sullivan (2006a, 2006b) in collaboration with Marie Stevenson (Stevenson/Schoonen/de Glopper 2006). The taxonomy categorises textual revisions both according to their location, e. g. pre-contextual or contextual revisions, and to their effect on the text, i. e. revisions of content or form (cf. Section 3.4 below). However, due to the distinguishing features of the two revision categories, the taxonomy proved to be insufficiently accurate to be operationalised, and too coarse to categorise all interpretable revisions in the data (see Haugaard 2016 for an in-depth discussion of the taxonomy and its shortcomings). For the purpose of analysing all interpretable revisions in the data, a stringent and nuanced analytical framework was developed based on a heuristic and highly iterative analysis characterised by interaction between the established theory and the data. This new analytical framework introduced the concept of semantically meaningful context, i. e. a group of words that are syntactically and semantically linked, and whose content constitutes a potentially complete whole[15] which makes sense in itself. It was suggested to categorise online revisions made during text production on a continuum of semantically meaningful context. At the one end of the continuum lies the potentially most complete semantically meaningful context represented by a sentence concluded by a sentence-completing character, e. g. a full stop or a question mark. At the other end, the semantically non-meaningful context is placed, represented by contexts lacking

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14 *Think aloud* is a research method whereby a writer verbalises his or her thoughts during text production. The verbalisations are often recorded and transcribed into a protocol. *Stimulated recall* is a research method whereby a writer is invited to recall his or her concurrent thinking during a writing episode when prompted by some form of visual recall.

15 The concept of potentiality accounts for the fact that no context can be defined as completed until the article has been printed in the newspaper.

semantic meaning. These semantically non-meaningful contexts will often coincide with the leading edge of the text, but as writing on a computer is not necessarily a linear process, contexts lacking semantic meaning are also to be found when writers move back in the text already transcribed, for instance to add a new element, and during the addition of this element, make additional revisions before a new semantically meaningful context is transcribed. In between the two ends, the continuum holds semantically meaningful contexts that are potentially less complete, such as semantically meaningful sentences without sentence-completing characters and semantically meaningful phrases (see Haugaard 2016 for the reasoning and an exemplification of the different types of contexts). Contextual revisions are made in semantically meaningful contexts – some even *of* semantically meaningful contexts, such as the substitution of one sentence with another. By contrast, pre-contextual revisions are characterised by the fact that they occur in semantically non-meaningful contexts and are located to the far right of the continuum. With the exception of very few revisions in semantically non-meaningful contexts, including a particular group involving the retranscription of (parts of) the just deleted text (cf. Example 3 below), only the effect of revisions made in semantically meaningful contexts can be interpreted solely on the basis of keystroke logging. Accordingly, these are the only revisions interpreted in the study. Retranscription of (parts of) the just deleted text occurs when deleting text is used as a means to reach the place in the already transcribed text where the revision is to be carried out. These originally pre-contextual revisions, typically at the leading edge of the text, are used to omit or substitute previously (partially) written text and to add new text, as in the following example where the noun *mañana* ('tomorrow') is added.

| |
|---|
| (R0)<br>En los últimos 30 días, el Ibex 35 ha perdido 1.000 puntos y arra<br>*In the last 30 days, the Ibex 35 has lost 1,000 points and* [arra?]<br><br>(R1)<br>En los últimos 30 días, el Ibex 35 ha perdido 1.000 puntos y<br>*In the last 30 days, the Ibex 35 has lost 1,000 points and*<br><br>(R2)<br>En los últimos 30 días, el Ibex 35 ha perdido 1.000 puntos y mañana arrancará el mes de may<br>*In the last 30 days, the Ibex 35 has lost 1,000 points and tomorrow will start the month of May* |

*Example 3*

By introducing, at this level of analysis, the interpretation as to whether the revision is conducted in a semantically meaningful context, the analytical framework distances itself from a more objective categorisation of the location of revisions at the leading edge or in the transcribed text. This allows for a systematisation of the contexts in which the effect of revisions at the leading edge can be interpreted and the contexts in which the effect of revisions made in already transcribed text cannot be interpreted.

### *3.4 The content-form dichotomy*

To operationalise the content-form dichotomy, the analysis was based on Faigley/Witte's (1981) understanding of the two concepts. According to Faigley/Witte, content is not to be understood restrictively as concepts explicitly referred to in the extant text, but also as concepts which can be reasonably inferred from it. In order to anticipate that inferences may vary from reader to reader, the focus is on the inferences which the writer "raises to the surface by adding explicit text or requires by deleting explicit text during revision" (Faigley/Witte 1981: 402). Accordingly, the dichotomy is based on whether the writer makes content explicit so that readers do not need to infer relations from the text, or whether the writer fails to explicate and leaves it to the reader to make inferences. Faigley/Witte (1981: 402) illustrate their argument with the following short text:

1. I just made it to the station on time.
1A. I got on the train.
2. I had to buy my ticket from the conductor.

They state that the reader will be able to infer sentence 1A if it is omitted. That is, the reader is able to make the inference about the information *I got on the train*. Hence, the omission or addition of sentence 1A will not affect the content of the text, and, as a result, this type of revision is classified as revision of form, leaving the content untouched. Accordingly, revision of form involves changes that rephrase the content without altering it. Beside this distinction between content and form, Faigley/Witte (1981: 403) also distinguish six different revision types, namely *addition*, *deletion*[16], *substitution*, *permutation*, *distribution* and *consolidation*, which apply in relation to revisions of content and form alike.

Summing up, revisions of form neither omit nor substitute original content that cannot be inferred from the written text as it is, nor do they add content that cannot already be inferred. By contrast, revisions that affect the content of the text add new content or omit existing content that cannot otherwise be inferred from the written text.

The analysis of the revisions and particularly the interpretation of their effect on the text were carried out several times. These processes were continuously and thoroughly discussed with experts, and a number of revisions have been the subject of repeated and nuanced discussions.

## 4 Overview of results

The following overview of results focuses on the overall features of the composing processes of the three articles in terms of revision practices.

16 As a revision type, *deletion* should not be confused with *omission*. *Omission* of text will always imply the activity of *deleting* the text in question, but *deletion* of text does not always entail the *omission* of the text in question. Consequently, I will use the term *omission* with reference to the activity whereby text is deleted and omitted, the reader being forced to infer what was previously explicit.

*Table 3: Overview of revision type and effect in the overall writing process*

| Revision type | Revisions during the ongoing text production | | | | | | No. of revisions | Revisions during the systematic review | | | | | | No. of revisions | Total no. of revisions |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Content | | | Form | | | | Content | | | Form | | | | |
| | P1 | P2 | P3 | P1 | P2 | P3 | | P1 | P2 | P3 | P1 | P2 | P3 | | |
| **Addition** | 7 | 4 | 11 | 12 | 9 | 6 | **49** | 1 | | | | | | **1** | **50** |
| **Substitution** | 1 | 2 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 21 | **44** | | | | 7 | | 9 | **16** | **60** |
| **Omission** | | | | 2 | 2 | 1 | **5** | | | 1 | 5 | | 9 | **15** | **20** |
| **Distribution** | | | | | 1 | 1 | **2** | | | | | | | | **2** |
| **Total (participant)** | 8 | 6 | 17 | 22 | 18 | 29 | **100** | 1 | | 1 | 12 | | 18 | **32** | **132** |
| **Total (effect)** | **31** | | | **69** | | | **100** | **2** | | | **30** | | | **32** | **132** |
| **Total** | **100** | | | | | | | **32** | | | | | | | **132** |

The analysis of revisions during the writing of the three news articles showed that their number differed from process to process. Thus, during their work with the texts, and as shown in Table 4 below, P1 carried out a total of 43 revisions, P2 24 revisions in total, and P3 65 revisions. When these numbers of revisions are related to the number of characters typed during the processes (cf. Table 1), it appears that P1 and P3 carried out roughly the same number of revisions per 100 words produced in the articles, i. e. P1 made 8.1 revisions per 100 words, and P3 made 8.7 revisions per 100 words. By contrast, P2 only carried out 3.7 revisions per 100 words, which are significantly fewer revisions per 100 words produced. This heterogeneity will be accentuated in Section 4.1 below and further discussed in Section 5.

*Table 4: Revisions related to produced characters and according to time of occurrence*

| Participant | Total number of revisions during the writing process | No. of revisions related to produced characters in total | No. of revisions during ongoing text production | No. of revisions during systematic review | No. of revisions related to produced characters during ongoing text production |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| P1 | 43 | 8.1 | 30 (69.8 %) | 13 (30.2 %) | 5.6 |
| P2 | 24 | 3.7 | 24 (100 %) | 0 (0 %) | 3.7 |
| P3 | 65 | 8.7 | 46 (70.8 %) | 19 (29.2 %) | 6.2 |

## *4.1 Time of occurrence*

Heterogeneity was also demonstrated in the time of occurrence of the revisions. The analysis of the revision types and their effect on the text showed that revisions were distributed between what seems to be two different phases of the writing process, i. e. ongoing text production, during which cohesive and coherent text for the article was produced, and a systematic review of the potentially finalised text, during which the text was evaluated and its volume reduced. These findings will be further explained in Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2. However, as appears from

Tables 3 and 4 above, P2 carried out her writing as one phase; hence, she did not carry out a final systematic review of the potentially final text, which stands in contrast to both P1 and P3. This circumstance may help to explain P2's rather low number of revisions. Nonetheless, even if this systematic review of the text is ignored, P3 and P1 still carried out more revisions per 100 words produced than P2, i. e. 6.2 revisions and 5.6 revisions per 100 words produced, respectively, against P2's 3.7 revisions per 100 words produced. This difference in number of revisions cannot be explained on the basis of the study. However, see Section 5 for a discussion of feasible causes and possible further investigations.

As shown in Tables 3 and 4 above, P1 and P3 both revised considerably more frequently during the ongoing text production than during the systematic review. Thus, P1 carried out 30 revisions in the ongoing text production, and only 13 revisions during the systematic review, which corresponds to 69.8 % and 30.2 %, respectively. P3 revised 46 times during the ongoing text production, compared to 19 times during the systematic review, which corresponds to 70.8 % and 29.2 %, respectively. Accordingly, P1's and P3's revisions were distributed fairly evenly between ongoing text production and systematic review.

### *4.2 Distribution of revisions across content and form*

The analysis of the way in which the revisions were distributed across content and form also demonstrated a homogeneous picture of the three writing processes. As is shown in Table 3 above and Figure 1 below, all three journalists made significantly more form revisions than content revisions. P1's 34 revisions of form account for 79.1 % of her 43 revisions, and only nine of her revisions, or 20.9 %, change the content. P2's 18 form revisions amount to 75 % of her 24 revisions, and the remaining 25 %, or six revisions, affect the content. P3's 47 revisions of form correspond to 72.3 % of her 65 revisions, and her 18 revisions of content correspond to 27.7 %.

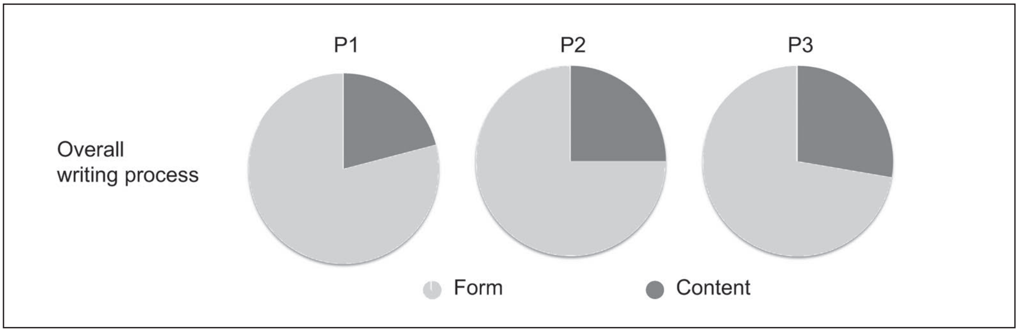


*Figure 1: Journalists' revisions distributed across content and form in the overall writing process*

Consequently, P2 and P3 both revised the form of their texts three times or approximately three times as frequently as they revised the content, and P1's revisions were related to form approximately four times as often as to content.

### *4.2.1 Content revisions*

During writing, all three journalists added and substituted content (cf. Table 3 and Figure 2). Being the only journalist to do so, P3 also omitted content. One major similarity between P1 and P3 in terms of content revisions is that they both revised content significantly more often during the ongoing text production than during the systematic review of the potentially final text; they both undertook just a single content revision in their systematic review of the text (cf. Table 3). In other words, 88.9 % of P1's revisions of content and 94.4 % of P3's were undertaken during the ongoing text production and only 11.1 % and 5.6 %, respectively, during their final review of the text.

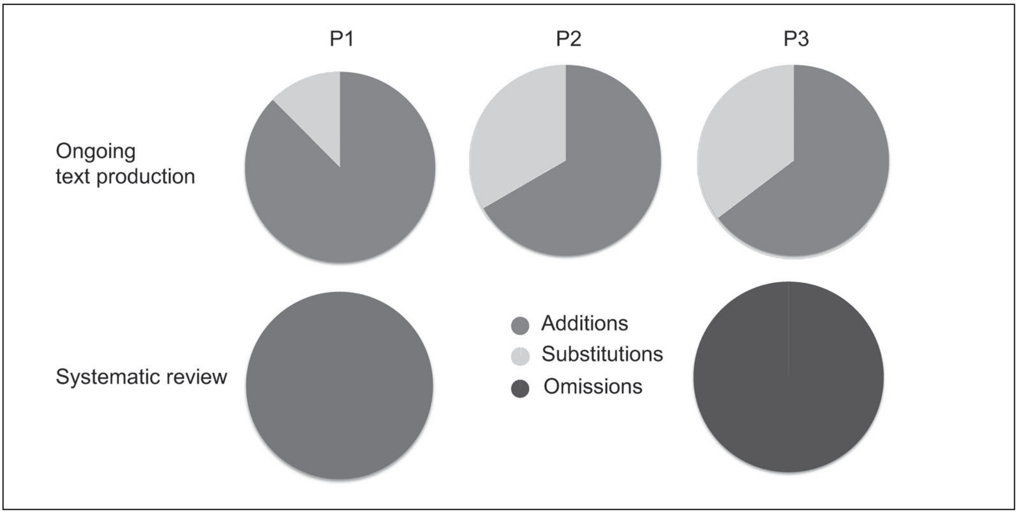


*Figure 2: Journalists' content revision types*

As illustrated by Figure 2 above, during the ongoing text production, all three journalists' content revisions were characterised by adding or substituting content (cf. also Table 3), by far the most common revision type being adding. Content additions added new content, either in an existing sentence or as a new sentence. In line with all of the substitutions, one content addition in an existing sentence appeared to correct a content error.

During the systematic review of the text, P1 added a sentence, which appeared as sentence 23 (of 28) in the printed article, whereas P3 omitted the two last sentences of the potentially completed article[17] (cf. Figure 2 and Table 3). Accordingly, content revisions during the systematic review involved entire sentences.

In summary, content was not omitted during the ongoing text production, nor was it substituted during the systematic review. This indicates that the focus of the first phase was on producing suitable content to the article by adding and substituting content, but not omitting it. Moreover, it suggests that the focus of the second phase was on adding missing content and omitting unnecessary content, but not on changing content by substituting it.

17 Even though the revision involves the deletion of two sentences, it represents one revision because it is carried out as one single activity.

### *4.2.2 Form revisions*

Working with the form of their texts, all three journalists added, omitted and substituted text, although with different frequencies (cf. Table 3 and Figure 3). Moreover, P2 and P3 amended the distribution of text once each.[18] As was the case with content revisions, P1 and P3 both revised the form of their text more often during the ongoing text production than in their systematic review of the potentially final text; 64.7 % of P1's form revisions and 64.1 % of P3's were undertaken during the ongoing text production, and only 35.3 % and 38.3 %, respectively, in their review of the potentially final text.

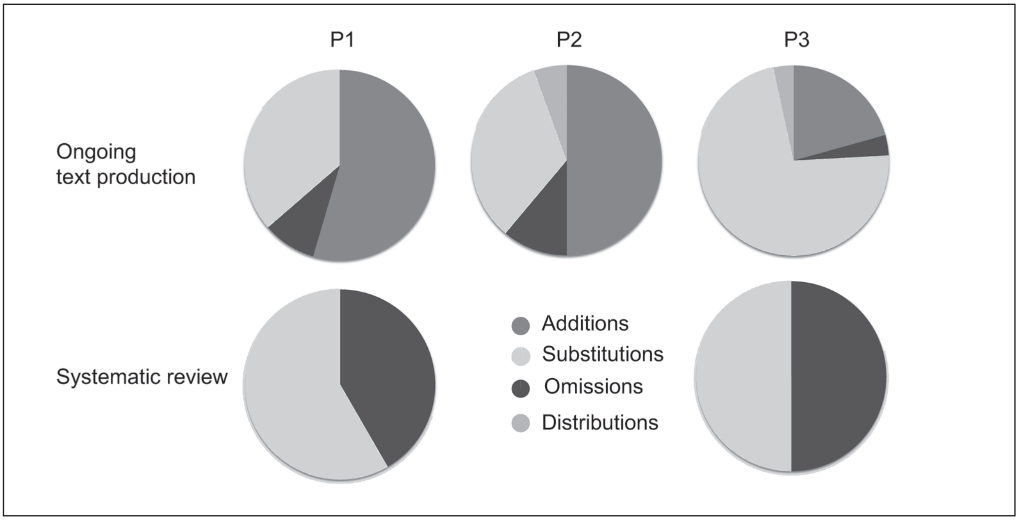


*Figure 3: Journalists' form revision types*

As illustrated by Figure 3 and Table 3 above, during ongoing text production, the form revisions of all three journalists were characterised by adding, substituting and omitting text, albeit in a varying degree. Furthermore, P2 and P3 distributed text once each. During this phase, the two most common revision types were adding and substituting. A number of additions of form were characterised by making explicit what could already be inferred from the text. Moreover, additions and substitutions of form repaired grammatical and orthographic errors such as missing characters, quotation marks and commas.

During their systematic review of their text, P1's and P3's form revisions were characterised by the omission and substitution of text (cf. Figure 3 and Table 3). The majority of the substitutions reduced the volume of the text involved, either by substituting one phrase with a corresponding shorter phrase or by paraphrasing the original text segments, thus reducing their size.

Summing up, during ongoing text production the most frequent revision types were addition and substitution, and during the systematic review, the most frequent revision types consisted in omission and substitution. This suggests that the focus of the first phase was on

[18] According to Faigley/Witte (1981: 403), "distributions occur when material in one text segment is passed into more than one segment".

developing the content and making relations explicit. Moreover, the high number of revisions which omitted text during the systematic review indicates that a focus in this phase was on shortening the article. This is supported by the circumstance that the majority of revisions in which text was substituted contributed to reducing the volume of the article.

## 5 Conclusion and discussion

From the above section it appears that the overall result of the study presented a relatively homogenous picture, including certain variations, in which the form of the text was revised markedly more often than the content (approx. three to four times more often). Thus, the initial heterogeneity in terms of the participants' years of employment at the business section and their expertise within the subject areas did not seem to be reflected in these overall results. The uneven distribution of revisions between content and form suggests that the journalists were skilled at planning and generating suitable content which did not often require revision, which may be a result of the highly standardised format of a news story (see also below) and the routinised writing processes resulting from several years of experience: The structure of the news story and the content of the different subject areas may be so well-known to the journalist that more capacity was available for shaping the form of their news stories.

The overall results also seem to suggest that the revision types and their effect on the text reflect the diverging purposes of these two phases: The first phase served to generate cohesive and coherent text for the article, and the second phase aimed to evaluate and, in particular, to reduce the volume of the written text. Thus, these results do not support Perrin's findings (2001 referred in Perrin 2003: 919) that experienced text producers "are more likely to revise their texts in several, complete passes through and gain a certain distance in between" (Perrin 2003: 919). Perrin's conclusion is based on 17 case studies of journalists' text production at the workplace, often including several texts from the same journalist/workplace as well as a variety of genres. In this respect, it is important to emphasise that the study reported in this article explored revisions to the news article genre, which is a "highly structured genre […] involving the 'inverted pyramid' form" (Schumacher/Scott/Klare et al. 1989: 392) as well as a very tight timeframe. As "journalistic writing involves genres of widely varying constraints" (Schumacher/Scott/Klare et al. 1989: 392), this circumstance may be of consequence to the observed revision practices in relation to other and less constrained journalistic genres such as editorials (Schumacher/Scott/Klare et al. 1989: 393), and, on a more general note, in relation to other types of professional text production with other characteristics and constraints. More studies are therefore needed to enhance our knowledge of the impact of specific genres and timeframes on text production and revision practices.

For the purpose of analysing the revisions in the study, a stringent and nuanced analytical framework was developed based on existing theories and the empirical material. Accordingly, the framework was tailored to analysing and interpreting online revisions during the production of authentic news texts. To what extent the framework applies in other contexts, future studies will show.

The study presented here explored revision practices in journalistic text production. However, revisions constitute only one aspect of a text producer's work on the content and form of the text. Pauses make up another and complementary aspect which may reflect evaluations and mental revisions (Lindgren/Sullivan 2006a: 38) and may thus influence the quality of the written text and also the number of textual revisions (Witte 1987: 401). As mentioned above, P2 carried out fewer revisions per 100 words in the completed article than the other two participants, and it may therefore be assumed that she succeeded, to a greater extent, in creating quality in her mental text prior to transcription, entailing that the written text did not need revision as frequently as the other two texts. Hence, a study of the pauses would enrich the description of the journalists' revision practices and might contribute to an understanding of any differences in the frequency of revisions among the participants: Are longer and/or more frequent pauses a possible explanation for the number of textual revisions?

According to the theory, the interpretation of online revisions informed by keystroke logging should only relate to the revision's effect on the text, and not to the underlying reasons (e. g. Lindgren/Sullivan 2006b: 160). In the present study, however, it was found that surrounding activities (e. g. other revisions and mouse movements) as well as the written context might in certain cases lead to a deeper understanding of the effect of revisions beyond the distinction between content and form, and, thus, to an insight into to what (the effect of) the revision contributes. Accordingly, it appeared that in addition to adding new content to the text, the insertion of new sentences seemed to accentuate the coherence of the text. Similarly, additions of form that made explicit what could already be inferred from the text strengthened the cohesion of the text, helping the reader to draw inferences. Moreover, some substitutions of form appeared to indicate that linguistic expressions were related to one another, thus bringing about variation in the terminology, e. g. by using lexical anaphors. This observation indicates that the textual context and a comprehensive overview of the writing process might be fruitful in enhancing the understanding of how the text producers juggle content and form.

To sum up, the exploratory and qualitative nature of the study has provided a detailed analysis of the journalists' revision activities and has offered nuanced insights into their text production. In this sense, the study contributes to our empirical knowledge of how journalists write and revise news texts. Moreover, the study contributes to our theoretical-methodical knowledge of how to explore, analyse and interpret online revisions in authentic news texts. However, due to the limited scope of this study, further studies should be conducted in order to gain further insights into these aspects. Nonetheless, the overall tendency of the analysis and the details which it reflects may be used as a point of departure for new studies and can help generate hypotheses about how other text producers, both in similar and different contexts, write and revise theirs texts, and how they juggle content and form.

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# Lexical Metaphor as Judgement: Attitudinal Positioning of Editorial Writers in Business Newspapers

*Heli Katajamäki & Merja Koskela*

**Abstract** Drawing on Appraisal theory, the aim of this paper is to analyze how attitudinal positioning of writers in editorials of business newspapers is construed by means of lexical metaphors. The focus is on judgement, i. e. evaluation of human actors, because it indicates the subjective presence of a writer. Based on a corpus of 32 editorials of two Finnish business newspapers, the results show that lexical metaphors used as assessments are mostly dead metaphors, representing the source domains of competition and sports, humans and animals, as well as war, battle and violence. Most common targets of judgement are institutional actors which are described by meanings of capacity, tenacity and propriety. Economic actors are mostly evaluated positively while political actors are mostly evaluated negatively. Cases where economic actors are evaluated negatively and where individual persons are mentioned are unusual but possible. In general, judgements in editorials reflect the shared values and ideological beliefs of the papers and their readers. Lexical metaphors offer a subtle way for praising and criticizing institutions and individual people, which makes them an important stylistic means of communicating as expected in a discourse community.

**Keywords** business newspapers, editorial, Appraisal theory, judgements, lexical metaphors

## 1 Introduction

Editorials of *business newspapers* usually express the paper's official opinion on current issues. Thus they are not read as factual reports trying to be objective. Editorial opinions are typically expressed by means of *evaluations*, broadly defined as the expressions of writers' "attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, feelings about […] entities or propositions" (Thompson/Hunston 2000: 5). Evaluative linguistic choices can be seen as indications of the ways in which editorial writers position themselves in relation to their readers in the sociocultural context and thus, how they construct writers' identity or authorial self (cf. Hyland 2002: 1093, Ivanič 1998). In this sense, editorials are a form of social interaction between an editorial writer and the (imagined) readers in the discourse community, where certain types of contents and ways of expressing them are expected and accepted while others are not (cf. Stonecipher 1990: 21).

Evaluations revealing the attitudinal positioning of the author are often voiced by *lexical metaphors* because they offer a subtle way of expressing evaluation and are therefore suitable even in delicate situations. By *lexical metaphors* we cover expressions that describe something by referring to something else, unrelated but having some common characteristics. Thus, lex-

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ical metaphor is based on an implicit comparison where two things have some characteristics in common, and have a different meaning in the text than in some other context (cf. Martin/Rose 2003: 103). In discourse, metaphors tend to carry attitudinal connotations and also their linguistic features support their interpretation as attitudinal meanings (cf. White 1998: 105 f., Martin/White 2005: 42–45, 52, 61–68).

This paper draws on Appraisal theory to study how editorial writers make use of lexical metaphors as means of expressing evaluations, that is, positive or negative emotions or attitudes towards the topics they discuss. The aim of this research is to analyze how the attitudinal positioning of the editorial writers in editorials of business newspapers is construed by means of lexical metaphors. The focus of the analysis is on the use of lexical metaphors as means of evaluating *human actors*. In Appraisal theory, this type of evaluation is called *judgement*. Judgements are essential in the context of editorials of business newspapers because they shed light on a central feature of the social interaction between an editorial writer and the discourse community, namely how authors position themselves in relation to those who they are judging, and further, who the author is allowed to judge and by which means.

From the point of view of Appraisal theory, the value of this contribution is its focus on metaphor. Generally, as Appraisal theory tends to see metaphor as one of many means of evaluation, studies focusing on metaphor are few, even though metaphor may play a substantial role as a signal of evaluation in many contexts, including business discourse. Even though we approach metaphors as discourse-semantic phenomena, it must be taken into consideration that metaphors are reflections of underlying conceptions of the social world in question, such as the discourse community of business newspapers. As professional writing is always a socio-cognitive process (cf. Bhatia 2004), lexical metaphors used are inevitably influenced by common understandings and shared cognitive conceptions (cf. Lakoff/Johnson 1980). Therefore, the choice of metaphors and their use as means of judgement in editorials of business newspapers may indicate how editorial writers reproduce and transform social identities, relationships, power-relations, and most importantly values (cf. Fairclough 2006: 9–13).

## 2 Editorials as subject of research

Appraisal theory has so far rarely been applied to the field of business journalism. Editorials of general newspapers, on the contrary, have been studied, but the focus has rarely been on metaphors. For example, in Martin and White's (2005) study, metaphors form one meaning category among several others. Also Lihua (2011), Le (2010), and Kornetzki (2012) have applied Appraisal theory on editorials without specifically discussing metaphors.

Metaphors in business discourse have been studied from the point of view of cognitive metaphor theory. For example, in economics textbooks, the container metaphor has been found to be common because it serves the purpose of depersonalization and objectification (cf. Alejo 2010). Comparing the domains of economics, medicine and computing from a cognitive-linguistic perspective, Richardt (2005) emphasized the importance of metaphors as tools for scientific reasoning, while Gatti (2016) discussed the role of metaphors for constructing corporate identity on Italian corporate websites through memory-centered discourse.

Earlier research clearly indicates that metaphoric expressions form an established part of language use in the fields of business and economics. Among others, Henderson (2000) talks about basic metaphors of economics, so called *root metaphors*. These are based on cognitive conceptions reflecting a shared value system which is known and accepted by the discourse community, and is in part familiar also to the general public. This is also true of business newspapers which represent a discourse community with clear ideological preferences. It has been argued that financial papers are important vehicles to spread the ideology of globalization and new liberalism, and metaphors serve this goal well (cf. Knowles/Phillips/Lidberg 2017). This also applies to Finnish business journalism in the 21st century (cf. Ainamo/Tienari/Vaara 2006: 630). As the discourse of business journalism has an ideological background, ideology can be seen as the context for appraisal meanings (cf. White 2004). Thus, the ideology of neoliberalism forms the basis for evaluative meanings in Finnish editorials of business newspapers.

Editorials have been considered an important part of the newspaper, as they "aim to shape opinions and behavioral patterns" (Lihua 2011: 9). Moreover, editorials play an important role in society as they are considered to be institutional, newspaper's opinions (cf. Stonecipher 1990: 24, Le 2010: 3, Lihua 2011: 9) instead of more personal commentaries. As institutional texts, editorials are products of writers who have adopted their professional roles in the discourse community and construe relationships with others accordingly.

Parsons (1989: 41) has claimed that business newspapers share the same genres with general newspapers. One specific feature of editorials of business newspapers is, however, that they devote a lot of space to analyzing what is going on in the world with effects on economy. In this paper, we call these texts *editorials of development*. This type of editorials focuses on commenting economical or economic-political developments, which either are or are not taking place. They are often based on indexes and long-term trends, and are not subject to political debates, not presented as contentious and not challenged by the discourse community.

Editorials of development are interesting from the point of view of authorial positioning because they are intended for a unified discourse community sharing similar beliefs and ideologies, and therefore do not necessarily require powerful argumentation. Editorials offer discoursal spaces for the elite to communicate or to be in the focus of communication (cf. Ojala 2017). This sets constraints on editorial writers, as elite are both part of the target group and sources of news. It might, therefore, be challenging to criticize the actions of those sharing the preferences of the economic elite, and at the same time, try to argue for a shared ideology.

Because editorials are intrinsically subjective, they offer many possibilities for construing authorial positioning. However, there are limitations induced by genre expectations as well as by institutional practices and cultural factors. Appraisal theory enables describing similarities and differences in the use of metaphors as means of evaluating human actors at a discourse-semantic level (cf. Martin/White 2005: 10).

## 3 Appraisal theory

Appraisal theory is concerned with the intersubjective positioning of writers in texts and the interpersonal in language, as well as with the subjective presence of writers. It approaches language as a way "writers adopt a stance towards value positions being referenced by the text and with respect to those they address" (Martin/White 2005: 92).

Appraisal theory approaches language use as a system divided into three top-level interpersonal systems: appraisal, negotiation, and involvement. The linguistic domain of appraisal comprises the systems of attitude, engagement, and graduation. While Appraisal theory describes all kinds of stance-taking possibilities, this paper concentrates on one subsystem, called attitude (cf. Figure 1).

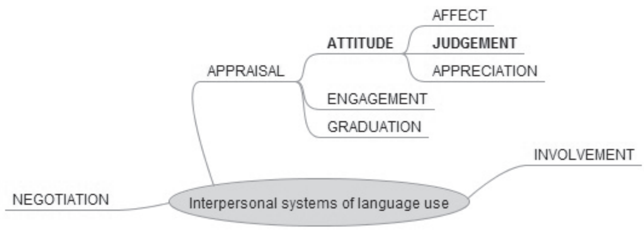


*Figure 1: The Appraisal system*

The system of attitude is a semantic domain based on the idea of institutionalized feelings, and it is divided further into *affect*, standing for resources for modalizing, emotionally amplifying and reacting, *judgement* including morally judging persons and their behavior, and *appreciation*, that is aesthetically evaluating entities, actions or processes.

Attitude can be expressed explicitly through attitudinal lexis (*inscription*) including clearly attitudinal and/or lexicogrammatically highly potential words for expressing attitude (adjectives, modal verb chains). Moreover, attitude can be expressed implicitly by selecting ideational meanings, which in context could be linked to the shared cultural attitudinal norms. In addition, there are also *provoked tokens*, which are based on connotations, such as lexical and comparable metaphors and intensification. Lexical metaphors are identified as provoked meanings because they include linguistic features supporting their interpretation as attitudinal meanings (cf. White 1998: 105 f., Martin/White 2005: 42–45, 52, 61–68). According to White (2004: 229), however, metaphors tend to fall in-between explicit and implicit ways of expressing evaluation, which makes them analytically challenging.

According to the Appraisal framework, metaphors are linguistic expressions which receive their meaning in text. In fact, Halliday (1994: 342) finds that lexical metaphor is an indirect and incongruent way of expressing a certain meaning and that it is used instead of a more congruent expression. This means that when a metaphor is recognized, it can be replaced by a more congruent expression (cf. Halliday 1994: 350).

Halliday (1994: 342–349) states that metaphorization is an intrinsic part of the development of a language, but that there is also an opposing tendency, demetaphorization, meaning that metaphoric language use gradually becomes congruent. When fresh metaphors are getting established and then finally die, their original metaphoric character cannot be recognized any more. This is why partly dead and dead metaphors are more common than fresh metaphors in professional discourse (Richardt 2005: 11 f.). Even though well-established metaphors gradually start to mean literally what they used to mean metaphorically, they still carry meanings that may lead researchers to the reasons behind metaphorization (Halliday 1994: 342–349).

## 4 Aim and data

The aim of this research is to analyze how lexical metaphors are used in editorials of business newspapers to express attitudinal positioning of the writers in relation to their readers. The main focus of this article will be on judgements, because they reveal how authors position themselves by evaluating human actors. In this paper, we answer the following research questions:

RQ1: Which types of metaphors are used as explicit judgements in editorials of business newspapers?
RQ2: What (sub-)types of judgements are produced through metaphoric expressions?
RQ3: What are the potential targets of judgements in editorials in business newspapers?

The data were drawn from editorials of development published in two Finnish business newspapers, *Kauppalehti* and *Taloussanomat*. Both papers are published in Finnish, and they basically target the same discourse community. There are some minor differences in the editorial policies, the expertise of journalists and even in the target groups, but the data is analyzed as a whole because the focus is on genre-level affordances. Thus, differences in the corpus data are only commented on if there is systematic variation.

Editorials of development were identified based on their communicative purpose claiming that there has been, is, or will be some kind of economic development. Altogether 32 such editorials were found in the papers published in September in the years 2001, 2005 and 2015. The years chosen cover the situation before and after the global financial crisis (2008). September was chosen because economic and political institutions are getting active after the summer break. The data of 2015 only cover *Kauppalehti*, because *Taloussanomat* eliminated editorials in 2008 in connection with becoming an online-only publication. The total number of words in the corpus amounts to approx. 10,000 words (cf. Table 1).

*Table 1: Description of the data*

| **Newspaper & Features** | **September 2001 Editorials/ Metaphoric assessments** | **September 2005 Editorials/ Metaphoric assessments** | **September 2015 Editorials/ Metaphoric assessments** | **In total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Kauppalehti* (founded 1989)<br>Media house: Alma Media<br>Different writers: group writing, roles vary | 6/30 | 4/24 | 12/97 | 22/151 |
| *Taloussanomat* (founded 1997)<br>Media house: Sanoma Oy<br>Different writers: group writing, roles vary | 6/15 | 4/22 | Online,<br>no editorials<br>since 2008 | 10/37 |
| **In total** | **12/45** | **8/46** | **12/97** | **32/188** |

The editorials in the corpus were written by different authors discussing multiple topics varying from economic to political. However, all topics, even the political ones, were approached as economic or economic-political issues, and the perspective is more macro- than micro-economic.

The data covers a period of 15 years, which may give indications of potential changes in both topics and ways of language use. While the genre remains the same, one could assume that changes in the economic and political situation may also affect the attitudinal positioning. An important factor behind any changes is the global financial crisis of 2008, which challenged the political and economic ideology. Streeck (2013) argues that the privatization and liberalization of economy in the EU culminated in the crisis, when governments had to step in to rescue the economy. Therefore, after the crisis, the proponents of neoliberalism and globalization could not take it for granted that their ideology is shared, but have needed to start arguing for their ideology.

## 5 Methods

In the context of business discourse, evaluative meanings can be seen as resulting from shared or at least well-known goals and ideology, which make them possible to interpret in the first place (cf. Ainamo/Tienari/Vaara 2006, Katajamäki 2013). However, analyzing metaphors as assessments is an analysis of reading (cf. Martin/White 2005: 163 f.), which means that the social, cultural and ideological positioning of the researchers tend to affect interpretations (cf. White 1998: 35 f.). In our analysis of lexical metaphors, we apply context-driven categories of appraisal (cf. Lipovsky 2013: 313) and thus avoid circular-argumentation of what is and what is not evaluative (cf. Thompson/Hunston 2000: 5–14).

Our analysis of metaphors followed the steps illustrated in Table 2. First, we identified each metaphor (both fresh and dead ones), but also more broadly other types of figurative language use, such as idioms[1] and metonymic expressions[2]. This was motivated by the fact that partially or totally frozen metaphors are the most common in professional discourse (cf. Richardt 2005: 11 f.).

Second, we determined whether the metaphors functioned as assessments that targeted someone or something. Because the metaphors in the corpus are not used for expressing affect, this paper will focus on lexical metaphors as vehicles of *opinions* rather than *emotions* (cf. White 2004: 230). Third, we categorized the source domains of the metaphors expressing judgement. Fourth, we interpreted the meanings construed, for which classifications taken from Appraisal theory turned out to be sufficiently appropriate. Thus, judgements were classified into the meaning categories of *capacity, tenacity* and *propriety*. Finally, we grouped the targets into economic or political actors. Economic actors refer to institutions, groups of people or individuals that are part of the private business sector, while political actors refer to institutions, groups of people or individuals that are part of the public sector, like central banks, nations, trade unions, or politicians.

*Table 2: The analysis procedure step-by-step*

| **Phases of analysis** | **Motivation = Outcome** |
|---|---|
| Extracting metaphors from text | Explicit lexical metaphors based on discourse-semantic meaning |
| Extracting judgements (according to target) | Differentiation between judgement and appreciation |
| Categorizing source domains | E. g. sports, nature, war, geography |
| Categorizing meanings<br>1. Subtypes of meaning<br>2. Tone | <br>1. Capacity, tenacity, propriety<br>2. Positive or negative |
| Categorizing targets | Economic actors, political actors |

1 Idioms consist of several words. They are expressions the meaning of which cannot be derived from the conjoined meanings of its elements (cf. Glucksberg 2001: 68).

2 Metonymy is a figure of speech in which a label for one thing is used for another with which it is associated, e. g. an institution, such as the name of a company or a country, is presented as an actor instead of people (cf. Lakoff/Johnson 1980: 35–40).

In this paper, the targets of assessments are analyzed at the micro-level (cf. Hood 2004: 104), which means that every assessment has been categorized according to the nearest possible meaning. Such meaning is often explicit and/or can be found at the sentence level. Restricting the study to the micro-level means that the emphasis lies on meanings construed within a complete sentence (cf. Halliday 1994: 43). However, co-text sensitivity is taken into consideration (cf. Martin/Rose 2003: 35 f.) as the analysis proceeds linearly from one sentence to the next.

The interpretation of targets is crucial, because human beings are the targets of judgements and inanimate things are the targets of appreciations while both may be the targets of affect (cf. Martin/White 2005: 41–68). Even though the basic principle is clear, there are challenges due to metaphorization. Animate actions can be described abstractly, nominalized, or fully impersonalized (cf. Halliday 1994). On the other hand, inanimate actions can be personified (cf. Lakoff/Johnson 1980: 33). Therefore, the interpretation is based on the interpreters' worldly knowledge.

In order to be categorized as a judgement, an explicit or implicit human target must be identified. Furthermore, explicit judgements can implicitly function as appreciations or vice versa. Although it is possible to use double coding in order to solve analytical problems (Martin/White 2005: 67 f.), in this paper only the most obvious meaning is taken into account when presented in numbers (cf. also ben-Aaron 2005: 698). In the following chapters, we will report our results in generalized categories that are also applicable for other languages than Finnish.

## 6 Results

The main focus of this paper is on judgements, because they reveal characteristics of social interaction in editorials of business newspapers. First, we start with a broader view of the data, setting the judgements in the context of other evaluative meanings (6.1). Second, we will focus on the source domains of lexical metaphors that function as judgements (6.2). In Chapter 6.3, we describe the types of judgements and how they are used for judging upon economic and political actors. In Chapter 7, we briefly describe subtypes of targets. Previous studies have shown that editorial writers prefer to take direct responsibility of assessments they choose to use, and do not often attribute attitude to other sources (cf. White 2004: 231, Lihua 2011: 97). As this is the case in our data, this paper excludes the few exceptions of attributed assessments (15/188 in the corpus).

### *6.1 Overall picture*

The 32 editorials of development contained a total of 188 *provoked assessments* construed through lexical metaphors. As Table 3 shows, these consist of judgements (55) and appreciations (133). Approximately two thirds of the editorials include judgement (19 texts), while almost all include appreciation (30 texts). On average, there were 6 lexical metaphors expressing assessment in each text, the typical case being 2 judgements and 4 appreciations in a text. However, there was substantial variation between the 32 texts, as eight texts had 0–2, 20 texts had 3–9, and four texts had as many as 10–14 lexical metaphors expressing assessment.

Moreover, the data studied in this paper contains 429 *non-metaphorical* explicit assessments; divided into expressions of affect (48), judgement (36) and appreciation (345) (cf. Appendix). In general, there seems to be a tendency that repeated use of explicit assessments correlates with the occurrence of assessments through lexical metaphors.

*Table 3: Corpus overview*

| | **2001** | **2005** | **2015** | **In total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | N | N | N |
| Texts | 12 | 8 | 12 | 32 |
| Words | 3724 | 2046 | 3415 | 9185 |
| Assessments through lexical metaphors | 45 | 46 | 97 | 188 |
| *Appreciations* | *38* | *31* | *64* | *133* |
| *Judgements* | *7* | *15* | *33* | *55* |

In the corpus, lexical metaphors of judgement (55) seem to be more common for expressing attitudinal meanings than for explicit realizations (36). Moreover, Lihua (2011: 96) in her study of editorials of *China Daily*, has noted the same tendency to express judgement through invoked rather than explicit means. However, the editorials in the corpus have plenty of inscribed appreciations. They are common means of argumenting logically which probably explains why they are also widely used in economic news (cf. Kornetzki 2012, Katajamäki 2009). The editorials of development tend to focus on abstract issues rather than on people (cf. Lihua 2011: 91–96). In such texts, even one judgement is enough to make it clear who is to be blamed or thanked. If judgements are not stated explicitly or with lexical metaphors, there are no invoked judgements either, as if the editorials try to avoid praising and making blames vaguely if no clear ones are possible (cf. Don 2016). Therefore, it seems that appreciations are not genre-specific resources in business journalism, while judgements, especially those stated explicitly or through lexical metaphors, may be distinctive of the genre (cf. Martin/White 2005, Fowler 1982: 73), and thus more genre-specific. These findings provide evidence for the nature of editorials as representatives of an argumentative and subjective genre that allow judging people.

### *6.2 Source domains of lexical metaphors*

The source domains of evaluative metaphors are interesting because they reveal the underlying conceptions inherent to business journalistic discourse. For example, the (root) metaphor "business is competition" is a widely understood and shared value, which many lexical metaphors are based upon (cf. e. g. Boers 2000: 140, 145). Next, we will briefly describe the source domains of lexical metaphors and discuss their potential to express positive or negative meanings.

Thanks to shared understandings, metaphors are an obvious and expected way for editorial writers to express judgement. They are also used for representing actions and events from specific perspectives which opens possibilities to express evaluation. What is more, they are also used in business journalism to intensify textual meanings, which, in combination with expressed judgements, have the potential to make the text more appealing to the readers (cf. Martin/White 2005: 143 f.).

In the corpus, human actors were evaluated with metaphors derived from the source domains of *competition and sports* (20); *human or animal* (14); *war, battle and violence* (8); *physical conditions and nature* (7); and *constructions and building* (6). Most often, evaluative metaphors were used to characterize economics as an ongoing competition, as the work of personified human- (or animal-) like actors, or as some kind of war or battle.

As Table 4 shows, both positive and negative evaluations are linked to the same source domains. Only the domain of physical conditions and nature  is exceptional as it is used for producing negative evaluations only. In Table 4, illustrative examples of judgements based on lexical metaphors (translatable to English) are presented. In the second column, there are examples in which the interpretation as an assessment is implicit; that is based on context, whereas in the third column, the examples include explicit linguistic expressions that are evaluative. However, the border between explicit and provoked assessment is not always clear enough, and the interpretation of lexical items as evaluative basically depends on the context (cf. Martin/White 2005: 52).

Moreover, the evaluative potential of metaphors seems to vary. Some metaphoric expressions have a strong evaluative potential, and are inherently either positive or negative: such as *being affected by dark forces* or *getting burned*. Some others again are more neutral, such as *setting one's sights on something, the shepherd of the fairy tale*, or *the die is cast*. Interpreting these more neutral metaphoric expressions as positive or negative requires knowledge of the cognitive metaphor values.

*Table 4: Metaphors expressing assessment and their source domains*

| **Source domain** | **Interpretation based on textual meaning** | **Interpretation based on lexical meaning; pos/neg. explicitly retrievable** |
|---|---|---|
| **COMPETITION AND SPORTS** | **POS**: *market leader, price leader, heavy weight low price chain, aim at*<br>**NEG**: *(previous) price leader, challenge, do some serious betting, play hard* | **POS**: *number one, important contender, leading position, consolation prize*<br>**NEG**: *(lost) its leading position, stomped over by competition, fall into the competition's lap, not got into full speed* |
| **HUMAN OR ANIMAL** | **POS**: *take the lead, the die is cast, forerunner country, get away scot-free*<br>**NEG**: *already have the lead, the shepherd of the fairy tale, to waste* | **POS**: *overcome its difficulties*<br>**NEG**: *play cat and mouse, experiencing the same optical illusion, fiddle around, not seeing far enough* |
| **WAR, BATTLE AND VIOLENCE** | **POS**: *to eliminate, frontline*<br>**NEG**: *troops were scattered, not fully in the front line, on the defensive* | **POS**: *not content with standing at the home front*<br>**NEG**: *be in danger of doing* |
| **PHYSICAL CONDITIONS AND NATURE** | **POS**: –<br>**NEG**: *mature, under pressure* | **POS**: –<br>**NEG**: *cross-draught, dark forces, getting burned, a shadow is cast* |
| **CONSTRUCTIONS AND BUILDING** | **POS**: *a full-service financial department store, to lathe*<br>**NEG**: – | **POS**: –<br>**NEG**: *paint oneself in a corner* |

The findings presented in Table 4 support earlier research by Alejo (2010: 1140) and Richardt (2005: 115–146). The source domains of competition and sports and war, battle and violence are commonly used probably because they are often based on a clear value system: it is very positive if one wins a competition or a war. They also tend to take the perspective of the winner, which provides a firm basis for interpreting their meaning. However, the thought patterns behind competition and sports and war, battle and violence have different levels of intensity (Boers 2000: 139).

The most varied and abstract of the source domains is the one based on human or animal. The metaphoric expressions in this category substitute the more abstract with something more concrete. For example, a political actor's behavior is described in terms of *holding the reins like a rider of a horse*, or alternatively, as a *play between cats and mice.* This type of metaphors are not typical personifications representing inhuman as human, but instead they represent institutions or groups as individuals and thereby function in making abstract concepts more understandable, or even factual and simplified (cf. Lakoff/Johnson 1980).

The category of physical conditions and nature contains a variety of different metaphoric expressions. However, they are jointly related to human observation, something that people experience as good or bad. Here, the abstract is again replaced by something more concrete and familiar. Meanings are expressed in incongruent ways. This source domain is so general that it applies to all fields, and it is therefore not business-specific.

The source domain of constructions and building is often used in business discourse to emphasize something positive, and building metaphors tend to deliver an image of dominance, wealth, control and stability (Gatti 2016: 17, 20). Moreover, in the context of judgement, construction metaphors are mostly used for expressing positive evaluations.

In conclusion, it can be stated that lexical choices in metaphors of judgement play a role. Many lexical items have an established metaphorical interpretation and use which may be inherently positive or negative. These are exploited in clarifying the positive or negative character of the evaluation in the same way as in explicit evaluations.

### *6.3 Types of judgements*

Judgements in the editorials construed through lexical metaphors (55) were identified as meanings of capacity (33), tenacity (16) and propriety (6). In this chapter, we describe the functions which meanings serve in the texts when targeting economic or political actors and provide examples on how judgements are activated in the texts.

#### *6.3.1 Capacity*

Capacity is expressed both explicitly and using lexical metaphors. When targeting economic actors, meanings of capacity are used for (i) describing the relative size of companies (based on annual revenue or offered services and products) as a given state of affairs (definite noun groups), (ii) moving into a new role on the market (material verbs with dynamic meaning), or (iii) advancing into a better situation compared with another company (comparisons or material verbs).

The relative size of companies is described as a given state of affairs in Example 1[3]. Presenting the relative size as a given fact paves way to the interpretation that the stores are more capable than many others as they belong to the big ones.

[3] In the examples, lexical metaphors are marked with boldface and the target of judgement is underlined.

(1) Lidlin ja muiden **raskaan sarjan** halpaketjujen ytimenä ovat erittäin alhaiset kulut ja tehokas sisäänostojärjestelmä. (TS11092001)[4]
[At the core of Lidl and other **heavyweight** low price stores are extremely low costs and an effective purchasing system.]

Meanings of capacity are often included in reports of a change of status or relative position describing how an actor moves into a good or bad position. Such descriptions are typical of editorials of development which concentrate on describing changes in economy. In particular it is metaphors of competition and sports as well as war, battle and violence metaphors that obviously serve to express meaning of capacity because in these contexts, changes of position are considered normal, accepted and valued.

In Examples 2–4, verbs expressing change and metaphors derived from competition and sports are used to describe a change of position. In Example 2, the loss of the leading position constructs meanings of moving into a bad position. The expression (in Finnish it is a compound) *leading position* is based on an established metaphor of competition and sports, typical of business discourse. Leading position can be understood as a metaphor because there is no true competition going on between national economies. Still, national economies are presented as actors competing with each other, and one might in some situation be in a better position than in another. In Examples 3 and 4, a discourse of competition is used when the success of a department store chain (SOK) is described in terms of it being *number one* and a *market leader*.[5]

(2) Maailman toiseksi suurin kansantalous on menettänyt taloudellista **johtoasemaansa** Aasiassa. (KL04092001)
[The world's next biggest national economy has lost some of **its leading position** in Asia.]

(3) SOK nousee **ykköseksi** (KL08092005)
[The business SOK rises to **number one**.]

(4) SOK:sta tulee kiistaton päivittäistavarakaupan **markkinajohtaja**. (KL08092005)
[SOK will become the undeniable **market leader** in grocery trade.]

Describing how a company acquires a better situation is based on a comparison of companies, and in Example 3 a material verb of *rising* is used. In Example 5, there are two actors involved:

[4] Examples have been translated by the authors, and they are coded as follows: [PAPER (KL or TS) DDMMYEAR].

[5] The metaphor *market leader* is a so called frozen metaphor. In spite of this, it is still open for interpretation in terms of metaphoric features. A market leader is a human actor, someone who has taken the lead and is therefore able to define different courses of action (for example the price of a product). Such a power supports gaining maximal profit, which is evaluated positively in the business context. According to Miniter, the positive evaluation of being a market leader is based on the belief that striving for that position is a good strategy when a company seeks profits, even though market share is not necessarily connected with the growth of profit. He describes maximizing market shares as compulsive or as a dogmatic cult with business schools as temples (cf. Miniter 2002: 9–11, 19 f.).

a business (SOK) that is actively moving to a better position by *buying* another one (Spar), and thus preventing the birth of an additional, larger group of stores in terms of war metaphors (*eliminate*). Examples 3–5 also illustrate the tendency of prosodic realisations (cf. Martin/White 2005) as the judgements are derived from the same editorial. When interpreting discourse semantic meanings, it is important what has been said before.

(5) SOK **eliminoi** Spar-kaupalla mahdollisen kolmannen merkittävän <u>kaupparyhmittymän</u> syntymisen Suomeen. (KL08092005)
[Through buying the department store chain Spar, SOK **eliminated** the evolvement of <u>a third large trading block</u> in Finland.]

As illustrated above, the meanings of capacity are used as positive characterizations (expressing admiration) of businesses. However, when they are used for political actors, they tend to be more critical. Meanings of capacity targeting political actors seem to (i) describe a political actor's inability to act as a given state of affairs, (ii) describe change in the status of a political actor (e. g. *rise into the forefront, become a forerunner*), or (iii) criticize political actors for their incapabilities.

Criticism, even though hedged with *in part,* is obvious in Example 6, where the author of the editorial claims that Finland is *experiencing an optical illusion*. Finland is not presented as an active subject, but as an involuntary experiencer. Contextually, Finland in Example 6 seems to refer to leading politicians or elite, which may be evaluated as incapable. Even though the target of criticism remains implicit, the metaphor in itself is explicitly evaluative.

(6) <u>Suomi</u> **on** nyt osittain **vajonnut** tähän samaan **näköharhaan**. (KL17092015)
[<u>Finland</u> **is** now in part **experiencing the same optical illusion**.]

(7) <u>Suomi</u> on vaarassa tehdä saman virheen energia-asioissa, minkä se teki metsäteollisuudessa. Ei **nähdä** tarpeeksi **kauaksi**. (KL28092015)
[There is the danger that <u>Finland</u> is making the same mistake in energy questions that it made earlier in the lumber industry. One does not **see far enough** [no subject –impersonal.]

In Example 7, the author refers to *not seeing far enough*, which can be interpreted as an incapability of some people to understand future developments. The target of the evaluation at sentence level is grammatically marked as implicit, but can be derived from the previous sentence as being Finland. In spite of this implied reference, the obvious interpretation is that it is those with political power that are targeted.

### *6.3.2 Tenacity*

Tenacity is used to describe actors pursuing a goal in a specific manner, or alternatively as lacking such determination. Being specific seems to be more a matter of describing actions than qualifications. In our data, such descriptions targeted both economic and political actors who were described either positively as being determined or negatively as not being determined.

Positive meanings were construed by describing an actor's intentions through material processes that are happening (present tense) or will be happening (future tense), or in terms of goals that an actor should try to pursue, sometimes because an actor is forced to or (easily) able to act in a determined manner. In Example 8, economic actors (Chinese companies) striving for a better position are described as knowledgeable. Example 9 includes a positive evaluation of how the labor market will be managed by the government, characterizing it as a determined supervisor which takes control of the situation.

(8) <u>Kiinalaisyritykset</u> eivät tyydy **seisomaan kotiasemissa**, vaan hakevat myös globaalia johtajuutta. (KL07092015)
[<u>Chinese companies</u> are not satisfied with **occupying their own posts at home**, but strive for global leadership.]

(9) <u>Hallitus</u> **ottaa ohjat käsiinsä** (KL09092015)
[<u>The government</u> **takes the reins**.]

Negative meanings were construed by describing an actor that was not ready or able to take action in a determined manner. The reasons could be caused by itself or by some outer force.

(10) 1980-luvulla <u>rahoitusala</u> ei ollut vielä suuriin järjestelyihin **kypsä**, vaan toimintaan liittyi taloudellisten lisäksi aluepoliittisia tai aatteellisia tekijöitä. (TS13092005)
[In the 1980's <u>the financial sector</u> was not **mature** for large rearrangements, since in addition to economic factors, even local politics and ideological factors were involved.]

(11) <u>SAK</u> **maalaa kannallaan itseään nurkkaan**, sillä sekä Akava että STTK hyväksyvät viiden prosentin tavoitteen. (KL23092015)
[<u>SAK</u> (the trade union) **is painting itself into a corner**, since both Akava (the academic union) and STTK (the white collar union) accept the goal of five percent.]

In Example 10, the writer expresses criticism based on a lack of tenacity on the part of an economic actor in the past. The expressions evaluate the present positively compared to the past. Instead, in Example 11 a large trade union is described as slowing down progress and causing trouble to itself, while not having the determination of some other unions.

### *6.3.3 Propriety*

While the meanings of capacity and tenacity concern social esteem, the meanings of propriety form a sub-category of *social acceptance* (cf. Martin/Rose 2003: 24, Martin/White 2005: 52). According to Iedema/Feez/White (1994: 211), meanings of social esteem are connected with the appreciation an actor gets from the public. The meanings of social acceptance are connected with right and wrong that is what is considered socially accepted habits and rules of behavior. For example, being stupid does not involve any wrong-doing, while dishonesty does. In many cases, meanings of social acceptance are used for evaluating behavior which is regulated by law.

In editorials of business newspapers, meanings of propriety seem to be used for several, variable descriptions. They were included in descriptions of what an actor is doing, what is happening because something has been done, what someone should do, or how someone can be characterized. Interestingly, meanings of propriety expressed through lexical metaphors were found only in the data from 2015. Those meanings were negative with one exception, and even the one exception was an expression of hoping that something would happen, carrying the implicit meaning that it might not.

Meanings of propriety activated by means of lexical metaphors, similarly to explicit meanings, seemed to target both economic and political actors. However, when the target was an economic actor, judgements were connected with the Volkswagen emission-cheating crisis revealed in 2015. When the manipulation was discovered, Volkswagen was criticized in newspapers internationally. When activated by means of lexical metaphors, the company was judged by referring to *dark forces*, which may reside behind the façade of companies with a good reputation. The metaphor was targeted at those who broke the laws (Example 12), but the target still remained vague (*a company in generic terms rather than the managers or management of Volkswagen*).

(12) Volkswagenin päästöskandaali kertoo siitä, että <u>yrityksen</u> puhtoisenkin julkisuuskuvan takaa voi löytyä **pimeitä voimia**. (KL24092015)
[The Volkswagen emission-cheating scandal reveals that there may reside **dark forces** behind the façade of <u>a company</u> with a good reputation.]

Even a politician as a person can be characterized through a metaphor of propriety. In Example 13, the Greek Prime Minister Tsipras is characterized as *a master of turncoats*. The negative meaning of the traditional metaphor *turncoat* is intensified by the noun head *master* (cf. Martin/White 2005: 151 f.). However, targeting a single person as a human actor is unusual in the data, but this exception shows that it is possible to judge upon a person by means of metaphor when it serves the communicative purpose of the editorial.

(13) Tähän saakka <u>Tsipras</u> on ollut poliittisen **takinkäännön mestari**. (KL22092015)
[So far <u>Tsipras</u> has been **a master of political turncoats**.]

(14) <u>SAK</u> **pelaa kovaa peliä**, mutta pelitilanne on muuttunut. (KL23092015)
[The trade union <u>SAK</u> **plays a tough game**, but the score has changed.]

In addition to politicians, meanings of propriety are used for criticizing the blue collar labor union SAK as a tough player not understanding the situation and therefore slowing down changes in the labor market, which are considered necessary by the writer (Example 14). Consequently, the labor union is described as an unfair actor.

## 7 Targets of judgements

Judgements are assessments of persons, individuals, groups or institutions. As such they are not necessary for expressing opinions in editorials: editorial writers can concentrate on subjects and criticize phenomena, and thus hide the link to human action. However, when an editorial writer chooses to assess people, judgements can be seen as linguistics evidence of the relationship between the writer and the people assessed. As Table 5 shows, in the editorials of Finnish business newspapers, the people assessed were either economic or political actors, and they were evaluated both positively and negatively. In addition, the actors assessed through metaphors were often explicitly mentioned in the editorial (cf. Table 5).

The most common targets of judgement were institutional actors (such as low price stores, China, Finland, firms) labeled as organizations, parties and nations in Table 5. Only in few cases, the target was an individual (the Finnish Minister Heinäluoma, the Chancellor of Germany Schröder, the Greek Prime Minister Tsipras). Therefore, it seems that even though it is in principle possible to target an individual with a metaphor of judgement, editorial writers rather choose to evaluate institutional actors. When deemed necessary, even groups of people can be targeted, such as the government or citizens. However, judgements of government and citizens only occur in the data of 2015, while both in 2001 and 2005, economic (15) actors were targeted more often than political (7) actors. In the data of 2015, on the contrary, judgements targeted political (26) actors more often than economic (7) actors. The changes in the figures are connected with the topics discussed: the texts of development in the data from 2015 concentrate on the economic political development of Finland and Europe.

*Table 5: Categories of targets and linguistic examples*

| | | **Economic actor as a target** | | **Political actor as a target** | | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **CATEGORIES OF MEANING** | **CAPACITY** | 15 | **ECONOMIC ACTORS (GROUP)**<br>Owners of a company<br>**ORGANIZATIONS**<br>Financial department store, price leader, the second largest domestic bank, grouping of stores, low price chain, new grouping of banks | 18 | **POLITICIAN (INDIVIDUAL)**<br>Heinäluoma, Schröder<br>**POLITICIAN (GROUP)**<br>Politicians, those using political power<br>**ORGANIZATIONS/PARTIES**<br>CDU, labor union<br>**NATIONS**<br>World's second largest national economy, China, Ethiopia, a forerunner country, Finland | 33 |
| | **TENACITY** | 4 | **ORGANIZATIONS**<br>The German E.ON, Finance sector, Chinese companies, Western companies | 12 | **POLITICIAN (ROLE)**<br>Leader<br>**POLITICIAN (GROUP)**<br>The Finnish Government, representatives of a party<br>**ORGANIZATIONS/PARTIES**<br>Syriza, EU, white collar labor unions<br>**NATIONS**<br>China | 16 |
| | **PROPRI-ETY** | 3 | **ORGANIZATIONS**<br>Volkswagen, company | 3 | **POLITICIAN (INDIVIDUAL)**<br>Tsipras<br>**ORGANIZATIONS/PARTIES**<br>Blue collar labor union | 6 |
| | **In sum** | **22** | | **33** | | **55** |

When meanings of capacity refer to economic actors, they tend to be positive, and when they refer to political actors they are mostly negative. When it comes to meanings of tenacity, both positive and negative judgements are expressed concerning economic and political actors.

Meanings of propriety again focus mostly on negative judgements, the one positive is more like a wish that a politician (Tsipras) would act as he should, even though it is deemed unlikely. Therefore, it seems that metaphors function as tools of assessment when an individual politician is evaluated negatively, when the actions of parties or other organizations are evaluated positively or negatively or when companies or countries are compared with each other, in which case one party is evaluated positively and the other one negatively.

Most of the targets of judgements are institutional actors. They are structured collectives in which a part represents the whole, and people may also be replaced by others (in other words, it is a case of metonymy). They also tend to be general rather than detailed. In connection with meanings of capacity, for example, judgements do not reveal what type of internal (e. g. having certain skills) or external capabilities (e. g. having money) the actor possesses. Instead, it is enough to describe them as generally capable. These cases seem to reveal the tendency of business journalistic discourse to resort to similar vagueness of lexical meaning, as in general language. This is in contrast to professional discourse in which terms are used as labels describing more or less exactly defined concepts.

## 8 Conclusions

In this paper, we have illustrated how lexical metaphors are used as means of expressing the attitudinal positioning of the editorial writers of business newspapers. The focus was on editorials describing economic development, which were analyzed through Appraisal theory. While editorial writers approach the subject of the editorial from a certain stance, they establish reading positions that situate readers to interpret things, objects or people like the writer intends to. Their authorial positioning reflects the need to express and influence opinion in a way that is in accordance with the ideological beliefs represented by the paper and their readers. In Table 6, we summarize our findings according to the phases of analysis.

*Table 6: Summary of findings*

| **Phases of analysis** | **Findings** |
|---|---|
| Extracting metaphors from text | 188 metaphors of assessment vs. 429 non-metaphoric explicit assessments |
| Extracting judgements (according to target) | 133 appreciations, 55 judgements. Metaphors of judgement (55) more common than explicit judgements (36) |
| Categorizing source domains | Competition and sports (20); human or animal (14); war, battle and violence (8); physical conditions and nature (7); and constructions and building (6). All categories both positive and negative, except physical conditions and nature only negative. |
| Categorizing meanings<br>1. Subtypes of meaning<br>2. Tone | *Capacity*: When targeting *economic actors*, meanings of capacity are used for 1) describing the relative size of companies as a given state of affair, 2) moving into a new role on the market, or 3) advancing into a better situation compared with another company. Meanings of capacity targeting *political actors* seem to 1) describe a political actor's inability to act as a given state of affairs, 2) describe change in the status of a political actor, or 3) criticize political actors for their incapabilities. |

| | |
|---|---|
| | *Tenacity*: Both economic and political actors. *Positive meanings* were construed by describing 1) an actor's intentions through material processes that are happening or will be happening in the future tense, or 2) in terms of goals that an actor should try to pursue, sometimes because an actor is forced to or able to act in a determined manner. *Negative meanings* were construed by describing an actor that was not ready or able to take action in a determined manner.<br><br>*Propriety*: Both economic and political actors. Only in the data from 2015. *Negative meanings* were connected with one economic actor, Volkswagen, and exceptionally also specific individual politicians (Tsipras). One *positive meaning* was expressed as hope of future actions. |
| Categorizing targets | Most common targets of judgement were *institutional actors*. When meanings of *capacity* refer to economic actors, they tend to be positive, and when they refer to political actors they are mostly negative. When it comes to meanings of *tenacity*, both positive and negative judgements are expressed concerning economic and political actors. Meanings of *propriety* again focus mostly on negative judgements of institutional political actors. |

The results of our analysis show that the lexical metaphors used as assessments in editorials of business newspapers are mostly dead metaphors, which are also otherwise typical of economic discourse. The same applies to the source domains that the metaphors are taken from. In conclusion, general features of business discourse are present also in editorials of business newspapers. All in all, appreciations targeting inanimate objects are more common than judgements, which may be explained by the requirements of quality journalism, i. e. objectivity and focus on issues and not on people. However, when interpreting quantitative results of micro-level analysis, it must be born in mind that the frequency and strength of inscribed assessment are not necessarily related: even one assessment may play a crucial role in a text. This seems to be obvious, in particular, when the assessment is presented in the main thesis or in the headline. Furthermore, it is fully possible to read whole texts as either positive or negative evaluations even though they lack explicit evaluative language when appropriate shared knowledge is in place (cf. e. g. Katajamäki 2009).

Linguistic resources offer many ways to criticize things and people, and sometimes metaphors offer a way to sound very critical but leave the target unstated. When it comes to targets of judgements, our findings indicate that evaluations through lexical metaphors are usually targeted on institutional actors, and only seldom on individuals. When politicians were judged, left wing politicians or labor unions were criticized while right wing politicians were seen positively as rescuers. In this way, criticism is in line with the predominant ideology of the business newspapers supporting freedom of markets and Finnish entrepreneurship. Accordingly, economic actors are predominantly judged positively, which was to be expected as the writers of editorials belong to the same discourse community with their readers and choose to maintain a feeling of solidarity with the economic elite. Evidently, the attitudinal positioning of the writer is in accordance with the ideology shared in the discourse community.

After the financial crisis in 2008, there seems to be a shift in the attitudinal positioning. Assessments, especially judgements targeted to politicians through lexical metaphors were realized more frequently. Moreover, meanings of propriety signaling social acceptance were realized only in the data of 2015. When it comes to economic institutional actors, judgements may be inferred from the text but the criticism is not explicitly targeted, e. g. a single company or on individuals such as the management even in the case of a crisis. Writing in a discourse community is a difficult task as a writer always has to balance what needs to be said in order to make important, noticeable, powerful statements, and what cannot in order to maintain good relationships with the readers who partly belong to the discourse community and share similar ideological beliefs (cf. Hyland 2002: 1091–1093). From this point of view, it seems that meanings of propriety signaling social acceptance have been chosen for criticising economic actors who have broken the law and political actors who have the power to affect developments and who are striving for purposes not seen preferable in the discourse community of Finnish business journalism.

The changes in the attitudinal positioning before and after the global financial crisis of 2008 could in part be explained with the change in the status of the editorial as a genre as some newspapers, among them *Taloussanomat*, ceased publishing them. It could even be concluded that when some newspapers try out new conventions like dropping genres altogether, others proceed by strengthening the unique characteristics of editorials, i. e. for the purpose of taking a stand. However, the constraints of the genre still exist, and this might explain the popularity of editorials of development instead of more clearly instructive variants of the genre.

Theoretically, we approached lexical metaphors from the point of view of Appraisal theory, as expressions of authors' positioning in relation to social identities represented in texts and ultimately, in relation to the readers. Thus, unlike critical discourse analysis (CDA) that focuses on social identities presented in texts, that is, who are the actors and how they are presented, seeking to reveal power relations, we apply Appraisal theory to show how solidarity is strengthened in the context. This means a shift towards positive discourse analysis (PDA), focusing on "ways that redistribute power without necessarily struggling against it" (Martin 2004: 183; cf. Bartlett 2017: 190; Wodak/Meyer 2016: 2–3). However, instead of PDA, we label our approach as Analytical Discourse Analysis because while editorial writers certainly see their views as advisable and redistributable in a positive way, based on the idea of economic wealth and growth that benefits all, this is an unanimous ideal only in the discourse community of business newspapers. What seems to be ideal from inside, might be considered totally unethical from outside. In general, the trouble to understand this seems to be one reason for misunderstandings and disagreements, and thus, our study in its part sheds light on taken-for-granted mechanisms of meaning making in specialized discourse communities. Combining Appraisal analysis with an analysis of targets, i. e. whether they were economic or political, institutions, groups of people or single persons offers a fruitful starting point for further studies. This approach pinpoints the relevance of what is judged, because certainly, there are some constraints in every context, discourse community and genre.

In our paper, we have focused on one type of editorials, one that is not very argumentative, in one cultural context, the Finnish, which evidently affects our results. However, lexical metaphors as means of evaluation are a shared feature typical of business discourse in general, which makes them interesting topics for research as to how domain-specific features relate to different editorial types and national (business) cultures. Even though this paper has focused on the level of meanings, it is evident that lexical metaphors in business discourse form a fruitful topic of further research even from a more linguistic point of view.

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## Appendix: Categories in the data, modifications based on Martin/White (2005)

**Categories as described in Appraisal theory**

ATTITUDE

**Affect**
for reacting emotionally, registering positive and negative feelings

- **Irrealis**
- **Inclination**
- **Realis**

**Judgment**
for evaluating behavior

- **Social Esteem**
  - Capacity
  - Normality
  - Tenacity
- **Social Sanction**
  - Veracity
  - Propriety

**Appreciation**
for evaluating objects, artefacts, processes, and states of affairs

- **Reaction**
  - Impact
  - Quality
- **Composition**
  - Balance
  - Complexity
- **Valuation**

**Categories and instances based on analysis of explicit assessments in the editorials of business newspapers (cf. Katajamäki 2017)**

| *General types* | *Meaning types in the data* | *Explicit instances* | *Provoked: metaphors* |
|---|---|---|---|
| **AFFECT** | | **48** | **-** |
| **Dis/incli-nation** | **Dis/inclination** (Do the feelings involve intention?) | 28 | - |
| **Realis** | **Realis** (How is the person feeling about somebody/something?) | 20 | - |
| **JUDGMENT** | | **36** | **55** |
| **Social Esteem** | - *Capacity* (How capable?) * | 24 | 33 |
| | - *Tenacity* (How resolute?) * | 4 | 16 |
| **Social Sanction** | - *Propriety* (How ethical?) * | 8 | 6 |
| **APPRECIATION** | | **345** | **133** |
| **Reaction** | - *Observation* (What does it look like? What is thought about it?) | 18 | - |
| | - *Manageability* (Is it easily managed/done?) * | 82 | 41 |
| | - *Usefulness* (Is it useful/beneficial?) * | 54 | 27 |
| **Balance** | **Balance** (Is it in balance/place?) * | 96 | 48 |
| **Valuation** | **Valuation** (Is it worthwhile?)* | 44 | 17 |
| **New groups** | **Ability** (What has it been able to do? What has it succeeded in doing?) | 13 | - |
| | **Necessity** (What is necessary/needed to be done?) | 14 | - |
| | **Possibilities/threats** (Is it opportunity/chance?) | 24 | - |
| | Total | **429** | **188** |

* A meaning type also construed through metaphors.

# Introducing a Local Legal Vocabulary in a Latin Context. A Study of Two Swedish 17th Century Approaches

*Lena Rogström & Hans Landqvist*

**Abstract** In this article, the use and consolidation of legal vocabulary is investigated in two Swedish legal handbooks from the 17th century written by Clas Rålamb and Claudius Kloot respectively. Both handbooks were written in Swedish but include elements in Latin. These elements represent original Latin as well as modified Latin, i. e. words and phrases that have been adapted to Swedish morphology. Sections of the handbooks that deal with civil cases were analyzed from a lexicological starting point. The 106 legal concepts (LC) and 169 lexical units (LU) identified are sorted into four central semantic areas of the legal process: ACTIONS, ARENAS, PARTICIPANTS and TOOLS. Kloot uses more LCs and more LUs than Rålamb who, on the other hand, shows greater lexical differentiation than Kloot. Rålamb is also shown to use a greater number of Latin LUs than Kloot. The area of TOOLS has the closest connection to Latin. Both authors make use of Latin LUs that are still part of Swedish legal vocabulary. Kloot has a stronger tendency to use Swedish LUs when possible, while Rålamb more freely combines Swedish and Latin LUs. Rålamb's and Kloot's use of Latin and Swedish LUs is discussed as well as their policies regarding the use of Latin and Swedish. Finally, the lexication of Latin and Swedish LUs in the legal domain in Swedish is discussed.

**Keywords** legal handbooks, 17th century, Latin, Swedish, language use, language policy, lexication, professionalization, Clas Rålamb, Claudius Kloot

## 1 Introduction

The study reported in this article combines three research areas. The first one is the development of the use of a vernacular, in this case Swedish, instead of Latin in the legal domain. The second research area is the study of the origin and later lexication of legal vocabulary in Swedish. The third and final area is the comparison of two valuable texts in the legal domain, which so far have only attracted the interest of legal historians but not of linguists. The two texts are the first legal handbooks in Swedish, written by Clas Rålamb and Claudius Kloot respectively. Rålamb's book was titled *OBSERVATIONES JURIS PRACTICÆ, Thet är Åthskillige Påminnelser vthi Rättegångs Saker* […] ['OBSERVATIONES JURIS PRACTICÆ, Many reminders regarding legal issues […]', capital letters in the original title] (1674), and Kloot's book was titled *Then Swenska Lagfarenheetz Spegel* […] ['Reflections on Swedish Law […]' (1676).[1] In this

[1] Kloot's book title *Then Swenska Lagfarenheetz Spegel* […] is translated, rather freely, as 'Reflections on Swedish Law […]' (1676). The word *spegel* ['mirror'] in the title is, however, worth a comment. The Swedish word *spegel* (Lat. *speculum*, Dan. *spejl*, Norw. *speil*, Germ. *Spiegel*) was used in the titles of works of an encyclopedic nature with a pedagogical ambition, sometimes combined with an ambition to offer rules of behaviour (cf. SAOB, *spegel*).

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article we report a comparative study of legal concepts and lexical units in the general field of Law, specifically Civil Law and Civil Procedural Law, based on sections in Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676).

This study is part of the research project *Swedish from a Latin basis. The first legal handbooks in Swedish* (Sw. *Svenska på latinsk grund*. *De första juridiska handböckerna på svenska*, supported by The Royal Society of Arts and Sciences in Gothenburg, 2016). The overall aim of the project is to fill an existing research gap concerning the use of Swedish in the field of law and to clarify the establishment of Swedish as an alternative to Latin in various subject fields in the 17th and 18th centuries. So far, results from the project are reported in Rogström/Landqvist (2015a), Landqvist/Rogström (2016), Rogström/Landqvist (2016), Rogström (2017) and Rogström/Landqvist (2018).

This article comprises eight sections. The first introducing section is followed by Section 2, where some theoretical remarks are presented. In Section 3, aims of and research questions for the study reported are stated. Section 4 provides the reader with a general socio-historical context for the linguistic analysis of the material studied. In this section we treat laws, courts and languages used in legal contexts in Sweden, focusing on the 17th century. Section 5 offers a more specific context for our study; we present Clas Rålamb and Claudius Kloot, their legal handbooks and their ways of dealing with Latin elements in the handbooks. In Section 6, the material used and the methods chosen are presented. Section 7 is dedicated to the results of the study as well as the discussion of them. In Section 8, we present our conclusions of the study.

## 2 Theoretical remarks

The overall aim for the project *Swedish from a Latin basis. The first legal handbooks in Swedish* is related to lexicological and terminological aspects of *Languages for Specific Purposes* (LSP). More specifically, the project aims to clarify: how does a certain vocabulary for a specific subject field develop when the vocabulary in question is not yet generally established in a certain language? We regard lexical properties as a crucial component to distinguish and describe various LSPs, even if there is "far more than a straightforward lexical distinction at the root of specialized discourse" (Gotti 2005: 18). *Legal language* is, however, an LSP where lexical properties are especially important to distinguish and describe legal language in relation to other LSPs (Mattila 2013: 1).

The phenomenon of *professional discourse* is complex, and the underlying concept has been defined by scholars with various theoretical backgrounds. We have chosen to follow Bhatia (2015: 9): "professional discourse operates simultaneously, at the very least, at four rather distinct, yet overlapping, levels, i. e., as *text*, *genre*, *professional practice*, and as *professional culture* […]" (our italics). Researchers can focus on different levels of discourse realization, and our study focuses on the first level, *discourse as text*, i. e. "surface level properties of discourse, which include formal, as well as functional aspects of discourse […]" (Bhatia 2015: 10). In our study, we focus on lexical properties of Rålamb's and Kloot's legal handbooks. Bhatia (2015: 10), however, stresses that "in order to have a comprehensive understanding of professional communication it is necessary to have some understanding of all levels of discourse realisation". Therefore, we attend to contextual factors which may bear importance for our study. The *contextual factors* observed are: legislation; judicial systems including courts and education of judges; language uses in the legal domain; the two authors as members of professional and institutional cultures; the authors' goals with the handbooks; and the authors' comments on language use in the handbooks (cf. Section 4 and Section 5).

One of the foundational frameworks for this study, as well as for our project, is the idea of *language planning* put forward by Haugen (1987). Haugen describes a process in which standardization of language takes place through a process with four stages, one of which concerns the establishment of grammar and vocabulary, i. e. *grammaticalization* and *lexication* (Haugen 1987: 64). The model was used for lexicological studies of Swedish in the 18$^{th}$ century, performed by Hannesdóttir (2000, 2011), and it was also used in the project *Lexication behind the scenes* (Sw. *Lexisering bakom kulisserna*; cf. Rogström 2016 on *Lexication behind the scenes*). The purpose of lexication is to establish a vocabulary for a certain language in order to make that language valid in all official and social domains. In our project we seek to establish a vocabulary for Swedish in the legal domain.

In the sections studied in Rålamb's and Kloot's handbooks, we have extracted single words and phrases denoting *legal concepts* (often LCs). A legal concept is an abstract unit representing a semantic content, which is lexicalized by a single word or a phrase. We use the designation *lexical units* (often LUs) for the words and phrases in question (cf. Rogström/Landqvist 2015a: 200).

There are two reasons for our decision to use *lexical units* instead of *legal terms*. The first reason is the character of law as a subject field and legal language as an LSP. Law is a subject field that is more culturally bound and rooted in national traditions than a number of other LSPs for instance medicine and technology. In a European context law as a subject field can however be said to have a common super national basis – the Roman law – and a common linguistic basis in Latin. The language of Latin in the field of law is supplemented with linguistic resources from various local languages for instance English, German and Swedish (cf. Apathy/Klingenberg/Pennitz 2016: 18 on law, Roman law and Latin). The second reason for our decision to use the designation *lexical units* is that terminology in the field of law is not always a result of a systematic terminological work, which differs law from many other subject fields for instance medicine and technology (cf. Pilke 2000: 43–68 on the central concepts of terminology in general and Mattila 2013: 137–160 on legal terminology).[2]

## 3 Aims and research questions

The first aim of this study is to clarify how Clas Rålamb and Claudius Kloot use legal terms and other lexical resources in Latin compared with their use of legal terms and other lexical resources in Swedish. The Latin lexical resources represent original Latin as well as modified Latin, i. e. words and phrases that have been adapted to Swedish morphology. The second aim of this study is to discuss how Rålamb and Kloot seem to regard Latin and Swedish as communicative tools in their handbooks, which are the very first ones that were written in Swedish. To achieve the two aims stated, we have formulated three research questions:

- What kind of similarities and differences exist between Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676) regarding legal concepts (LCs) and lexical units (LUs)?

[2] Cf. Mattila (2013: 141) on the special character of legal terms: "a legal term can just as well be a word or a phrase that only appears in legal language […] as a word or a phrase that also forms part of ordinary language but that has a special meaning in legal language".

- What kind of similarities and differences do the handbooks show regarding LUs of Swedish (i. e. Germanic) and Latin (i. e. 'foreign') origin?
- What can Rålamb's and Kloot's use of LUs tell about early standardization of Swedish LUs in the legal domain in the 17th century?

## 4 Laws, courts and languages in legal contexts

Section 4 offers a general socio-historical context for the linguistic analysis of the material studied (cf. Section 2).

In the 17th century, Sweden was to a great extent a multilingual community as the kingdom consisted of many territories where other languages than Swedish were spoken, for example Danish, Estonian, Finnish, German, Latvian, Lithuanian and Russian (Battail 2010: 8 f., Andersson/Raag 2012). The wide expansion of the Swedish realm during the 17th century created a need for a generally applicable law that could be used in all parts of the realm. Attempts were made to compile an integrated law in the beginning of the 17th century (cf. Modéer 2010: 94–103, Korpiola 2014). The plan was, however, only fulfilled after the collapse of Sweden as a regional power and the loss of substantial territories in 1721; Estonia, Livonia, Ingria and Southeast Finland. In 1734, the Swedish parliament passed a general code of laws, *Sveriges Rikes Lag*. The code was formally ratified by the king in 1736 (cf. Laurén 2016: 45–48). Over the 100 years to bring about the law of 1734, interest increased in various legal matters, for instance in the formal qualifications of judges of various lower courts. The law of 1734 also cleared the way for some changes in the Swedish legal system.

One of the changes was the introduction of a new level of court in the court system, namely the court of appeal (Sw. *hovrätt*). Before the establishment of this type of court in 1614, a citizen could appeal only to the king, in the hopes for a change of a verdict from a local court. Svea Court of Appeal in Stockholm, established in 1614, was emulated by other courts of appeal in the 17th and 18th centuries; Åbo Court of Appeal in Turku, Finland, in 1623, Dorpat Court of Appeal in Livonia in 1630 (today Tartu in Estonia), Greifswald Court of Appeal in Swedish Pomerania in 1655 (the former Swedish province is today partly in Germany, partly in Poland), Göta Court of Appeal in Jönköping in 1634, and Vasa Court of Appeal in Vaasa, Finland, in 1775. A supreme court (Sw. *Högsta domstolen*) was not founded in Sweden until 1789 (cf. Korpiola 2014, Modéer 2014).

The establishment of courts of appeal is an important part of the process that Modéer (2014: 401) labels "The Judicial Revolution and the Professionalization of the Judiciaries". The process in question is trans-European (Modéer 2014: 401). Korpiola (2014: 30) regards the establishment of the Courts of Appeal in the Swedish realm as a contribution to "the professionalization of lawyers […]" (cf. also Pettersson 2017: 46). The need for more formally competent judges also opened up space for a more profound legal education, which to a great extent came to be influenced by European judicial research (Modéer 2014: 402–404).

Up until the end of the 18th century, Latin was the natural language choice for both judicial education and research at the universities in the Swedish kingdom as well as in most other European states (cf. Stein 1999 on Roman law and Filip-Fröschl/Mader 2014 on Latin in legal contexts). However, Swedish laws have always been written in Swedish, and Swedish was the natural language choice both in trials as well as in legal protocols and various legal documents, even if elements from other languages, for instance German, occurred in such written texts (cf. Pettersson 2017: 54–56). These circumstances gave rise to a kind of bilingual judicial discourse in the 17th century, where Latin words, phrases and expressions were used by highly educated judges and scholars. Meanwhile, the judges who ran the various lower courts (Sw. *nederrätt*, *häradsrätt*, *stadsrätt*) had to rely on Swedish as their professional language. These judges had no, or very little, access to what was discussed by legislators of the realm and by judges in the courts of appeal. Naturally, other citizens in the Swedish realm had varying amounts of knowledge in Latin, and their opportunities to engage in written texts about legal matters, formulated and published in Latin, were limited (cf. Helander 2012 on the use of Latin in general in Sweden and Mattila 2000: 273–281 on the use of Latin and Swedish in legal contexts).

## 5 Two authors, two legal handbooks and two language policies

Rålamb's and Kloot's handbooks were produced in a specific cultural and institutional context. Section 5 offers information about Rålamb and Kloot as members of professional and institutional cultures, their stated goals with the handbooks and their comments on language use in the handbooks (cf. Section 2).

One way of addressing the problematic linguistic situation in Sweden in the 17th century was to produce legal handbooks written in the vernacular and intended for use by judges operating in the lower courts and by ordinary citizens. However, up until the mid 17th century no such handbooks existed (cf. Björne 1995: 376). In the 1670's two such handbooks were published, the first one written by Clas Rålamb (1674) and the second one by Claudius Kloot (1676). There are no signs of the two authors being aware of each other, and the books show no obvious resemblance, apart from the fact that they handle the same subject(s), Civil Law and Civil Procedural Law (cf. Landqvist/Rogström 2016: 10–12). These handbooks can be regarded as tools for the professionalization of Swedish judges and lawyers operating in the lower courts in the Swedish realm in the 17th century.

Clas Rålamb (1622–1698) was a man of great importance in his time. He studied law in Sweden, Holland and France and was, among other occupations, a lawyer, a diplomat and a politician. Rålamb was appointed to the position Judge of appeal in 1655, and in 1678 he became Chief Justice of the Göta Court of Appeal. Later, in 1680, he was appointed Chief Judge in Finland. The writing process resulting in Rålamb's handbook could be traced back to the 1650's, but the book was not published until 1674. According to legal historians the book became very popular and much used. A second, almost unchanged edition was published already in 1679. The handbook contains four major sections, and one index with central legal terms and expressions in both Latin and Swedish. It runs to 374 numbered pages. Rålamb's handbook was much used in the 17th and 18th centuries and it is still regarded with high esteem by legal historians (cf. Almquist 1946: 150–162, Björne 1995: 35–37, Westerberg 2012, Landqvist/Rogström 2016: 10 f., 27, 36, 43–45).

The author of the second handbook was Claudius Kloot (approx. 1612–1690). He had studied law in Sweden and in Holland and worked as a civil servant and a judge in the district court of Gothenburg in western Sweden between 1635 and 1655. From 1660 to 1676 Kloot acted as judge mayor in the small town of Vänersborg in western Sweden. His legal handbook was published in 1676, but it can be estimated that Kloot started to write it already in the 1640's. In 1651 Kloot published two books in Latin on Criminal Law with second editions of these books published in 1676, the very same year when his handbook in Swedish was published. Kloot's legal handbook is his most renowned work and it, just like Rålamb's handbook, covers the field(s) of Civil Law and Civil Procedural Law. Similar to Rålamb's book, Kloot's handbook is divided into four large sections which consist of in total 404 numbered pages. Kloot's book was moderately popular in his time, though legal historians are less positive towards Kloot's handbook than Rålamb's (cf. Hallberg 1934, Almquist 1946: 24–26, Björne 1995: 32–35, Landqvist/Rogström 2016: 11 f., 27, 36, 43–45).

Both Rålamb and Kloot were well acquainted with Latin but chose to write their handbooks in Swedish. Neither of them could manage to write their respective book without using Latin, although they employ rather different perspectives to the role of Latin in covering legal matters. Their perspectives can also be labelled as Rålamb's and Kloot's *language policies*, even if the concept 'language policy' often is defined with regard to speech communities, not to individuals belonging to speech communities (cf. Spolsky 2004: 5).

Rålamb is not at all explicit about his use of Swedish and Latin. Neither does Rålamb present any clear strategies about his use of the two languages. He changes very freely between Latin and Swedish, and he writes both quotations and technical terms in Latin, almost in a fashion that can be labelled *code-switching* (cf. Landqvist/Rogström 2016: 30–32, 73). This is not an un-familiar situation in Swedish written texts from the 17th century, for example texts dealing with administrative matters (cf. Helander 2012: 131 f.). An explanation for this kind of code-switching behavior is that Latin offered a specialized terminology, a more elaborated vocabulary and a more suitable phraseology than Swedish (cf. Helander 2012: 131). In this study, as well as in the project *Swedish from a Latin basis. The first legal handbooks in Swedish*, we define the concept 'code-switching' as 'all cases where lexical units from other languages than Swedish (i. e. Germanic) origin appear in the material studied' (cf. Blomqvist 2017: 26–57 on code-switching in general and code-switching in historical written materials specifically).

Kloot, in contrast to Rålamb, is very clear about his intention of trying to use Swedish legal terms as much as possible and to avoid Latin elements. In order to facilitate comprehension for the reader, and perhaps at the same time assure the reader that the author actually is in full command of his subject, Kloot sometimes puts the Latin equivalent to Swedish legal terms in the margins of the pages (cf. Landqvist/Rogström 2016: 30–34, 73). Kloot's decision to use Swedish as much as possible, but to include some Latin elements for certain reasons, can be regarded as a form of *audience design* (Bell 1984). Although Bell discusses oral communication, the use of two languages is included in his description of the phenomenon: "Audience design informs all levels of a speaker's linguistic choices – the switch from one complete language to another in bilingual situations […]" (Bell 1984: 161).

## 6 Material and method

The material for our study consists of two similar sections from each of the handbooks, covering the topic of lawsuits. Information about the material is summarized in Table 1.

*Table 1: Material from Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676) studied: pages, number of words, headings of the chapters in questions, number of legal concepts and number of lexical units*

| **Rålamb (1674)** | **Kloot (1676)** |
|---|---|
| pp. 75–82 | pp. 330–342 |
| 4,499 words (tokens) | 1,970 words (tokens) |
| "Om Citationer och Stämbningar" [ʻOn citations and lawsuits'] | "Om Rätten, som hörer till Sakernes Lagsökning effter som then i Processen är begrijpen" [ʻOn the law regarding lawsuits since it is a part of the process'] |
| Legal concepts: 33 | Legal concepts: 73 |
| Lexical units: 64 (tokens) | Lexical units: 105 (tokens) |

As stated in Section 2, the purpose of lexication is to establish a vocabulary for a certain language in order to make that language valid in all official and social domains, in this case the legal domain. In order to be able to clarify how lexical units are used to denote certain legal concepts, we have discerned four different semantic categories from the material studied. The categories represent the main parts of lawsuits: the ACTIONS performed, the ARENAS where the actions take place, the PARTICIPANTS who take part in the actions, and the TOOLS used to perform the actions (cf. Lindell 1998). Our starting point is thus the subject field of law, and the legal content of the sections in Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676), not a linguistic analysis of the lexical units used in that subject field (cf. Pettersson 2017: 71 f. on previous studies of Swedish legal documents). The four semantic categories, henceforth written with CAPITAL LETTERS, and examples of lexical units are shown in Table 2.

*Table 2: Semantic categories and examples of Lexical Units*

| **Semantic categories** | **Examples of Lexical Units** |
|---|---|
| ACTIONS | *döma* [ʻto sentence'], *stämma* [ʻto take (someone) to court'], *svara* [ʻto answer in court'] |
| ARENAS | *häradsting* [ʻdistrict court'], *hovrätt* [ʻcourt of appeal'] |
| PARTICIPANTS | *domare* [ʻjudge'], *kärande* [ʻplaintiff'], *svarande* [ʻdefendant'] |
| TOOLS | *dom* [ʻsentence'], *rekvisit* [ʻrequisitions'], *stämning* [ʻwrit of summons'] |

By using the semantic categories for sorting and analyzing the extracted lexical units in our material, we hope that the evolving lexical patterns will give information about Rålamb's and Kloot's strategies of handling Latin and Swedish lexical units. These patterns may also offer some clues about their different uses of Latin and Swedish in dealing with – and presenting – legal knowledge. The designation *Latin Lexical Units* (*Latin LUs*) refers to original Latin (terms) as well as modified Latin (terms), i. e. words and phrases that have been adapted to Swedish morphology. Two examples of original Latin LUs found in the material studied are *citatus* (Sw. *svarande*) [ʻdefendant'] and *judex* (Sw. *domare*) [ʻjudge']. Two modified Latin LU examples are seen in *citation* (Lat. *citatio*) [ʻlawsuit'] and *peremptorie stämning* (Lat. *citatio peremptoria*) [ʻperemptory summons'].

In this article, the examples of legal concepts from the handbooks are presented in Swedish and English. One example is ʻDen som stämmer någon (annan) inför rätta' [ʻThe person who summons someone (else) to court']. Due to the existence of different legal systems in Sweden and the English-speaking world, the translations into English are 'more or less' exact from a legal point of view. The legal concepts in the material are presented with single apostrophes regardless of the language used. The Swedish lexical units in the material are written in italics, and the English translations are written with apostrophes inside square brackets, for instance *kärande* ['plaintiff'], *actor* ['plaintiff'], *citans* ['plaintiff'], *personen som stämmer* ['the person who summons'], and *han som låter stämma* ['he who makes summons'].

The method used can be classified as close reading of the sections from Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676), combined with a lexicological/terminological analysis of the legal concepts which are extracted in the form of lexical units. We also make use of four monolingual Swedish standard dictionaries to be able to decide if various judicial single words and phrases in the two handbooks can be considered to be lexicalized (cf. Landqvist 2006 and Rogström 2010 for a discussion of the method used). The three dictionaries of Sahlstedt (1773), Dalin (1850–1855) and SO (2009) are synchronic dictionaries from the 18th, 19th and 21th century respectively, while SAOB (1893 ff.) is the diachronic dictionary par préférence regarding Swedish (cf. Rogström/Landqvist 2015a: 201–203 about the dictionaries chosen).

## 7 Results and discussion

In this section, we present our results and discuss them, addressing one research question at the time in the subsections 7.1, 7.2 and 7.3. The results in Section 7 are reported as absolute numbers and, in some cases, as percentages. Due to the limited size of the material, no statistical significance calculations have been performed.

### *7.1 Legal concepts and lexical units*

Our first research question concerns what kind of similarities and differences exist between Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676) regarding legal concepts (LCs) and lexical units (LUs). In order to answer the question, we examine each semantic category at a time to see how the authors treat the same legal content, and in what way they differ from or resemble each other. The categories are treated in alphabetical order, i. e. ACTIONS, ARENAS, PARTICIPANTS and TOOLS.

As we have already seen in Table 1, Kloot uses far more LCs and LUs than Rålamb does. This pattern is also seen in the semantic category ACTIONS, since Table 3 shows that Kloot uses more than twice as many LCs and LUs than Rålamb, although they both describe the same part of the lawsuit.

*Table 3: ACTIONS: Number of LCs and LUs in Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676)*

| **Handbooks** | **LCs** | **LUs** |
|---|---|---|
| Rålamb (1674) | 12 | 13 |
| Kloot (1676) | 25 | 36 |

The explanation for Kloot's higher number of LCs is that Kloot describes the lawsuit in greater detail, using verbs like *förhöra* ['to question'], *rannsaka* ['to cross-examine'] and *anklaga* ['to accuse'], which Rålamb does not. An explanation for Kloot's abundant use of LUs in this category is that he tends to use two or more synonyms for the same LC, for example *döma* and *avdöma* [‘to judge’], both words denoting the same ACTION. These two Swedish synonymous LUs, creating a word pair, have the same meaning and similar forms.

The use of word pairs is a lexical feature which deviates from modern standards of LSP, but it was quite common as a stylistic feature in texts during 17th century Swedish when both lexical and orthographical variation was appreciated. This stylistic feature could be traced to more formal genres in Swedish, as well as to more informal ones (cf. Bendz 1967: 16 f., 38 f., Pettersson 2017: 185–188). A parallel to Kloot’s more abundant use of word pairs is presented in Pettersson’s study of court records from the municipal court of Stockholm from 1476 to 1626 (Sw. *Stockholm stads tänkeböcker*). Pettersson (2017: 192) regards the use of word pairs as one of the lexical resources utilized by the scribes of these court records to “correspond with external requirements of a more specified prose during the beginning of the 17th century”.

Compared to ACTIONS, the picture of ARENAS, the second semantic category, is somewhat different since we can see that both authors make use of the same number of LCs, only three each.

*Table 4: ARENAS: Number of LCs and LUs in Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676)*

| **Handbooks** | **LCs** | **LUs** |
|---|---|---|
| Rålamb (1674) | 3 | 7 |
| Kloot (1676) | 3 | 4 |

The limited number of LCs presented in Table 4 is due to the fact that the Swedish legal system of lower courts was established already in the Middle Ages, with the courts of appeal established in the 17th century (cf. Section 4). The notations of ARENAS were therefore set and offered no variation.

The number of LUs in Table 4 reveals that Rålamb is more detailed concerning the names of the different courts and that he uses more LUs than Kloot. Rålamb for example makes use of three different LUs for various types of low courts, while Kloot uses only one: *nederrätt* [‘low court’]; *häradsting* [‘district court’]; *lagmansting* [‘processing judicial court’] versus *nederrätt* [‘low court’]. Kloot also uses two different LUs for the LC ‘court’, one that denotes the physical arena of the court, *rätten,* and the other one the judicial district, *domsaga.*

It seems as though Rålamb is more eager to explain the legal system itself by naming the different types of lower courts, while Kloot confines his writing to one LU for each LC. Rålamb seems to show more interest than Kloot in explaining the actual legal system. Kloot, on the other hand, puts more focus on the legal actions taking place in the courts – an impression which is confirmed when we consider how the authors describe the participants of the lawsuit, the third semantic category.

In the category PARTICIPANTS, we observe once again that Rålamb uses a greater variety of synonyms for a few LCs, while Kloot seems to make use of a one-to-one lexical annotation of his LCs. These exceed by far the number of Rålamb’s LCs.

*Table 5: PARTICIPANTS: Number of LCs and LUs in Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676)*

| Handbooks | LCs | LUs |
|---|---|---|
| Rålamb (1674) | 4 | 21 |
| Kloot (1676) | 25 | 29 |

The basic participants of lawsuits are the same for both Kloot and Rålamb, i. e. the judge, the plaintiff and the defendant. Aside from the participants, Kloot is more particular about listing others who take part in lawsuits, which increases the number of LCs as well as the number of LUs in Table 5.

One distinctive feature of Kloot's treatment of his lexical material in the category of PARTICIPANTS is his arrangement of the LUs in a semantic field, using hypernyms for each group of LCs in relation to their semantic denotation. Kloot distinguishes three main groups of participants: "*De personer som bekläda rätten: domare*" ['The people who judge in court: judges']; "*De personer som komma för rätten: åklagare, sakförare, kärande, svarande, vittnen*" ['The people who act in court: prosecutor, lawyer, plaintiff, defendant, witnesses']; "*De personer som tjäna rätten: notarier, skrivare*" ['The people who work in court: clerks, scribes']. By using this systematic method, Kloot arranges semantically related LUs into three semantic categories held together by a hypernym, "*De personer* […]" ['The people […]']. This clearly expresses both content as well as form for the LUs. Kloot's systematic approach concerning the three categories has a clear resemblance to the systematic organization of the Svea Court of Appeal as organized in 1614–1615, described in detail by Jägerskiöld (1964: 127–225). It is possible that Kloot's way of dealing with the semantic category PARTICIPANTS was inspired by the model for organizing this court.

As can be seen in Table 5, Kloot comes closer to using one LU for one LC, while Rålamb is more prolific in his use of synonyms. Rålamb has, for example, both Swedish and Latin LUs denoting the same LC: *domare* and *judex* ['judge']. He also makes use of phrases in Swedish and Latin to explain what kind of judge he is referring to: *behörlig domare* and *judice competente* ['qualified judge']. Rålamb does not show the same systematic description of his LUs as Kloot does.

Kloot's way of presenting the semantic category PARTICIPANTS also reveals a pedagogical intention aimed at readers without formal knowledge in the field of law. Such an intention is clearly expressed by Kloot (cf. Landqvist/Rogström 2016: 32 f.). We would like to think that this ambition is a result of Kloot's many years of experience from working in the lower courts, which might have given rise to his interest in describing the more practical side of the lawsuit.

The numbers of LCs and LUs found in Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676) in the fourth semantic category TOOLS are presented in Table 6.

*Table 6: TOOLS: Number of LCs and LUs in Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676)*

| Handbooks | LCs | LUs |
|---|---|---|
| Rålamb (1674) | 14 | 23 |
| Kloot (1676) | 20 | 36 |

The category TOOLS is made up of LUs denoting LCs that are needed for a trial to be able to take place. Examples of LUs are *rättegång* ['trial'] itself and *stämning* ['writ of summons'].

In the category of TOOLS, both authors use quite a lot of Latin equivalents, which explains the great number of LUs compared to the number of LCs in Table 6. Kloot also uses long phrases in Swedish to translate Latin LUs that probably did not have a lexicalized Swedish equivalent at that time. It is worth noticing that in doing so, Kloot uses one set format for these phrases in the same way as he does for the semantic category PARTICIPANTS. The pattern Kloot uses consists of a headword (*begynnelse*) preceded by a genitive attribute (*processens*) followed by a prepositional phrase (*igenom saksens inför rättens föreställande*): *processens begynnelse igenom saksens inför rättens föreställande* [‘the opening of the process by presenting the cause list’]. Two other phrases of the same kind are *processens framgång igenom saksens laglige skäl och bewis* [‘the success of the case through legal causes and evidence’] and *processens utgång igenom ändtlig dom och execution* [‘the result of the case through final sentence’].

Both Rålamb and Kloot apparently have problems finding appropriate Swedish equivalents for a number of the LCs in the category TOOLS. Therefore, both authors end up using both Latin LUs and explanatory phrases in Swedish due to the lack of lexicalized Swedish LUs. Some of these LUs seem to be used as true synonyms although they are both Latin and Swedish, such as *process/rättegång* [‘trial’], *citation/stämning* [‘lawsuit’] and *dilation/uppskov* [‘delay’]. A similar pattern in English legal language is described by Gotti (2005). According to Gotti (2005: 50), “interchangeable terms for the same concept […]” can be used in English legal texts. The terms in question are neo-Latin and Anglo-Saxon. Other LUs for LCs in the semantic category TOOLS are only given in Latin by Rålamb and/or Kloot, and one example is *reqvisitum*.

### *7.2 Swedish and Latin Lexical Units*

As presented in Section 7.1, the way in which the two authors treat LUs in Swedish and Latin might be an important clue in revealing the process of how Swedish was established as the main language for various legal purposes in Sweden (cf. Rogström 2017). This leads us to the second of our research questions where we would like to clarify what kind of similarities and differences the handbooks show regarding LUs of Swedish (i. e. Germanic) and Latin (i. e. ‘foreign’) origin.

As we have already hinted at in Section 5, Rålamb has a more casual approach towards Latin than Kloot, and he seems to use Swedish and Latin indiscriminately. Kloot gives the impression of being more conscious about language use, and also reveals a more systematic view in his lexical use. Table 7 lists the number of LUs of Swedish (i. e. Germanic) and Latin (i. e. ‘foreign’) origin in the semantic categories ACTIONS, ARENAS, PARTICIPANTS and TOOLS in Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676).

*Table 7: Number of LUs of Swedish and Latin Origin in Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676): semantic categories and total*

| **Semantic categories** | **Rålamb (1674): Total number of LUs (Latin LUs)** | **Kloot (1676): Total Number of LUs (Latin LUs)** |
|---|---|---|
| ACTIONS | 13 (3) | 36 (1) |
| ARENAS | 7 (1) | 4 (0) |
| PARTICIPANTS | 21 (9) | 29 (2) |
| TOOLS | 23 (4) | 36 (8) |
| **Total** | **64 (17)** | **105 (11)** |

The total sum of LUs in our material is of course too small to make any conclusions about the two authors' lexical behavior in general, but there are still a few things which are worth mentioning. The numbers in Table 7 show that both authors rely primarily upon Swedish LUs, although Rålamb uses more Latin LUs than Kloot: 17 of 64 LUs versus 11 of 105 LUs. These numbers also reveal that Rålamb has a greater total ratio of Latin LUs than Kloot with 26.6 % vs. 10.5 % respectively. However, the category of TOOLS is an exception, since Kloot has a somewhat higher ratio of Latin LUs than Rålamb with 22.2 % vs. 17.4 % respectively.

The semantic categories which hold the least amount of Latin LUs are the categories that describe content which rests upon a long judicial tradition in Swedish legal history: ACTIONS, ARENAS and PARTICIPANTS (cf. Rogström/Landqvist 2015a: 204). The exception is the category TOOLS, where both authors seem to have difficulties in finding accurate Swedish equivalents to the Latin LUs used. The reason for this might be that the category TOOLS was more open to influences from other legal traditions described in Latin and had no obvious Swedish lexicalized equivalents at the time (cf. Rogström/Landqvist 2015a: 204).

### *7.3 Standardization of Swedish lexical units*

What can the results presented in Sections 7.1 and 7.2 tell about early standardization of Swedish LUs in the legal domain, i. e. our third research question?

First of all, we can establish that Swedish LUs are more frequently used in the material studied as compared to Latin LUs, although the ratio between Latin and Swedish varies somewhat between the four different semantic categories ACTIONS, ARENAS, PARTICIPANTS and TOOLS (cf. Table 7).

We can also see that some Latin LUs seem to be established as 'normal' LUs in the material studied, while other LCs are denoted with both Latin and Swedish LUs. We would like to believe that the use of Latin LUs in the handbooks reveals something about their degree of terminological standardization, and that they also tell us something about language use in relation to profession.

The study shows that Latin LUs are used in two different ways by Rålamb and Kloot: as the 'normal' LU for a certain LC and as a 'second choice' LU, due to the lack of more accurate Swedish LUs, at least in the 17th century.

Latin LUs which were regarded as the 'normal' LUs by Rålamb and Kloot are often accommodated to Swedish morphology in the material studied regarding number, definite forms, genitive forms, and agreement in nominal phrases. Examples of modified Latin LUs are *citation – citation**er*** [‘citations’, ‘lawsuits’], *process – process**er*** [‘processes’]; *process**en*** [‘the process’]; *processen**s*** [‘the process’]; *laglig citation* [‘legal summons’], *peremptorie stämning* [‘peremptory summons’] respectively (cf. Battail 2010: 11 on accommodation of Latin terms to Swedish morphology in the 18th century). The accommodated Latin LU could also be used with Swedish words in regular word formation processes, such as compounding, for example *rättegång* + *process* = *rättegångsprocess* [‘lawsuit’].

Quite a few of the Latin LUs in our study are fully adjusted to Swedish morphology and used in the same way as Swedish LUs. Many of these Latin LUs originally made their way into Swedish vocabulary as loanwords and became integrated. Therefore, they had a better chance of ultimately becoming Swedish legal terms. There are also examples of Latin LUs that have existed and still exist parallel to Swedish LUs for the same LC for instance *contumacia/olydnad/tredska* [‘contumacy’, ‘contempt of court’] (cf. Rogström 2010, Rogström 2014 and Rogström/Landqvist 2015a for more examples).

In connection with the accommodated category of Latin LUs, it should be mentioned that other Latin LUs, which were once used in parallel use to Swedish LUs, no longer exist as legal terms. Some of these pairs of LUs are mentioned earlier in this article – one such example is *dilation* versus *uppskov* [‘delay’] (Rogström 2014: 394 f.). Two other examples are the Latin LUs *actor* and *citatus*, which are replaced by the Swedish LUs *kärande* [‘plaintiff’] and *svarande* [‘defendant’] respectively (Rogström/Landqvist 2015a: 205 f.).

The second category of Latin LUs identified in this study is the one consisting of Latin legal terms used due to a lack of Swedish LUs, at least in the 17th century. These LUs belong for the most part to the semantic category TOOLS. Since Kloot is the one of the two authors who refers to the highest number of LCs in this category, his ratio of Latin LUs is larger than Rålamb’s (cf. Table 7). Kloot also tries to explain the Latin words and phrases with explicit Swedish phrases using a fixed pattern, presumably based in Latin syntax.

## 8 Conclusions

Rålamb’s and Kloot’s use of lexical units (LUs) offer information about early standardization of Swedish (i. e. Germanic) LUs in the legal domain. Both Rålamb and Kloot use more Swedish than Latin (i. e. ‘foreign’) judicial LUs (cf. Section 7.2). As stated in Section 6, Latin LUs include both original Latin LUs like *judex* [‘judge’] and modified Latin LUs like *process* (Lat. *processus*) [‘process’]. Both authors rely on the reader to understand Latin, at least to some extent. Rålamb weighs especially heavily upon Latin legal tradition and has a more relaxed approach to the use of Latin. His ratio of Latin LUs is larger than Kloot’s, and Rålamb alternates more frequently between Latin and Swedish equivalents for the same LC without any obvious systematic pattern.

Kloot is more verbose than Rålamb in that sense that he uses a larger number of LCs than Rålamb and is therefore also noted for more LUs in total (cf. Section 7.1). On the other hand, Kloot seems to be more consistent in his use of LUs than Rålamb. Kloot operates with an intention to fulfill his aspiration to be able to use Swedish legal terms in his handbook instead of Latin legal terms, which he puts in the margins of the pages (cf. Section 5). Important to notice is that Kloot also relies on Latin, and that he could not function totally without it. Kloot’s ‘need for Latin’ is especially significant in the semantic category TOOLS.

The results show that Kloot is more eager to explain the legal process in detail, whereas Rålamb seems to give a more general outline of the legal process with more references to Latin tradition. Rålamb seems to be more comfortable with Latin and uses Latin almost in a code-switching fashion, being free to change from Swedish to Latin wherever he feels that he has a need to do so. Kloot seems to rely on Swedish in a more systematic way although he is apparently well acquainted with Latin (cf. Section 5).

We would like to think that the two authors' different approaches to Latin and Swedish in their handbooks could be traced back to their different professional experiences, described in Section 5. Rålamb could be said to represent a more learned and theoretical approach to the subject field of law, whereas Kloot had a more practical point of view. Kloot seems to have been more aware of the importance in promoting the Swedish language during a situation where more people with poor knowledge of Latin had to be acquainted with a reformed legal system including yet another level of courts, the Court of Appeal (cf. Section 4). Maybe this standpoint was not as obvious to Rålamb, already being a judge of a higher court, having total command of both Latin and the legal tradition.

As commented upon in Section 5, the difference between Rålamb's and Kloot's approaches could also be framed of an audience design motive, most clearly formulated by Kloot. In the same section, we also mention that legal historians assess the quality of Rålamb's handbook as higher than the quality of Kloot's. Is this standpoint based only on the judicial content of the handbooks? Have legal historians also pondered about the two authors' possible different audience design motive/s and their ambitions to reach other readers than university trained judges, lawyers and prosecutors? From such a point of view, Kloot seems to be more praiseworthy than Rålamb.

As shown in Section 7.3, the use of Latin and Swedish LUs in Rålamb's and Kloot's handbooks also offers information about lexication of Latin and Swedish LUs in the legal domain. Some of these Latin LUs are still the 'normal' Swedish LUs. Other Latin LUs, which were once used parallel to Swedish LUs, no longer exist as legal terms in Swedish.

Our study foreshadows a change in the use of Latin as the sole cultural, scientific and educational language in Sweden was about to take place at the end of the 17th century. One reason for this change might be the national cultural movement called "Göticismen" that strived to elevate the glorious past of Swedish history, drawing lines back to the mysterious "goths" (Sw. *göter*) (cf. Lindroth 1997: 249–251, 374, Battail 2010: 9). An important side of this work was to show that Swedish language could be just as useful and versatile as Latin, not only in cultural environments but also in administrative settings.

One of the more important presidents of Svea Court of Appeal in the 17th century, count Per Brahe, strongly urged the members of the court to use Swedish, to avoid Latin expressions and phrases and to avoid unnecessarily elaborate formulations (cf. Jägerskiöld 1964: 129). Both Rålamb and Kloot chose Swedish as their main language. But president Brahe's urge can be said to be taken up more seriously by Claudius Kloot, whose LUs and description of the semantic category PARTICIPANTS also correspond to the conditions of Svea Court of Appeal (cf. Section 7.1). By doing so Kloot foreshadowed a more intense debate on the use of Swedish vs. Latin in scientific language(s) during the 18th century (cf. Hannesdóttir 2011). This debate regarding Swedish vs. Latin is part of a more general discussion about languages in sciences, a debate which is still going on in the 21th century, focusing on national languages like Dutch, Finnish, German and Swedish versus English (cf. Gordin 2015).

Rålamb's and Kloot's rather different ways of dealing with Latin elements in their handbooks can be said to reflect variations in language policy (cf. Section 5). Clas Rålamb's individual language policy is rooted in a language policy of a speech community in Sweden in the 17th century. This policy could be described in the following way; authors, educated at universities and more or less bilingual Latin–Swedish, would use Latin elements in Swedish written texts whenever they have a need for it, since their intended readers are more or less bilingual (cf. Helander 2012). Claudius Kloot's individual language policy is also rooted in a language policy of a speech community in Sweden in the 17th century. This policy could be described as such; Swedish should be used in all communicative situations and Latin linguistic resources should be avoided, since Swedish is equal to Latin and written texts in Swedish are accessible to a larger number of members of the Swedish society (cf. Hansson 1984).

Rålamb's and Kloot's handbooks can also be regarded as tools for the professionalization of persons acting in lower courts in the Swedish realm – primarily judges, prosecutors and lawyers. The handbooks might also have been of help to ordinary citizens seeking information in legal matters in Swedish instead of Latin, even if Rålamb's more abundant use of Latin elements presumably might have been a challenge for many readers with a weak, or a non-existent, knowledge of Latin.

Rålamb's and Kloot's handbooks, and the two authors' use of Swedish and modified Latin LUs as well as original Latin LUs, can also be regarded in a more general judicial context. A transition from Latin to vernacular languages in legal settings took gradually place in various parts of Europe from the Middle Ages and onwards, a transition aptly labelled "The triumph of the vernacular" by Peter M. Tiersma (2012). Just like Rålamb and Kloot, other legal professionals faced the challenges of creating lexical units in various vernaculars and making the terminology used understandable for persons in need of legal knowledge and accessible to those lacking formal legal studies at universities. To clarify the transition from Latin to various vernaculars in legal settings in Europe, a number of studies is required. Hopefully, this study of Clas Rålamb's and Claudius Kloot's use of Swedish and Latin legal vocabulary in the 1670's can function as an inspiration for such future studies.

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# Dissertation: „Supportive Medien in der wissensvermittelnden Hochschulkommunikation. Analyse des Handlungszwecks von Kreidetafel, OHP, PPT und Interactive Whiteboard“

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In diesem Dissertationsprojekt wurde die universitäre Wissensvermittlung an deutschen Universitäten anhand von authentischen Videodaten untersucht. Im Mittelpunkt des Erkenntnisinteresses standen sog. ‚supportive Medien‘, die auf ihren Handlungszweck hin rekonstruiert und analysiert wurden. Dazu wurden sowohl fachübergreifende Gemeinsamkeiten als auch fachinterne Spezifika in den Blick genommen. Die Arbeit baut damit u. a. auf Hanna (2003), Lobin (u. a. 2009) und Brinkschulte (2015) auf, die sich auf einzelne Medien oder auf Wissensvermittlung in einzelnen Fachdisziplinen konzentrieren. Diese Perspektiven wurden im Dissertationsprojekt in mehrfacher Hinsicht erweitert: Zum einen wurden die Disziplinen Mathematik, Physik, Maschinenbau, Volkswirtschaftslehre, Romanistische Literaturwissenschaft und Germanistische Linguistik in den Blick genommen. Zum anderen ermöglichte die (fach-) inhaltliche Breite nicht nur den Vergleich von disziplinären Spezifika der Wissensvermittlung an sich, sondern auch, bedingt durch die in der Empirie vorgefundene Breite und Vielfalt der genutzten ‚supportiven Medien‘, einen disziplinvergleichenden Blick auf die Nutzung der supportiven Medien. Darüber hinaus wurden studentische Mitschriften herangezogen, um die studentische Wissensprozessierung mit den genutzten ‚supportiven Medien‘ in Verbindung setzen und nachzeichnen zu können.

## Theoretische Überlegungen

Zur Überwindung der den Handlungszweck nicht inkorporierenden Sammelbenennung von Kreidetafel, OHP, PPT und Interactive Whiteboard als „visuelle“ Medien wurden diese im Anschluss an Breitsprecher (2010) als *supportive Medien* und damit als mediale Hilfsverfahren des Diskurstyps „Lehr-Lern-Diskurs“ (Ehlich 1981) charakterisiert. Dies erlaubt die detaillierte Rekonstruktion des Handlungszwecks der supportiven Medien in Relation zu allen Größeneinheiten sprachlichen Handelns – analog zu sprachlichen supportiven Verfahren, wie etwa reformulierenden Handlungen (siehe dazu den Überblick von Bührig 2010). Dadurch wird es ermöglicht, nicht nur beschreibend die mediale Beschaffenheit und damit einhergehende (technische) Möglichkeiten zu betrachten, sondern in kleinschrittigem Vorgehen linguistische Wissensanalysen unter systematischer Berücksichtigung der Nutzung supportiver Medien durchzuführen. Gleichzeitig lässt die handlungstheoretische Kategorie ‚Supportivität‘ eine Differenzierung innerhalb der Lehr-Lern-Diskurse hinsichtlich des jeweiligen Diskursabschnittes zu. Dadurch wird berücksichtigt, dass z. B. das Projizierte vom medialen Hilfsverfahren zum eigentlichen Gegenstand des vorgängigen Diskurses werden kann und dann mithin kein Hilfsverfahren mehr wäre. Eine solche auch den projizierten Inhalt berücksichtigende Herangehensweise hebt diese Kategorisierung von der eher technisch-medialen Kategorie ‚Kommunikationsform‘ ab, die vor allem auf Ermöglichungsbedingungen von Kommunikation abstellt.

## Methodische Entwicklungen

Die Datengrundlage der Dissertation bildet ein Subkorpus des euroWiss-Projektes (siehe Redder/Heller/Thielmann 2014 sowie Thielmann/Redder/Heller 2015), das nach Durchsicht des deutschsprachigen Gesamtkorpus kompiliert wurde. Es zeigte sich, dass es im deutschsprachigen Gesamtkorpus (bestehend aus 300 Stunden Videodaten aus 48 Lehrveranstaltungen) nicht eine einzige Lehrveranstaltung gibt, in der nicht mindestens ein supportives Medium genutzt wird. Zudem zeigte sich, dass im Großteil des Korpus mehr als ein supportives Medium genutzt wird; teils werden bis zu fünf unterschiedliche supportive Medien in einer Sitzung genutzt. Daraus leitete sich u. a. die Frage ab, ob sich unterschiedliche Handlungszwecke unterschiedlicher supportiver Medien rekonstruieren lassen. Für die Kompilierung des Subkorpus der Dissertation wurden auf dieser Basis Lehrveranstaltungen aus Mathematik, Physik, Maschinenbau, Volkswirtschaftslehre, Romanistischer Literaturwissenschaft und Germanistischer Linguistik für die Detailanalysen ausgewählt. Das Subkorpus besteht sowohl aus primär sequentiell als auch primär verkettend realisierten Lehrveranstaltungen. Dies ermöglicht Untersuchungen von Medienwechseln und somit der – ganz offenbar gezielten – Nutzung unterschiedlicher supportiver Medien in der ganzen im euroWiss-Korpus vorliegenden Breite und Vielfalt sowie vergleichende Untersuchungen der Nutzung supportiver Medien in unterschiedlichen Fachkulturen und Wissenstraditionen.

Die Videodaten der Lehrveranstaltungen wurden nach HIAT (u. a. Ehlich/Rehbein 1976) transkribiert. Um die supportiven Medien bei der Transkription systematisch berücksichtigen zu können, wurden Anpassungen von HIAT entwickelt, die es ermöglichen, die sukzessive Entstehung des Tafelanschriebs mit den mündlichen Verbalisierungen im jeweiligen Lehr-Lern-Diskurs synchronisiert nachvollziehen zu können. Es zeigte sich, dass die Einbindung von Screenshots aus den Videos in die Transkripte für den angestrebten Detailgrad der Analysen nicht weiterführend war, weil auf diese Weise die Entstehung des Tafelanschriebs nur unzureichend dargestellt werden kann. Daher wurden zunächst die Tafelanschriebe digital rekonstruiert, anschließend der chronologischen und inhaltlichen Sukzession folgend segmentiert und sodann die Segmentnummern in den Transkripten entsprechend ihrer zeitlichen Erstreckung in einer Transkriptionsspur vermerkt. Dieses Verfahren ist auf andere supportive Medien übertragbar, indem OHP-Folien, PPT-Folien und Interactive-Whiteboard-Folien segmentiert werden und dadurch sowohl das Freischalten durch Animationen sowie das Zeigen auf diese Segmente in den Transkripten nachvollziehbar werden können. Ferner ist dieses Verfahren auf andere Transkriptionssysteme übertragbar und nicht zuletzt auch für ein dezidiertes Forschungsinteresse an Multimodalität relevant (siehe dazu auch Krause 2017). Die auf diese Art transkribierten Daten werden der Druckfassung der Arbeit samt digital rekonstruierten supportiven Medien als digitalem Anhang beiliegen und dadurch möglichen weiteren Analysen zur Verfügung zu stehen.

## Ergebnisse

Anhand detaillierter Transkriptanalysen konnte u. a. gezeigt werden, dass die Kreidetafel in den untersuchten MINT-Fächern die Funktion eines temporären Lernskriptes einnimmt, das sich direkt auf die studentischen Mitschriften auswirkt, indem der Tafelanschrieb nahezu wörtlich abgeschrieben wird. Die Qualität der studentischen Mitschriften verschiebt sich somit zumindest teilweise von einer Mitschrift zu einer Abschrift, z. B. als Grundlage für die spätere Klausurvorbereitung, flankierend zu Lehrbüchern etc. Mündliche Verbalisierungen konnten in den untersuchten MINT-Fächern dagegen nicht als Bezugsgrößen der studentischen Mitschriften identifiziert werden. Diesem steht in den Geisteswissenschaften eine eher kombinatorische bzw. kombinierende Praktik des Mitschreibens gegenüber, indem dort sowohl alle supportiven Medien als auch die mündlichen Verbalisierungen von Dozent_innen und Studierenden Bezugsgrößen der studentischen Mitschriften sein können. Es zeigte sich ferner, dass gerade mündliche Verbalisierungen maßgeblich an der Prozessierung von epistemisch unsicherem Wissen beteiligt sind. Diese Beobachtungen korrelieren frappant mit den jeweiligen Fachkulturen und Wissenstraditionen im Sinne der sog. „Diskursiven Wissensvermittlung" (Redder 2014) dergestalt, dass sich diese in den Geisteswissenschaften auch in der Nutzung der supportiven Medien zeigt – ebenso wie die zu Beginn des Studiums tendenziell eher textuell ausgerichtete Wissensvermittlung in den MINT-Fächern: So wird die Kreidetafel in den MINT-Fächern von den Dozent_innen zumeist für die Übertragung von ausformulierten Notizen genutzt, die den Fluchtpunkt der Wissensvermittlung darstellen, gleichwohl diese in umfangreiche, argumentierende und erklärende mündliche Verbalisierungen der Dozent_innen eingebunden sind. PPTs dienen insbesondere im Maschinenbau z. B. der Sichtbarmachung komplexer Anwendungszusammenhänge. In den Geisteswissenschaften hingegen wird die Kreidetafel – auch in Vorlesungen – zumeist in interaktiven Phasen der Lehrveranstaltungen eingesetzt, etwa zur Fixierung von exemplarischen Aufgabenstellungen oder zur Fixierung studentischer Beiträge, denen dadurch eine gewisse Gültigkeit im Diskurs zugeschrieben wird. Die technologische Weiterentwicklung des Interactive Whiteboards bietet darüber hinaus u. a. die Möglichkeit, die Rezeption der Studierenden speziell hinsichtlich des Diskurswissens zu steuern und gleichzeitig methodische und fachspezifische Wissenselemente zu vernetzen.

Generell kann festgehalten werden, dass das Tempo der Wissensvermittlung mit der Flüchtigkeit des supportiven Mediums korreliert, was sich insbesondere dann zeigt, wenn die Wissensvermittlung mit PPT und Kreidetafel vergleichend betrachtet wird: Das aufgrund des Anschreibens langsamere Vorgehen an einer Kreidetafel spiegelt sich in der Wissensvermittlung ebenso wie das schnellere Vorgehen mit PPT. Ferner verdeutlicht gerade der Blick auf die untersuchten MINT-Fächer, dass die Kreidetafel in der universitären Wissensvermittlung keineswegs überholt, sondern vielmehr integraler Bestandteil ist und, wie Greiffenhagen (2014) zeigt, auch in naher Zukunft nicht durch technische Entwicklungen wie Interactive Whiteboards abgelöst werden wird. Darüber hinaus zeigen die Analysen einer volkswirtschaftlichen Vorlesung, in der ein Interactive Whiteboard genutzt wird, dass man über PPTs zumindest in der universitären Lehre von einem medialen Durchgangsphänomen sprechen kann.

Die in der Arbeit verfolgte Perspektive, die den analytischen Blick auf Sprache systematisch auf nonverbale und aktionale Handlungen ausweitet, bildet die Grundlage für die Ausweitung funktional-pragmatischer Erkenntnisinteressen auf Fragestellungen der sog. Multimodalität. In der Arbeit wurden dazu, aufbauend auf den Analysen, erste Überlegungen angestellt, die insbesondere hinsichtlich der Vereinbarkeit von handlungstheoretischen Herangehensweisen und Multimodalitätsforschung ein beträchtliches Potenzial aufgezeigt haben – wie bereits in den die Medialität des Diskurses berücksichtigenden Analysen zur Augenkommunikation von Ehlich/Rehbein (1982) intendiert. Hieran wird in der Zukunft vertiefend zu arbeiten sein, um Anknüpfungspunkte zu anderen theoretischen Zusammenhängen herauszuarbeiten und produktiv zu nutzen bzw. nutzbar zu machen.

Zudem bildet die Arbeit eine Grundlage für den weiterführenden Vergleich akademischer Kulturen und Traditionen ebenso wie für die Analyse fachspezifischer Verwendungsweisen supportiver Medien, nicht zuletzt in bislang vernachlässigten Fachdisziplinen wie der Informatik. Ferner liefert die Arbeit fachübergreifende, detaillierte Einsichten in die universitäre Wissensvermittlung, die für die Befassung mit Deutsch als (fremder) Wissenschaftssprache, die Hochschuldidaktik sowie eine handlungsorientierte Medienlinguistik relevant sein kann. Nicht zuletzt geben diese Einsichten Aufschluss über die Rezeptionsanforderungen der universitären Wissensvermittlung in Deutschland, die durch die Nutzung supportiver Medien nicht nur für ausländische, sondern auch für inländische Studierende an Komplexität gewinnen.

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# Bibliography of Recent Publications on Specialized Communication

*Ines-A. Busch-Lauer*

## 67th Installment

Seit der 48. Fortsetzung erscheint die „Kleine Bibliographie fachsprachlicher Untersuchungen" auch online unter http://ejournals.facultas.at/fachsprache (Link Bibliographie) und trägt den Titel „Bibliography of Recent Publications on Specialized Communication". Die Datenbankversion der Bibliographie bietet verbesserte Suchmöglichkeiten, wie beispielsweise eine Schlagwortsuche. Derzeit finden sich in der Datenbank alle Titel, die seit der 48. Fortsetzung in der Bibliographie enthalten sind.

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## List of Journal Abbreviations

*ASp*: ASp, la revue du GERAS. <www.geras.fr>

*BPCQ:* Business and Professional Communication Quarterly. Sage Publishers

*ESP J*: ESP Journal. English for Specific Purposes. An International Journal. New York/Amsterdam: Elsevier B.V.

*ESP Today*: ESP Today. Journal of English for Specific Purposes at Tertiary Level. <http://www.esptodayjournal.org/>

*Fachsprache.IJSC*: Fachsprache. International Journal of Specialized Communication. Wien: Facultas. <http://ejournals.facultas.at/fachsprache>

*IJBC:* International Journal of Business Communication. Sage Publishers

*Internet Pragmatics:* Internet Pragmatics. < https://benjamins.com/catalog/ip>

*JBTC:* Journal of Business and Technical Communication. Sage Publishers

*JEAP:* Journal of English for Academic Purposes. Elsevier B.V.

*JTESAP:* Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes, University of Niš. <http://espeap.junis.ni.ac.rs/index.php/espeap>

*SpriB:* Sprache im Beruf. Kommunikation in der Aus- und Weiterbildung – Praxis und Forschung. Franz Steiner Verlag, Stuttgart.

*Terminology:* Terminology. International Journal of Theoretical and Applied Issues in Specialized Communication. John Benjamins. <https://benjamins.com/#catalog/journals/term>

*Translation Space*: Translation Space. A multidisciplinary, multimedia, and multilingual journal of translation. John Benjamins. <https://benjamins.com/catalog/ts.6.2>

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