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Aim & Scope

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A Semantic Journey from Data to Evidence,from Dynamis to Entelècheia

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Today, we are immersed in a “quantitative” world of data, calculations,percentages and statistics. However, when can a datum or series of data count asevidence? Before entering into the heart of the matter, we need to clarify whatdata and evidence are, the communicative function each one has, as well as therelationship between their respective meanings. It may be useful to examine thedefinitions of the two terms provided by the Oxford (OD) and Cambridge (CD)dictionaries,1respectively:

DATA: information, especially facts or numbers, collected to be examined and considered and used to help decision-making (OD).

DATA: facts or information, especially when examined and used to find out things or to make decisions (CD).

EVIDENCE: the facts, signs or objects that make you believe that something is true (OD)

E**VIDENCE:** anything that helps to prove that something is or is not true (CD)

The lexeme DATA contains the concept of virtuality or directionality (e.g. collected to be examined). In their inert and raw state preceding discourse,data might be compared both to a mere denotative entry in a dictionary and tothe Greek term dynamis, meaning a latent, potential state of power and meaning,which, if properly detonated, can erupt as energeia, or entelécheia. Just as anylexeme provided by a dictionary can contain several possible semic pathways,realisable only within discursive contexts, so too a datum, as dynamis, thanks toits discursive potential and significance, can achieve entelechy, meaning theactualisation of what is otherwise mere potential. In other words, data have thepower (dynamis) to achieve the status of evidence but need the dynamic thrust ofdiscourse to realise their entelechy and count as evidence. The lexemeEVIDENCE refers to the outcome of the discursive process to which data aresubjected to acquire credibility.

The issue of the rapport between these two key concepts is vital to institutional and commercial communication that seeks to build up its credibilityand trust. Very often the so-called “man in the street” tends to confuse data and evidence, using the two interchangeably. Steering away from more philosophical discussions, it would be interesting to try to explore the semiotic mechanismsthat come into play during the transition from one of these two conceptual nucleito the other. In an attempt to grasp the difference between data and evidence, wemight resort to “narrativity” as an interpretative hypothesis intended as “anorganizing principle of meaning that permeates all kinds of discourse” (Lorusso- Violi 2004: 82).2 As Marrone (2007: 38) argues, to bestow meaning on events we use a narrative method, that is, we think, speak or write about them by weaving them into a sequence, by linking them with other events: those whichoccurred before and others we expect may happen afterwards. Narrativity,therefore,shapes human experience, acting as a grid that assigns meaning to what happens and what we do. Greimas ([1969]1977: 23) holds that narrativity needs to be “situated and organized prior to its manifestation. A common semiotic level is thus distinct from the linguistic level and is logically prior to it, whatever thelanguage chosen for the manifestation". The notion of narrativity concerns notonly stories proper (novels, films, news stories etc.) but also all other kinds oftextual configurations apparently distant from traditional stories as such, like theinstructions we need to follow to download an app to our smartphone orcomputer, for example. Greimas even goes so far as to trace the existence ofnarrative structure in a cookery recipe. Along these lines, narrative is a basic,constant form of human expression and communication regardless of thesemiotic substance utilized for its transmission: "narrative is international,transhistorical, transcultural: it is simply there like life itself" (Barthes 1977: 79).Among the various communicative settings where proof of the credibilityof data used to corroborate evidence is particularly crucial, there is that of clinicalresearch. In this domain, medical literature relies heavily on factual, quantitativedata spun into the fabric of the evidence essential to clinical practice, especiallyafter an approach called Evidence-Based Medicine (EBM) began to establishitself at the dawn of the present century. Designed for the transfer of availableknowledge from the realm of monitored scientific research to the hands-on careof patients, this research paradigm is based on "the conscientious, explicit andjudicious use of current best evidence in making decisions about the care ofindividual patients" (Sacket et al. 1997: 71). Therefore, quantitative,systematically evidential data are also the indispensable supports healthcareproviders use to bolster their narratives of scientific-medical trials.

Following the reflections provided by Propp's (1968) Morphology of the Fairy Tale, we might analyse a clinical trial as if it were a story set in motion byan initial lack expressed as a clinical hypothesis or question to be addressed andresolved, like the challenges tackled and overcome by the heroes and heroines offolk tales. In Propp's description of a typical tale, we find an initial state ofequilibrium which is compromised by an event that the protagonist, with the helpof others and that of prodigious instruments, makes a great effort to re-establish.The narrator of this story provides the data necessary to describe the characters and the events that comprise its fabric. In a medical trial a patient who was well (state of equilibrium) falls ill (compromise of the initial state of equilibrium),consults a doctor (protagonist) who, with the help of consultants (others) andwith the help of medical instruments and drugs (objects), strives to cure (reestablish the previous state of equilibrium) the patient. In most fairy stories, theprotagonist is successful. In clinical trials there are cases of failure too. Patientsmay not recover and may even die.

As in the case of a traditional narrative, through the mechanisms belonging to what semioticians call "enunciative praxis", the discourse of clinicaltrials is "convoked", "selected" and "handled" (Fontanille 2017). The medicaldata are collected by an enunciator-storyteller, who coincides, typically, with theteam of researchers who conducted the trial, and transformed it into a "discourse"intended for an audience or, more probably, a readership (ideally the membersof the world's healthcare community). The flow of data needs to be selected onthe basis of criteria of relevance in order to guarantee the tellability orreportability of the narrative (Labov 1997; Norrick 2005). This is the operationthat makes a story worth telling, or "noteworthy," which is in keeping withSacks' claim that "the sheer telling of a story is something in which one makes aclaim for its tellability" (1992: 12). The evidence will be built only with thosedata deemed worthy of narration. This selective cut runs, in fact, right throughthe entire narrative space of the trial. When constructing his/her discourse, theenunciator-storyteller carries out other key cognitive operations to attributemeaning to the data collected and selected, such as comparing, correlating, andevaluating. Discourse finds its deepest meaning in its narrative dimension: theenunciator assembles, relates the data, compares before and after, evaluates anddraws conclusions.

We can say that the informative material available as data reaches its "semiotic felicitousness" only when they are woven into a story. It isthe connections between data that serve as the basis for the construction ofmeaning. The story also incorporates and confers meaning to the datacommunicated through the iconographic apparatus that accompany the report.Graphs, tables, and numerical sequences are data in the pure state, which acquiremeaning thanks to the mediation of the narrative form. The data are intertwinedaccording to a background "plot" and grouped into sections which, borrowing aterm from Barthes, we can call lexias. For Barthes (1974: 13-14) "Lexias aresimply units in which the reader who is actively producing the text discovers theexplosion and scattering of meaning". Narrativity, tellability but alsodirectionality: each lexia provides a semantically oriented reading path thatcontributes to the production of the global meaning of the text. Once aggregatedinto lexias the data are converted into evidence and contribute to filling theinformation need that gave rise to the "story" of the clinical trial.

In a nutshell, data are evidence in the virtual state awaiting realisation through inclusion in narrative discourse, while evidence is the end product of thestory whereby the data called into play become meaningful and credible. Whendata are of high quality and subjected to rigorous semiotic work, then theevidence is strong, can build trust and, perhaps, help to improve the quality oflife too.

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The author declares no conflict of interest.

Additional information
No additional information is available for this paper.

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Gender Differences in the Use of Foul Language in Punjabi

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A B S T R A C T

This study explores the use of foul language and its types in Punjabi from the perspective of gender. In this context, a corpus of Punjabi foul terminology was gathered from 56 male and female Punjabi speakers from urban and rural areas, through an open-ended questionnaire. The participants in this study belonged to different age groups and their education level was under-metric and graduation. All the participants selected as sample for the study were from the Punjabi culture. The theoretical framework of Battistella was applied. The data was analyzed in tables through a statistical approach with frequency and phonetic transcription. The convenience sampling technique was used in the study. Many studies have been done on the use of swear words in many languages to identify different aspects such as factors, gender variation, reasons, sources, types etc. However, to the best of my knowledge, in the history of Pakistan, no research works are found on the use of abusive language in Punjabi according to gender. This study could be very beneficial for those scholars who are interested in themes related to swearing. Various resources were found to be helpful in this study related to swear words, although it is quite difficult to access these resources. Some sociological, psychological, and neurological factors that are not part of the present research, can open the path to other researchers who are interested in what lies behind the rationale of using Punjabi swear words. The present study revealed that, Punjabi speaking people use foul language in many ways, types and situations. The study also found that males use more abusive terminology, while there is less use of coarse words by females. The study evidenced that swear word use is more derogatory and directed more towards females rather than males. Findings from this study contribute to research on the use of foul language, which is still in its infancy and to the lexicology of Punjabi language.

***Keywords**: Punjabi foul language, gender, female and male, Pakistan, swear words.*

Introduction

Language produced in angry or adverse situations, characterized as impolite or rude is known as foul language. Through foul language, strong emotions are expressed and cultural aspects are denounced (Anderson and Turgill, 2007). Foul language has been used since ancient times, including the Middle and Dark ages with different discursive practices (Montagu, 2001). Ljung (2010) argues that Egypt is attributed with the first recorded case of coarse language. In ancient Rome the use of abusive language in a general contex could lead to death punishment although, use of this language was not related to insulting language in old Latin and Greek. During the 19th Century, Great Britainlaunched a crusade against the use of bad terminologies but it became common practice again in the 20th Century. Abusive language is a feature of human language and has been used since the existence of language itself. Similarly, examples derived from old pictograph writings date back to 100 B.C.(Vingerhoets et al., 2013). It could be said that the use of insulting words is a universal phenomenon, which is exhibited in languages all over the world(Ljung, 1984).

Language is one of the most important features of its speakers. According to the Ethnologue1, Pakistani nationals speak 74 languages, in which 66 are local and the rest are foreign. Punjabi is one of them, it belongs to the Indo-Aryan and Indo-European language families (Encylopedia Britanica online, 2011). In Pakistan Punjab province, Western Punjabi is spoken by 60.6 million people but 28.2 million people speak Eastern Punjabi, it being their first language primarily in Punjab province, in India (Ethnologue, 2021). Zaidi (1990) claims that Punjabi language is thought to be vulgar and indecent by its speakers. In Africa,indigenous languages are considered more vulgar than the colonial languages; in Pakistan Punjabi language has the same connotations as the indigenous languages in Africa. Woolf, as a language, is spoken by 83% of the people inSenegal but it has less status compared to French as a colonial language(Bambose, 1991). Akram and Yaseen (2011) concluded that Punjabi ismarginalized in Pakistan, even though it has a large majority of speakers. In addition, they stated that use Punjabi language has become a cultural shame for its speakers and is considered as a foul and vulgar language.

In this age, the use of coarse language has become a common practice by all in many societies. Abusive language is used in the context of surprise, frustration, and happiness. In addition, it also expresses many other states of mind in different situations. Svensson (2004) argues that the behavior of people towards the use of coarse language is different. Some consider it disrespectful and rude, although for many others it is a common practice in their daily communication. The use of prohibited terminologies is based on cultural values and traditions. Gender behavior in the use of coarse language is differentiated byprofession and occupation. Men swear more with fellows from the same occupation. Swearing is thought to be a male characteristics (Benwell, 2001).

Culturally accepted traditions make women less users of profane lexis in two ways. First, a strong action is perceived by the use of insulting words and women culturally are positioned to be very polite to the feelings of others, according to their stereotypical image of femininity (De Klerk, 1991; 1992; Coats, 1993). Second, in Western society, swearing is functioned to keep behavioral fulfillment with a particular society (Guerin, 1992). Lakoff (1975) and Jespersen (1922) stated that cultural and social factors have great influence on the use of abusive lexis so, according to socially accepted values in some societies, women are encouraged to swear less and swearing is attributed as a manly quality. Krishnaya and Bayard (2001) argue that men have commonexperience in the use of foul language but women are less frequent users of foul terminology and are different from men in relation to the context in which it is used. Maldonado Garcia (2015) claims that languages contain sexist grammatical elements (in the context of Spanish language). The same can be stated about Punjabi language.

Van Oudenhouven et al. (2008) and Jay (2009) state that the use of coarse language is a common practice in many cultures, which is intended to injure or insult the receiver. All offensive terminologies are not equally offensive and do not induce similar degrees of responses (Savier et al., 2015). Generally, swear words are more offensive towards females than males (Jay and 2008; Van Oudenhouven et al., 2008; Guathier et al., 2015). Most studies have concluded that genders differ in using insulting lexis and in the categories thatare found to be the most offensive to them (James, 1998b; Harris, 1993;Benidixen and Gabriel, 2013). James (1998) says that gender directed abusive words permit people to perform an action, which is not a socially desirable behavior.

Many studies cited here have been concerned with the use of foul terminology in languages other than Punjabi. However, no attention has been paid to the use of foul terminologies in the Punjabi language. The concentration of most researchers such as Maynard (2002), Rassin and Muris (2005), JingSchmidt

(2017), Ljung (2011) and many others was to identify coarse terminologies from the perspective of genders in English language. The present study is mainly concerned with the use of foul language in Punjabi by identifying gender differences and the persons to whom these terms are directed (females or males).

Aims

The aim of this study is to work on Punjabi swearing; however, other objectives include exploration of the differences in the usage of foul terminologies in Punjabi by taking the perspective of gender from both, urban and rural areas in Pakistan. The study also investigates the types of rude lexis used by males and females in their daily communication in Punjabi communities. One of the intentions of this study is also to analyze the derogation of swear words directed towards genders.

Therefore, the research questions that will be answered in the study concern the type of foul terminologies that are commonly used in Punjabi language. Furthermore, whether the use of foul language is related mostly to males or females in Punjabi language context will be assessed. Finally, the foul words mostly directed to males or females and whether both genders are equallyrecipient of these foul words will be identified.

Literature Review

Language is a central feature of social interaction. Many varieties of languages are spoken in different situations and contexts, which are based on cultural and social factors. Fairclough (1999) states that it is important to be aware of the functions of a specific language to understand the economic and cultural systems in which it is used. Foul language is one of the forms of language, which is also known as taboo language. 'Taboo' means forbidden and comes from Tongan, which is a branch of the Polynesian language and haspractical use in Tonga. Tongan is also known as an Austronesian language. Taboo language is considered indecent and vulgar, according to the culture any society. Jay (1996), points out that swearing can be used in two senses -negative and positive. In negative sense, swear terms are aimed towards an insultto someone, e.g. name calling, and in positive sense swearing can be used forjoking and sexual enticement.

Swearing is a way of expressing strong emotions that people harbor inside themselves. Crying is another of these emotions, which helps to relieve stress (Jay, 2009). Fourteen (14) functions are displayed using foul terminologies such as affirming, urging, standing, insult, oath, unfriendly, abuse, emphasis, enhancement, exclamation, curse, denial, disapprobatory, strengthening new word meaning (Lajung, 2006).

By taking different perspectives, many researchers and scholars have contributed and discussed the use of foul language (Anderson, 1985; Anderson & Hirsch, 1985a; 1985b; Andersson & Trudgill, 1990; Hughes, 1992; Jay, 1992; Ljung (1983; 1984a; 1984b; Montagu, 1967). Ashley Montague (1967) is the first researcher to conduct a study on foul language termed as 'Anatomy of Swearing', involving themes like motives, psychology, social and linguistics dimensions. His main concern was foul language in English. He used a historical approach and traced the origin of swearing from old civilizations. Magnus Ljung,who became professor of Linguistics in 1978, worked at the University of Stockholm in Sweden until 2000, and contributed to the study of foul language. The subjects of his interest in swearing involving themes like motives, psychology, social and linguistics dimensions. His main concern was foul language in English. He used a historical approach and traced the origin of swearing from old civilizations. Magnus Ljung,who became professor of Linguistics in 1978, worked at the University of Stockholm in Sweden until 2000, and contributed to the study of foul language. The subjects of his interest in swearing included how we swear, why we swear and how certain cultural aspects influenced swearing. He wrote many books and articles on swearing and discussed aspects ignored in the work of Magnus. In his articles 'Fuck you' and 'Shithead', he takes three novels as case studies anddiscusses sociolinguistics, psychological, and linguistic issues in swearing. He analyzes translations from American English to Swedish. He mainly focuses on swearing in Swedish, English, Serbo-Croatian, Polish, Arabic, and Russian and some examples are quoted also from Chinese.

Nichols (1983) concludes that women who are motivated to use more standard English while working with their professionals belong to the lower class. He also states that females are more insulted by bad words than males.

Selnow (1985) investigated the use of foul language among undergraduate students and found that it is more commonly used by males than females.

McEnery and Xiao (2003) look into the use of bad terminology 'Fuck' by genders in a corpus-based study from the British National Council. The results show that men use the bad term 'Fuck' extensively. Taboo language has an emotional force expressed through foul terms (Deweale, 2004). According to Coats (2004), two terms - competitive and cooperative, refer to gender functions differently. The dominant term 'competitive' denotes male functions while 'cooperative' denotes female behavior, because women are polite in conversation and share the goal of solidarity. Lakoff (2004) claims that women are challenged with status and power relations and trained to behave courtly in many cultures. Males and females use foul language in different ways, but according to some studies both genders somehow make the use of similar types of offensive terms (McEnery, 2005).

Beer Fagerson (2007) conducted a study on Florida University students in the use of offensive language. The findings from the study showed that 'nigger' is the most offensive term, and fuck is another rude term used among the students. He also stated that offensiveness of bad lexis depends on the context in which it is used. The results from the study by Thelwell (2008) show that people on social media settings use more swear language in informal situations. Sterkenburg (2008) noted that women swear as much as men, and Krouwel's (2014) research results support Sterkenburg's findings. Pinker (2008) explains five different uses of foul language: 1. Dysphemistic; 2. Abusive; 3. Idiomatic;4. Emphatic and 5. Cathartic. Gender and language have a deep interrelation. Gender performances and behaviors in interactions are determined by the accepted social norms (West & Zimmerman, 2009). Swedish men utter more abusive terms under all circumstances (Sollid, 2009). Suyanto (2010) found that Javenese commonly used bad words among peers and that shows the harmony and friendship among them.

Kirk's (2013) study investigated the use of words shit, fuck, damn, bitch, and cunt and claimed that these words are first choice of both genders among other swear words. The study also deduced that females use fewer sexual terms in swearing than males. Jay and Jay (2013) argue that no gender differences arefound in swearing. Coarse language has been unacceptable in many cultural contexts but recently, it has been proved that the use of such language helps to get relief from anger and tension in certain situations (Jay, 2009; Ljung, 2011; Stephan, 2013; Wang, 2013). Sukamto and Nicolau (2014) concluded that women use more super polite forms than men while using Indonesian as their first language. In contrast, van Hofwegen and Hindriks (2014) found that women use more bad terms in Dutch than men who are less frequent users in this language. Bergen (2016) explained the emotional use of foul language and the physical effects this can produce, such as increased heartbeat, sweating, etc.

Several studies on swearing have been carried out in different languages (English, Swedish, Indonesian, Dutch, Chinese, etc.) and investigating different issues. Most of these studies aimed to identify gender differences, influence of social, cultural and psychological factors and the degree of offensiveness towards genders.

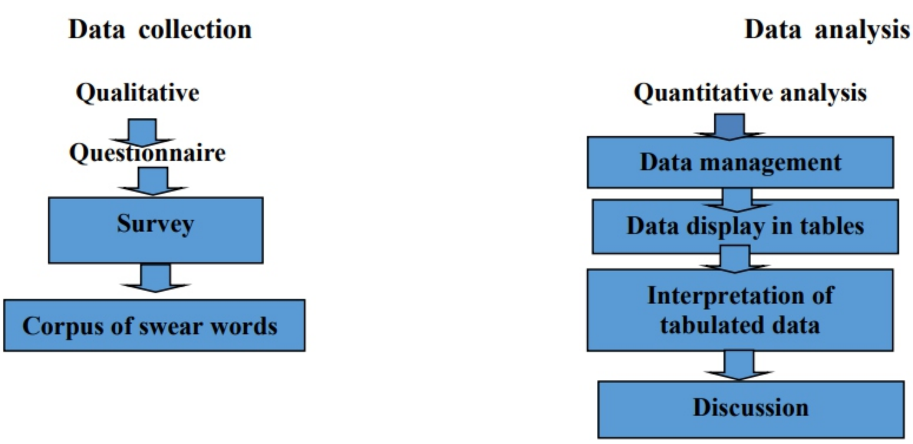
Methodology

The present study is different from past researches because it is conducted on Punjabi language. The purpose of this study is to analyze variations of foul terms used by males and females. One of the intentions is also to look into the types of swear language used by males and females in Punjabi speaking communities. The sample in this study includes 56 Punjabi speakers, 28 males and 28 females, from both rural and urban area. The population in this study is Punjabi speaking people living in Pakistan, but the target population is represented by people who reside in three villages - Mahar, Balloky Virkan, and Shamsa Virkan, and in the city of Lahore in the area of Gujranwala. The presentstudy varies from past researches because it does not focus on analyzing the effect of psychological, socio-cultural factors in the use of swear terms in Punjabi, as previous studies investigate languages other than Panjabi. Particularly, this research aims to shed light on gender directed bad words in Punjabi language. Furthermore, the situations where the terms are considered more offensive towards women or both genders as equal recipient of these wordsare studied.

Design

A mixed method approach was selected to investigate three main issues.First, categories of foul terminologies used by genders were established. Second,the extent to which genders (males and females) use similar and different terms in Punjabi context was investigated. Third, the terms collected were analyzed according to who were the recipients of the foul words in the Punjabi context. Under the paradigm of qualitative research, the corpus of Punjabi swear words was collected through an open-ended questionnaire. In addition, the quantitative method was used to analyze the data.

Figure 1. Research Methodology



Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework applied in this study to analyze the types of foul language in Punjabi is based on the categories of swear words in Battistella's theory (2005). According to Battistella (2005), foul language is a form of language which is to some extent known as offensive language and can be categorized into four types namely - profanity, vulgar, epithet, and obscenity. The corpus of Punjabi foul terminology collected by the open-ended questionnaire was grouped according to these types from the perspective of gender.

Epithet: This category included many types of references such as, appearance, ethnicity, disability and sexuality. There are some slurs that are also part of this category e.g., "bitch", "fag". This type also deals with the foul terms that make the association of human beings to animals like, "donkey", "dog", "son of bitch", and "monkey".

Profanity: This type of swearing is used when people swear with the name of God. It occurs when certain religious terms used secularly like, "Christ", "Jesus", and "hell".

Vulgarity: This kind refers to the expressions that are related to the excretion and sexual anatomy - "Dick", "cunt", "tit", and "ass", are examples of this kind.

Obscenity: This type of swearing deals with bodily effluvia e.g. "piss", "shit", etc. and sexual activity "fuck". Two types of swearing - obscenity and vulgarity are similar in expressions but are different on the level of prurience.

Data collection

Data were collected in the form of a corpus through open-ended questionnaire. Data were based on 56 male and female participants. For the collection of data, research was confined to the population in the city of Lahore and three villages - Mahar, Balloky Virkan, and Shamsa Virkan situated in the area of Gujranwala in Pakistan.

Corpus building

This is a corpus-based study, so, in order to create a corpus of Punjabi foul terms, a survey was conducted using an open-ended questionnaire. The corpus was collected from active Punjabi speakers, 56 from both males and females belonging to rural and urban areas. The participants were formally asked to note down Punjabi foul terms that they use in their daily communication.

Sampling

The sample in the present study included 56 active participants belonging to remote and urban areas. The participants selected for this study were from the Punjabi culture. They were 28 males and 28 females. Participants in this study belonged to different age groups and their level of education was graduate and under-metric. There were no restrictions of age in the sample. The convenience sampling technique was used.

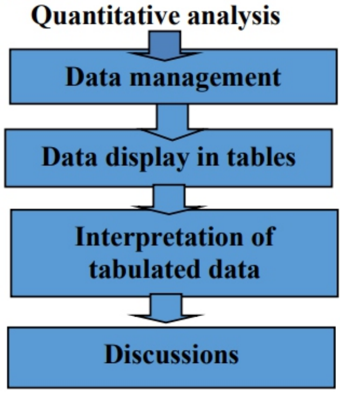
Materials

The study deals with materials in the form of open–ended questionnaire. The purpose of designing an open-ended questionnaire is to collect the corpus of Punjabi swear words to analyze which gender (male and female) uses more bad terms, the degree of these bad terms towards genders and, what are the variationsof these words used in Punjabi communities. The data used in this research areprimary in nature because they are first hand data collected through a survey questionnaire. The only one tool applied in the present study is named as openended questionnaire.

Data analysis procedure

All the data in the study were analyzed using frequency and percentage of responses by participants. The data were tabulated with IPA phonetics transcription and translation in English language (International language).

Steps in data analysis process



Ethical consideration

Prior to the collection of data, consent from participants was taken. They gave permission then the open-ended questionnaire was distributed afterintroductory information on the study and explanation of the purpose of the present study. The collected data from these participants were arranged and analyzed, so that the participants' identities would be confidential. The participants in the present study were assured that the information that they provided would be used solely for the purpose of this study and not elsewhere.

Results/Data analysis

The data for this research were analyzed in relation to the corpus that was collected from the Punjabi speakers, to differentiate the use of swear terms by gender, and the derogation of these terms was directed to them. This corpus wasalso used to describe the types of Punjabi bad terms, according to gender by applying the theory proposed by Battistella, (2005), which grouped words in four categories (epithet, vulgarity, obscenity, profanity).

Table 1. Corpus collected through questionnaires

NO	Terms	IPA Transcription	Translation
1.	کھیصنی	kʰəbɪ:sənɪ	Vile
2.	رنڈی	rəndɪ	Slut
3.	گشتی	gəʃtɪ	Escort
4.	ذلیل	zəlɪ:l	Contemptible
5.	کمینوں	kəmɪ:no	Means
6.	کمینہ	kəmɪ:nə	Mean
7.	دلا	dələ	Pimp
8.	چو تیا	tʃʊtɪə	Asshole
9.	شود یا	ʃʊdɛɑ	Stingy
10.	گانڈو	gɑ:ndʊ	Gay
11.	چوڑھی	tʃu:rɪ	Sweeper
12.	کڑی یا وا	kʊrɪ ja:vɑ:	Girl fucker
13.	دلی	dəlɪ	Female Pimp
14.	کمینی	kəmɪ:nɪ	Mean
15.	گندی	gəndɪ	Dirty
16.	کنجری	kəndʒri	Whore
17.	بھوتنی د ے کتے	bʰətənɪ dɛ kʊtɛ	Dog of she ghost
18.	کھبیٹ	kʰəbɪ:s	Vile
19.	بیماری پینہ	bəma:rɪ: pɛnə	Fall in disease
20.	ا لو	ʊlʊ	Owl
21.	کھوتا	kʰotə	Donkey
22.	تیری کڑی نو ں لن ماراں	tɛrɪ kʊrɪ nʊ lən mɑ:rɑ̃n	I am going to fuck your daughter
23.	بگیرتی	bgɛrətɪ	Lacking in self respect
24.	باندری	bɑ:ndərɪ	Female monkey
25.	پیڑی شکل والا	pɛrɪ ʃəkəl vɑ:lɑ:	Having bad shape of mouth
26.	پھٹے منہ	pʰɪtɛ mʊn	Damn
27.	دفاع ہو جا	dəfə ho dʒɑ:	Fuck off
28.	چو ل	tʃəvəl	Scoundrel
29.	بگیرت	bgɛrət	Lacking in self respect
30.	بد معا ش	bəd mɑ̃:ʃ	Mobster
31.	کتی	kʊtɪ	Bitch
32.	کھوتی	kʰotɪ	Female donkey
33.	ما ں دی پھدی پا ڑ ا	mɑ̃n dɪ pʰʊdɪ pɑ:rɑ:	Ripper of mother's pussy
34.	گندا	gəndə	Dirty
35.	حرام جادا	hərɑ:m dʒɑ: də	Bastard
36.	باندر	bɑ:ndər	Monkey
37.	پھدی	pʰʊdɪ	Pussy
38.	بنڈ و	bʊndʊ	Homosexual
39.	کمینے	kəmɪ:nɛ	Mean
40.	کنجر	kəndʒər	Fucker
41.	کتا	kʊtə	Dog
42.	حرام دی	hərɑ:m dɪ	Daughter of bastard
43.	پا گل دا پتر	pɑ:gəl də pʊtər	Son of mad person
44.	کتی دا پتر	kʊtɪ də pʊtər	Son of bitch
45.	کھو تی دیا بچیا	kʰotɪ dɛɑ bətʃɛɑ	Son of female donkey
46.	گندی نسل دیا	gəndɪ nəsəl də	Belong to indecent progenitor ship
47.	کتی نسل دا	kʊtɪ nəsəl də	Belong to dogs' progenitorship
48.	کتے دا بچہ	kʊtɛ də bətʃə	Son of dog
49.	پھدو	pʰʊdʊ	Idiot
50.	بشرم	bəʃrəm	Shameless

51.	بتمیز	bətmɪ:z	Impudent
52.	نسلی بگیرت	nəsəlɪ bgɛrət	Generations of shameless
53.	کتے دی پتر	kʊtɛ dɪ pʊtər	Son of dog
54.	ا لو دا پٹھا	ʊlu: də pət^{h}ə	Son of an owl
55.	حرام دا	həra:m də	Son of bastard
56.	مرجانی دا	mər dʒɑ:nɪ də	Son of girl whom should die
57.	رنگبا ز	rəngbɑ:z	Deceiver
58.	ماں مر جائے	mɑ̃n mər dʒaɛ	Mother die
59.	ا نی دیا	ənɪ dɛɑ	Son of blind woman
60.	گوار	gəvɑ:r	Illiterate
61.	پا گل	pɑ:gəl	Mad
62.	ماں یاوا	mɑ̃n ja:vɑ:	Mother fucker
63.	تیری پاڑاں پین	tɛrɪ pɑ:rɑ: pɛn	I am going to rip your sister
64.	گشتی دیا	gəʃtɪ dɛɑ	Son of escort
65.	تیری پین دی سر ی	tɛrɪ pɛn dɪ sɪrɪ	Your sister's head
66.	تیری پین نو ں کھیرا دتا	tɛrɪ pɛn nʊ k^{h}ɪ:rə dɪtə	Cucumber in your sister's pussy
67.	تیری ماں نوں لن ماراں	tɛrɪ mɑ̃n nʊ lən mɑ:rɑ̃n	I am going to fuck your mother
68.	کنجری دیا	kəndʒrɪ dɛɑ	Son of whore
69.	تیری ماں دی کو سی	tɛrɪ mɑ̃n dɪ kosɪ:	Your mom's pussy
70.	تیری بےبے دی سری	tɛrɪ bɛ bɛ dɪ sɪrɪ	Your mother's head
71.	پین چود	pɛn tʃod	Sister fucker
72.	تیری پین دی پھدی	tɛrɪ pɛn dɪ p^{h}ʊdɪ	Your sister's pussy
73.	لا نتی انسان	ləntɪ ɪnsɑ:n	Cursed man
74.	ڈنگر	dəngər	Beast\animal
75.	ثور	su:r	Pig
76.	کھانہ کھرابہ	k^{h}nə k^{h}ərɑ:bə	Destroy at all
77.	کواری یاوا	kvɑ:rɪ ja:vɑ:	Bachelorette fucker
78.	تیر ئ پین نو یا واں	tɛrɪ pɛn nʊ ja:vɑ:n	I am gonna to fuck your sister

Table 2. Types of foul words used by males and females

		Males	**Females**
Ranking	**Categories**	**Frequency (%)**	**Frequency (%)**
1.	Profanity	0(0%)	1(0.91%)
2.	Epithet	106(91.37%)	105(96.33%)
3.	Vulgarity	6(5.17%)	0(0%)
4.	Obscenity	4(3.44%)	3(2.75%)
	Total /Percentage	116(100%)	109 (100%)

In light of the above Table, 'epithet' is a highly used category by genders. On the other hand, males did not use 'profanity' but only 1 (0.91%) of females used this kind of Punjabi foul language. Females did not speak 'vulgarity' type of bad language and 6 (5.17%) males used it. The type that is not used by males is 'profanity' and females did not use 'vulgarity'. 'Obscenity' was used by both genders with very few differences in the use of it as shown in the table.

	Males	**Females**
Sr. no	**Frequency%)**	**Frequency (%)**
1.	116(51.55%)	109(48.44%)
Total/percentage	225(100%)	225(100%)

Table 3. Foul terms used by males and females

In terms of differences regarding foul language use between genders in Punjabi,the above table is self-explanatory.

No.	Terms	IPA Transcription	Translation	F (%)
1.	کنجری	kəndʒrɪ	Whore	2(3.57%)
2.	کھبیصنی	kʰəbɪ:sənɪ	Vile	1(1.78%)
3.	کتے دی پتر	kʊtɛ dɪ pʊtər	Son of dog	1(1.78%)
4.	دلی	dəlɪ	Female Pimp	1(1.78%)
5.	چو تیا	tʃʊtɪə	Asshole	2(3.57%)
6.	چوڑھی	tʃu:rɪ	Sweeper	1(1.78%)
7.	حرام دی	həra:m dɪ	Daughter of bastard	4(7.14%)
8.	بگیرتی	bgɛrətɪ	Lacking in self respect	2(3.57%)
9.	رنڈی	rəndɪ	Slut	1(1.78%)
10.	گشتی	gəʃtɪ	Escort	1(1.78%)
11.	باندری	ba:ndərɪ	Female monkey	1(1.78%)
12.	کتی	kʊtɪ	Bitch	8(14.28%)
13.	کھوتی	kʰotɪ	Female donkey	5(8.92%)
14.	کمینی	kəmɪ:nɪ	Mean	14(25%)
15.	گندی	gəndɪ	Dirty	2(3.57%)

Table 4. Foul terms directed to the females

The above table presents 15 terms used in Punjabi context to insult females. In light of the table کمینی – mean wss a highly used term and then کتی - bitch and کھوتی - female donkey were highly used after the term 'mean'. The above explained swear words were spoken only to insult females directly.

Table 5. Foul words directed to one's females

No.	Terms	IPA Transcription	Translation	F (%)
1	کواری یاوا	kva:rɪ ja:va:	Bachelorette fucker	2(3.57%)
2	تیری بےبے دی سری	tɛrɪ bɛ bɛ dɪ sɪrɪ	Your mothers' head	2(3.57%)
3	بھوتنی د ے کتے	bʰɔtənɪ dɛ kʊtɛ	Dog of she ghost	1(1.78%)
4.	گشتی دیا	gəʃtɪ dɛa	Son of escort	1(1.78%)
5	کنجری دیا	kəndʒrɪ dɛa	Son of whore	1(1.78%)
6	کھو تی دیا بچیا	kʰotɪ dɛa bətʃɛa	Son of female donkey	7(12.5%)
7	ما ں دی پھدی پا ڑ ا	mãn dɪ pʰʊdɪ pa:ra:	Ripper of mother's pussy	2(3.57%)
8	کتی دا پتر	kʊtɪ də pʊtər	Son of bitch	7(12.5%)
9	تیری ماں دی کو سی	tɛrɪ mãn dɪ kosɪ:	Your mom's pussy	1(1.78%)
10	تیری ماں نوں لن ماراں	tɛrɪ mãn nʊ lən ma:rãn	I am going to fuck your mother	1(1.78%)
11	تیری کڑی نو ں لن ماراں	tɛrɪ kʊrɪ nʊ lən ma:rãn	I am going to fuck your daughter	1(1.78%)
12	ماں یاوا	mãn ja:va:	Mother fucker	1(1.78%)
13	ا نی دیا	ənɪ dɛa	Son of blind woman	4(7.14%)
	تیری پاڑاں پین	tɛrɪ pa:ra: pɛn	I am going to rip your sister	1(1.78%)

14	تیری پین دی پھدی	tɛɾɪ pɛn dɪ pʰʊdɪ	Your sister's pussy	1(1.78%)
15	تیری پین دی سر ی	tɛɾɪ pɛn dɪ sɪɾɪ	Your sister's head	1(1.78%)
16	تیری پین نو ں کھیرا دتا	tɛɾɪ pɛn nʊ kʰɪ:ɾə dɪtə	Cucumber in your sisters pussy	1(1.78%)
17	کڑی یا وا	kʊɾɪ ja:vɑ:	Girl fucker	5(8.92%)
18	تیر ئ پین نو یا واں	tɛɾɪ pɛn nʊ ʝa:vɑ:n	I am goanna to fuck your sister	3(5.35%)
19	پین چود	pɛn tʃod	Sister fucker	9(16.07%)
20				

The bad terms displayed in the table were those used when the insult went towards someone's females rather to him/herself in Punjabi language.

Table 6. Insulting words directed towards males somehow with the involvement of their family members' insults

NO.	**Terms**	**IPA Transcription**	**Translation**	**F (%)**
1.	گانڈو	gɑ:ndʊ	Gay	1(1.78%)
2.	کتا	kʊtə	Dog	9(16.07%)
3.	باندر	bɑ:ndəɾ	Monkey	5(8.92%)
4.	کمینہ	kəmɪ:nə	Mean	2(3.57%)
5.	دلا	dələ	Pimp	3(5.35%)
6.	بیماری پینہ	bəmɑ:ɾɪ: pɛnə	Fall in disease	1(1.78%)
7.	گندا	gəndə	Dirty	2(3.57%)
8.	کھبیث	kʰəbɪ:s	Vile	1(1.78%)
9.	کمینے	kəmɪ:nɛ	Mean	1(1.78%)
10.	شود یا	ʃodɛɑ	Stingy	1(1.78%)
11.	کنجر	kəndʒəɾ	Fucker	2(3.57%)
12.	بنڈ و	bʊndʊ	Homosexual	3(5.35%)
13.	کھوتا	kʰotə	Donkey	7(12.5%)
14.	حرام جادا	həɾa:m dʒa: də	Bastard	3(5.35%)
15.	پیڑی شکل والا	pɛɾɪ ʃəkəl vɑ:lɑ:	Having bad shape of mouth	1(1.78%)
16.	کنجری دیا	kəndʒɾɪ dɛɑ	Son of whore	1(1.78%)
17.	ا نی دیا	ənɪdɛɑ	Son of blind woman	4(7.14%)
18.	کھو تی دیا بچیا	kʰotɪ dɛɑ bətʃɛɑ	Son of female donkey	7(12.5%)
19.	کتی دا پتر	kʊtɪ də pʊtər	Son of bitch	7(12.5%)
20.	گشتی دیا	gəʃtɪ dɛɑ	Son of escort	1(1.78%)
21.	ماں یاوا	mɑ̃n ja:vɑ:	Mother fucker	
22.	مرجانی دا	məɾ dʒɑ:nɪ də	Son of girl whom should die	2(3.57%)
23.	بھوتنی د ے کتے	bʰɔtənɪ dɛ kʊtɛ	Dog of she ghost	1(1.78%)
24.	کڑی یاوا	kʊɾɪ ʝa:vɑ:	Girl fucker	

25.	کواری یاوا	kvɑ:ɾɪ ja:vɑ:	Bachelorette fucker	2(3.57%)
26.	کتے دا بچہ	kʊtɛ də bətʃə	Son of dog	1(1.78%)
27.	حرام دا	həɾɑ:m də	Son of bastard	7(12.5%)
28.	الو دا پٹھا	ʊlu: də pətʰə	Son of an owl	1(1.78%)
29.	پاگل دا پتر	pɑ:gəl də pʊtəɾ	Son of mad person	1(1.78%)
30.	گندی نسل دیا	gəndɪ nəsəl də	Belong to indecent progenitor ship	1(1.78%)
31.	کتی نسل دا	kʊtɪ nəsəl də	Belong to dogs' progenitor ship	1(1.78%)

The data presented in the above table show that the words from 1 to 15 were directly used to insult males, but bad Punjabi terms from 16 to 23 were used for males, but the use these words was forwarded to insult their mothers. In the same way, word number 24 directed the insult to male children. According to the table,analysis of foul Punjabi words from 26 to 29 were directed to insult males' fathers and the last two words were used to derogate men progenitorship.

Table 7. Foul terms directed to both genders equally

NO.	Terms	IPA Transcription	Translation	F (%)
1.	کمینوں	kəmɪ:no	Means	1(1.78%)
2.	چو ل	tʃəvəl	Scoundrel	17(30.35%)
3.	بگیرت	bgɛɾət	Lacking in self respect	11(19.64%)
4.	دفاع ہو جا	dəfə ho dʒɑ:	Fuck off	4(7.14%)
5.	ا لو	ʊlʊ	Owl	1(1.78%)
6.	رنگبا ز	ɾəngbɑ:z	Deceiver	1(1.78%)
7.	ڈنگر	dəngəɾ	Beast\animal	3(5.35%)
8.	ثور	su:ɾ	Pig	2(3.57%)
9.	بتمیز	bətmɪ:z	Impudent	4(7.14%)
10.	ذلیل	zəlɪ:l	Contemptible	2(3.57%)
11.	گوار	gəvɑ:ɾ	Illiterate	3(5.35%)
12.	پا گل	pɑ:gəl	Mad	2(3.57%)
13.	بد معا ش	bəd mɑ̃:ʃ	Mobster	1(1.78%)
14.	لا نتی انسان	ləntɪ ɪnsɑ:n	Cursed man	1(1.78%)
15.	کھانہ کھرابہ	kʰnə kʰəɾɑ:bə	Destroy at all	4(7.14%)
16.	پھٹے منہ	pʰɪtɛ mʊn	Damn	1(1.78%)
17.	پھدو	pʰʊdʊ	Idiot	5(8.92%)
18.	بشرم	bəʃɾəm	Shameless	5(8.92%)

In Punjabi language foul terms displayed in the above table directed insult to both genders equally, for males as for females and no lexical differences could be seen.

Discussion

The present research was intended to analyze differences in the use of Punjabi foul language, typed by gender, and derogation of these bad terms towards gender. The findings show that the majority of males use more foul terms as compared to females. Females are less frequent users of these swear words. In order to analyze the kinds of Punjabi words used as swear language, the theory proposed by Battistella (2005) was applied in the theoretical framework. The application of this framework proved that all kinds of words were used by genders with a slight variation in frequency and percentage, except for 'vulgarity'and 'profanity'. 'Profanity' was not used by males, and 'vulgarity' was not employed by females. The corpus of Punjabi bad words shows that there weremany terms used to insult both genders, and females were greater recipients of these words as compared to males. Table 4 shows that all the swear words meant as insults went directly to females, except for Table 5 in which the foul words were directed to someone's females. The recipients of these words were females. In the same way, Table 6 displays the insulting words that were directed towards males, and Table 7 shows swear words that were used for both genders equally. There was no gender specification while using these words towards them. They were used for males as for females without any differences in meaning and context in Punjabi language.

Conclusion

In light of the above discussion, it can be concluded that, there were 116 (51.55%) foul words used by males and 109 (48.44%) used by females. This shows that males in Punjabi language swear more, while females use foul language less. The present study also deduced that Punjabi speakers used all the kinds of swear words (epithet, profanity, obscenity, vulgarity), as proposed by Battistella (2005), except for 'profanity' and 'vulgarity'. Females did not use 'vulgarity' and males did not use 'profanity'. From the present analysis, it is found that foul terms used in Punjabi language are insults directed towards both genders. Mostly terms used in Punjabi as swear terms are derogatory towards females rather than males. All foul terms that are used in Punjabi language in the form of insult go directly to males, females, to someone's relatives, to someone's females and to both genders equally.

Declarations

Human studies
All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki Declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

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Extended Conceptual Metaphor View Applied to Translation: Some Implications in Languages for Specific Purposes

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A B S T R A C T

In the research area of metaphor translation, it is necessary to move towards a more target-oriented approach that focuses on the target text, as well as the social, cultural, and historical context in which metaphor is embedded. To address this need, this paper proposes an approach to the study of metaphor in translation based on the Extended Conceptual Metaphor Theory. This recent approach presents a more pragmatic view of metaphor in which contextual factors play a determinant role. Although there have been studies that have advocated a descriptive and context-based approach to metaphor in translation, this area of research needs to be further explored. The application of the main foundations of the Extended Conceptual Metaphor Theory to the study of translation highlights different metaphor-related issues that have not yet received sufficient attention, as in the case of Languages for Specific Purposes. To illustrate this approach, this research focuses on business translation.

Keywords: *Translation Studies, Extended Conceptual Metaphor Theory, Languages for Specific Purposes*

Introduction

Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), presented by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), emphasized that metaphor is a matter of thought and reason and,therefore, has a universal character. Following the main assumptions of the authors, cognition plays the fundamental role within this theory while language is faded to the background. This secondary role given to language and the defended principle that metaphor is universal in all languages and cultures has contributed to a late integration of conceptual metaphor in the discipline of Translation Studies. At the same time, this novel paradigm of metaphor also brought a new designation in this area. “The more traditional way of referring to this area of study, 'the translation of metaphor', sounds prescriptive and somehow old-fashioned” (Shuttleworth, 2017, p.9). Therefore, the description “metaphor in translation” better aligns with this area because it “places the emphasis on metaphor and locates the discussion precisely where it should be – firmly in the broader context of general metaphor research” (Shuttleworth, 2017, p.9).

The first works that focused on conceptual metaphor in translation dates back to the mid-1990s. In particular, the cognitive translation hypothesis (CTH) of Mandelblit (1995) is one of the most significant statements in the area of metaphor in translation today. The fundamental assumption of this theory that there are two schemes for metaphor translation: similar mapping conditions and distinct mapping conditions. “Metaphorical expressions take more time and are more difficult to translate if they exploit different cognitive domains than the target language equivalent expressions” (Mandelblit, 1995, p.493). The conceptual mapping of metaphor refers to the cognitive part of the metaphorical phenomenon, including the reasoning that gives rise to the linguistic expression. Conceptual Mapping is a mental analogy of two realities or two cognitive domains. One of these domains transfers qualities to another domain, which is abstract. This analogy makes the abstract domain more comprehensible and understandable. One example of mapping would be TIME IS MONEY.

Following the convention of cognitive science, the conceptual mapping should be written in small capital letters and follows the scheme A IS B. In everyday language, several expressions are derived from this specific mapping, such as invest time or save time. The lexical realizations of the mapping, also called linguistic metaphors, are the linguistic part of the metaphorical phenomenon and, according to the convention, they should be written in italics. When two languages do not use the same mapping conditions, the search for another linguistic metaphor in the target language is the main reason for the delay, uncertainty, or difficulty in the translation process. To date, many studies have followed the CTH to analyze translation patterns based on conceptual mapping and its corresponding lexical realizations in different language pairs. These studies postulate some fixed scenarios that should appear in every language pair. For example, in a work entitled Towards a new model to metaphor translation, Taheri-Ardali et al. (2013) claimed that there are only five possible patterns between conceptual mapping and lexical realizations in the target text. This methodology, which focused on the correlations between the conceptual mapping and the lexical realizations in different language pairs, has been used in several studies throughout the 21st century (Kövecses, 2007; Al-Hasnawi, 2007;Hanić et al., 2017). This is why it is the prevailing methodology in this research area. However, other studies have shown that many patterns may occur when analyzing the metaphorical phenomenon in translation. In other words, translators do not necessarily opt for the corresponding equivalent lexical realization in the target language (Samaniego, 2013; Steen, 2014; Ildikó, 2014;Schäffner, 2017; Mateo, 2022). Nonetheless, there could be different scenarios including omissions, additions in the target text, or one metaphor being translated into a metonymy. However, these cases have not yet been sufficiently addressed in this research area. This is partly because the prevailing studies are still source oriented and prescribe how metaphor should be translated but does not describehow metaphor is actually translated (Schäffner, 2004, p.1256). It is thus necessary to move toward a target-oriented approach to metaphor in translation. This gives crucial importance to the target text, as well as the social, cultural, and historical context in which metaphor is embedded. Nonetheless, the targetoriented approach to metaphor translation requires a more pragmatic view of metaphor and a deeper understanding of the contextual factors in which metaphor takes place. According to this need for improvement within the traditional CMT, Kövecses (2015, 2017, 2020) introduced an improved version stating that "[…] CMT itself needs to be changed in several ways. In particular, I suggest (1) that it has to be given a much more elaborate contextual component than is currently available" (Kövecses, 2020, p.112). Putting the focus on the contextual factors surrounding metaphor would contribute to a more pragmatic approach to metaphor in translation. In a work called Conceptual Metaphor Theory and the Nature of Difficulties in Metaphor Translation, Kövecses (2014) argued how the lack of attention given to the pragmatic component within CMT affects the area of metaphor in translation. Giving more attention to the situational and discourse context surrounding metaphor could contribute to addressing various metaphorrelated issues within this research area. This could especially contribute to the development of metaphor translation within LSP. To date, metaphor in LSP has received very little attention. Even some bottom-up developed methods that identify linguistic metaphors in corpora do not deliberately address metaphor with specialized meaning. This is the case for the Metaphor Identification Procedure Vrije Universiteit (MIPVU) of Steen et al. (2010). "[…] In our project,we assume that metaphor is 'metaphor from the general language user' " (Steen et al., 2010, p.34). However, in the same way that metaphor belongs to general language users, it also belongs to specialized language users. Particularly in LSP, metaphor is essential for making abstract processes more comprehensible andgiving a name to new realities and situations within different areas of knowledge. For example, in economics, the metaphor inflation illustrates an increase in the prices of services and goods, thus resulting in a decrease in the value of money. In the inflation process, prices are metaphorically compared with something filled with gas or air, such as a balloon. The metaphorical mechanism is crucial within LSP and there is a need for more studies in this area that consider its multilingual and multicultural character.

Conceptual Metaphor and Translation Studies

The new paradigm of metaphor introduced by CMT did not reach Translation Studies until the 1990s. The first works emphasized the importance of cultural impediments in dealing with conceptual metaphor in translation. Stienstra (1993) dedicated her work to the mapping YHWH IS THE HUSBAND OF THE PEOPLE of the Old Testament in Hebrew and its English and Dutch translations. She focused on what she called pragmatic success between the original and the target text, which involves the successful communication of the original metaphor in the target language and culture when there is a great cultural and temporal distance between the original and the target text. Depending on the two cultures involved in the translation process, Stienstra (1993) proposed three groups of metaphors. Universal metaphors are those that are common in many languages and cultures because they come from the same mapping, and they have the same linguistic form. Metaphors are culture-overlapping when they come from comparable mappings in two languages and cultures. Lastly, culturespecific metaphors are those whose lexical realizations can only be found in a given language or culture. In line with these three metaphor types, Tabakowska (1993) affirmed that the coincidence or similarity between cultural models contributes to the correct understanding of the lexical metaphor in the original language. Hence, translation can be done without difficulties. These works (Stienstra 1993; Tabakowska 1993) lay the foundations of the cognitive translation hypothesis (CTH) (Mandelblit, 1995). Within the CTH, there are two possible scenarios for metaphor translation. The first one is called similar mapping conditions. For example, Romance and Germanic languages share the mapping THE FUTURE IS FORWARD and THE PAST IS BEHIND. Thus, the lexical realizations of these mappings could generally be translated without problems between Germanic and Romance languages. The second scenario corresponds to the distinct mapping conditions. In contrast to European languages, in Mandarin Chinese, FUTURE IS DOWN and PAST IS UP (Yu, 1995). The lexical realizations of this mapping could be more difficult and more time-consuming to translate into other languages. The CTH has been addressed in many studies that analyze different language pairs in order to identify the correlations between the lexical realizations and the conceptual mappings they come from (Deignan et al., 1997; Al-Hasnawi, 2007; Taheri-Ardali et al., 2013;Hanić et al., 2017). As a result, this methodology has a predominant position in this research area. However, it still focuses on the source text and follows a prescriptive approach. Conversely, the target-oriented approach focuses on the target text to draw conclusions about how a metaphor has been translated. Following this approach, one of the most recent works is Mateo (2022). Using a trilingual corpus in English, German, and Spanish, she was able to observe different translation phenomena that have not been addressed yet in this area. An example of this is the translation of one metaphor into two metaphors and two metaphors into one metaphor in the target text. In her work, Mateo (2022) also discusses the confluence of metaphor and metonymy and advocates the study of metaphor in translation as an ongoing phenomenon that cannot be categorized into predefined scenarios.

Once a metaphor belongs to a text, it becomes a part of a whole and requires an in-depth analysis. This analysis should focus on the pragmatic elements in which metaphor is embedded so as to draw conclusions about the translation procedure. However, due to the much-defended universal character of metaphor underlined by the CMT, factors such as the text type in which metaphor appears and the linguistic context or co-text has received little attention. Lexical metaphors in a literary text can be translated in a variety of ways because it allows a more creative language that contributes to a wide range of translation procedures. However, this is not the case in specialized texts since the knowledge base required is more specific (Stolze, 2009, p.138). Furthermore, a metaphor can be translated by the same metaphor in the target language, but the metaphorical interpretation can vary. Metaphorical expressions acquire different meanings depending on the text type and the linguistic context or cotext in which they are embedded. For example, the lexical unit appreciation is used for the recognition of the good qualities of someone or something in a general context. In the economic context, appreciation becomes metaphoric and refers to the increase in monetary value, which is a metaphorical appreciation of money. Factors such as culture, social conditions, historical facts, and the thematic orientation of a text are crucial for a better understanding of the metaphorical phenomenon and its translation into another target language and context.

The Extended Conceptual Metaphor Theory

The Extended Conceptual Metaphor Theory (ECMT) focuses on the principle of metaphor variation between languages and cultures. This is directly related to translation, as opposed to the much-defended principle of universality. "[…] As a general tendency, cognitive linguists have overemphasized the universality of some of the metaphorical structures that they found, and they ignored the many cases of non-universality in metaphorical conceptualization" (Kövecses, 2007, p.14). Metaphorical variation is intrinsically related to the contextual factors surrounding metaphor and gives crucial importance to the communicative situation, as well as the individual factors in which metaphor is produced. Metaphorical variation is a widespread phenomenon when comparing metaphors from different languages and cultures. Thus, metaphor can also vary within the same language. An example is seen in the case of the American English expression downtown, which refers to a low place. This is in contrast to the British equivalence city center, which takes the middle part of something into consideration.

This new approach proposed by Kövecses (2015, 2017, 2020) incorporates the definition of context proposed by Van Dijk (2008, p.5), which states: "Context is what is defined to be relevant in the social situation by the participants themselves." Therefore, there is an immediate or local context in which a statement is produced and a more global context that corresponds to the culture surrounding the situation in which that statement takes place. However, Kövecses (2015) emphasizes that there is no strict dividing line between the local context and the global context since both are related to each other. In addition, the ECMT proposes four groups of contextual factors that converge within the global and local context, which is illustrated in the figure below.

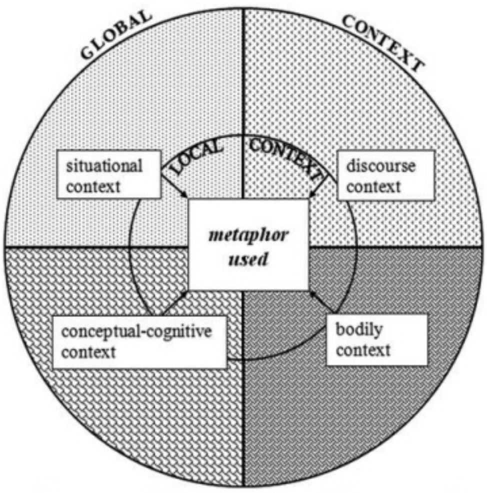

Figure 1. The four groups of contextual factors surrounding metaphor (Kövecses, 2015, p.189)

The cognitive-conceptual context and the bodily context are most related to the conceptualizer. The cognitive-conceptual context focuses on variables such as ideology and personal interests. This type of context could be related to the research line of Critical Metaphor Analysis introduced by Charteris Black (2004). For example, in terms of ideology, the political discourse that tends toward a liberal perspective opts for certain metaphors compared to the metaphors used in the conservative political discourse. Hence, in Lakoff's study (1995) of the conceptualizations of American political discourse, conservatives rely on THE NATION IS A STRICT FATHER, while liberals favor the use of THE NATION IS A NURTURANT PARENT FAMILY. Both versions come from THE NATION IS A FAMILY.

In the bodily context, human body and bodily experience originate the use and understanding of several metaphorical creations. For example, people feel warmly toward their family, partner, and friends, while expressing emotional attachment to them. When using the common expressions head of the office orheart of the city, the human body itself is used as a source domain. "In this view, the body, especially those aspects that are activated in the ongoing situation, can influence the choice of metaphor" (Kövecses, 2015, p.184). Similarly, possessingsome type of physical handicap that affects one of the five senses – which is the channels through which the human body receives information from the world –can be the reason for metaphor variation. For example, Casasanto (2009) focuses on the study of the source domains RIGHT and LEFT in left-handed people. He concludes that this physical characteristic influences the way some concepts are metaphorized in comparison with right-handed people. In the same way, the author also states that blindness or any other physical disability can influence the type of metaphors used.

The other two types of contexts presented by Kövecses (2015, 2017,2020) are the discourse context and the situational context. Within the discourse context, metaphors are in different text types and play a fundamental role in LSP. As stated previously, one of the factors that converge in the metaphorical interpretation is the surrounding linguistic context, that is, the co-text. For example, in general language, the metaphorical expression bubble of love is used to refer to a bubble as a place where a person in love lives and ignores what is happening outside of it. In computer language, the metaphorical term bubble chart is used in reference to the shape of bubbles. In economics, the term bubble economy refers to the ability to grow rapidly and to fade easily. Although the cotext exerts an influence on metaphor use, the target public also dominates the use of particular metaphors in a discourse context. A dialogue between experts will contain more metaphors related to specialized terms than a press article that targets the general public. The same applies to advertising texts, which allow the use of creative language dominated by figures of speech. Invariably, this contributes to novel metaphors. However, some specialized texts, such as Mechanical Engineering, does not allow an original writing that expresses facts and other ideas in an imaginative way.

In addition, a relevant issue within the discourse context involves prior knowledge of the subject, which facilitates the understanding of new metaphors that arise from those that are already conventionalized in a specific topic or discipline. For example, in economics, currency is a lexicalized metaphor coming from Latin currens. It is the present participle of currere, and it means "to run". In the past, coins were passed from hand to hand as an element of trade between merchants. In this way, the metaphor of money as a moving entity was established, thus giving rise to other metaphors such as capital outflows or money circulation.

The fourth group of contextual factors presented by Kövecses (2015) belongs to the situational context in which verbal communication takes place. This factor is mainly based on the social, cultural, political, and historical framework in which a metaphor is produced. For example, the global economic crisis of the 21st century illustrates the introduction of new designations in the economic sphere, such as deep recession, banking rescue package, or subprime mortgage. It is important to note that there are areas of knowledge or disciplines that tend more towards equivalence and accuracy between languages and cultures than others, which are more dependent, for example, on cultural and social norms, as in the case of economics (Felber, 1984; Stolze, 2009; Arntz et al., 2009; Drewer & Schmitz, 2017). Thus, the pragmatic elements surrounding a specific term is closely related to whether equivalence is achieved or whether there is a terminological gap. An important issue related to the equivalence between terms is the status of English as a lingua franca in numerous disciplines, especially in politics, economics, and science. This is also reflected in LSP translation. For example, in technical translation, Stolze (2009) points out that the cultural context plays a crucial role, especially in the case of German. The author states that "sometimes, the analysis of very long compounds requires special knowledge" (Stolze, 2009, p.129). This special knowledge refers to the use of sources of reference that are not only linguistic. Stolze (2009, p.129) exemplifies this by using the German phrase: ein planfestgestellter Autobahnabschnitt. This phrase refers to a section of the motorway that has been approved for renewal by the municipality. In this case, the translation requires an explanation in the target text. The same applies to the term vertaktete Direktfahrten im Nahverkehr, which refers to the planning of suburban train timetables so that the time interval between one and the other is always the same. Another example coming from the economic language is the German term Solidaritätszuschlag. This is also commonly found with the abbreviation "Soli", which refers to a type of tax paid by German taxpayers to cover the costs of the German Reunification. Thus, the translation of some particular terms would not only be influenced by cultural context but also by historical and social factors.

The Role of Context in Metaphor in Translation

From the beginning of Translation Studies, previous works on CMT addressed the crucial importance of context in both metaphorical interpretation and translation. Weinrich (1976), Van den Broek (1981), Larson (1984), and Newmark (1981/1988) devoted special attention to the metaphorical phenomenon from the traditional point of view. In his research, entitled Streit um die Metapher, Weinrich (1976) mentioned the work Städtebilder (1929) by the philosopher Walter Benjamin as a crucial example of the context in which metaphor appears. The text with the title Möwen (Seagulls), which is included in his work, can be understood literally as the experiences of a journey that the author has made, and metaphorically as political and social criticism of the situation in the Christian countries of the West. Weinrich (1976) always advocated a pragmatic analysis of the text based on the situation in which it was produced, the lexical metaphors it contains, and their function. This approach is called Text-in-der-Situation (text in the situation) in German. The pragmatic approach to metaphor translation was also supported by later studies holding the paradigm change of conceptual metaphor. Many of these studies criticize the CMT of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) as being an extremely semantic approach and advocate the study of metaphor in context.

First of all, the metaphorical meaning exists in the context. The scholars holding the pragmatic view claim that metaphors cannot be completely understood from the semantic perspective alone without considering [the] context. Breaking away from the context, the reader even cannot identify whether an expression is a metaphor or not.

The studies that compare Mandarin Chinese with Western languages,such as German (Zhu, 1994) and English (Lili, 2005) defend the fundamental position of context in metaphor translation. According to Zhu (1994), some pragmatic variants need to be considered in the translation process. These variants are especially related to the diachronic study of metaphor, as well as the individual factors and text types. The diachronic variant of Zhu (1995) is based on the use of metaphor throughout history and the different meanings it adopts over time. The next variant is based on the individual style of the author, who tends to use specific metaphors. At the same time, this variant is connected to the translator's decision-making when conserving this individual style of the source text. According to Zhu (1994), intertextuality also plays a fundamental role in metaphor translation. As mentioned previously, one metaphor can be exclusive to a particular text type or may adopt a different meaning, depending on the topic and the contextual factors in which it is embedded.

Lili (2005) makes a clear distinction between two types of contexts, namely the linguistic context and the extralinguistic context. She emphasizes that within the extralinguistic context, situational and cultural factors are crucial to adopt a translation approach that fits the communicative objective pursued by the target text. Lili (2005) exemplifies the translation of the expression neither a raven nor a sparrow can be heard from Mandarin Chinese into English. This expression is used when there is silence in a place. The author emphasizes that translators choose different procedures, depending on the context in which it appears. The first version discussed by the author is nor a bird's cheep was to be heard. Before this fragment, the following introductory phrase appears in the English target text: The courtyard was silent as she entered (Lili, 2005, p.114).The reader is aware that the situation in which the action takes place is in a courtyard, and thus the translation could retain a meaning that is very close to both the literal and the metaphorical. However, in another version of the translation of the same Chinese expression related to an apartment, the translator opts for the following: she found the whole place hushed and still. In this case, the translator opted for a translation that only considered the literal meaning for a better adaptation to the situation and discourse context of the target text. Another example from Lili (2005) that highlights the role of linguistic context in metaphor translation is the lexical unit loud. In combination with the word it would mean that the music is played at a high volume. However, in the sentence a tie with a loud pattern, the lexical unit loud is understood as a very striking color combination (Lili, 2005, p.112). The context that sets the meaning of loudin the different sentences is the linguistic context or co-text.

In addition to these works, which are focused on the general language, more recent authors have dedicated their research to the contextual factors surrounding metaphor translation in different areas of knowledge. Furthermore, they give crucial importance to the principle of variation between languages. For example, Ildikó (2014) addresses political articles that were translated from French into Hungarian. One of the conclusions of this author is that in most cases, metaphor variation between French and Hungarian could not be explained through cultural differences. Therefore, variation between these two languages was produced by differences in the situational context. The study of Tcaciuc (2014) focuses on the translation of metaphors from English into Romanian using a corpus of the European Central Bank. She asserts that the translator's decisions are individual but are made in a historical and social context, which exerts great influence on the translator's decision-making. This same approach is defended by Schäffner (2017) in a study Metaphor in Translation. In her study, the author's main objective was to give an overview of the development of this research area (from the introduction, the CMT, and the present) and to draw some future lines of research. One of the fundamental ideas defended by Schäffner (2017) is the need for a more focused approach to discourse, social, and cultural factors.

Metaphor in translation is a matter of discourse and social context, which means that translation strategies are not only determined by the availability of a corresponding conceptual metaphor and/or a metaphorical expression in the target language. (Schäffner, 2017, p.258)

The role played by contextual factors encompassing metaphor production has been a constant in the study of metaphor in translation. However, the aforementioned principle of universality defended in the CMT of Lakoff andJohnson (1980) versus metaphorical variation has led to metaphor being seen as a common element in all languages and cultures. On the other hand, the semanticist approach to metaphor has contributed to a disregard for the pragmatic element of metaphor, which is crucial for metaphorical interpretation. Furthermore, within the research line of metaphor in translation, the notion of context and its role in translation has been heterogeneously addressed. Each author focused primarily on the importance of one contextual factor. For example, Lili (2005) emphasizes the discourse context, Ildikó (2014) focuses on the importance of situational and discourse context, and Zhu (1994) gives crucial importance to the individual decisions of the translator. Following this assumption, the new vision of Kövecses (2015, 2017, 2020) completes CMT in such a way that it makes it possible to bring together the developments achieved in this area.

Extended Conceptual Metaphor Theory applied to Translation

ECMT provides a study framework in which metaphor and context are part of a whole and cannot be taken into account independently. At the same time, the broad notion of context presented in the ECMT considers a wide range of pragmatic factors. This makes it possible to expand the scope of research in this area, considering that metaphor is a contextual phenomenon. As many theorists emphasize, developments in the area of conceptual metaphor and in the area of translation studies should not be addressed independently. Therefore, the rapprochement of these two areas of research is of crucial importance to continue moving forward in some areas that need more attention.

The following chart represents a proposal for research in the area of metaphor in translation, which takes the improvements of ECMT as a reference for future research.

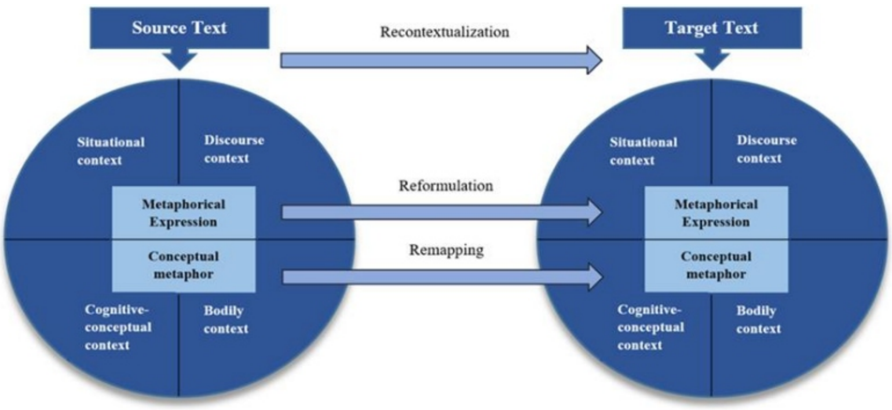

Figure 2. The Extended Conceptual Metaphor Theory applied to Translation

Metaphor translation should be taken into account as an operation in which many contextual factors are involved. This operation requires an in-depth study of the target text in order to carry out a recontextualization at the textual level, a remapping at the conceptual level, and a linguistic reformulation in the target text. Given that the cognitive-conceptual context and the bodily context are related to the conceptualizer as individual, the role of the translator becomes much more relevant. "The translator analyzes the situation before deciding what to say (information selection) and how to say it (information arrangement)" (Samaniego 2013, p.209). This approach would advance the recent line of research focused on individual factors concerning the translator such as job satisfaction, career success, and emotional expressivity (Cifuentes & Fenollar, 2017; Hubscher-Davidson, 2013, 2016). In addition, considering the importance given to the discourse and situational context in which metaphor appears, it opens new ways of research in the field of metaphor in LSP.

In order to illustrate this research proposal, a short fragment about the Global Financial Crisis of the 21st Century in English, Spanish, and German will be discussed below. The Global Financial Crisis introduced several new metaphorical creations to give name to the economic realities during those years. The following fragment belongs to the Annual Report 2009 of the International Monetary Fund. The text was originally written in English, while the German and Spanish versions are direct translations from the original.

Original English

The credit crunch in emerging countries intensified and asset prices continued to fall. High uncertainty, large wealth losses, and lower earnings prospects drove consumer confidence to record lows and caused a big jump in savings rates.

Spanish Translation

La contracción crediticia en los países emergentes se intensificó y los precios de los activos siguieron cayendo. La aguda incertidumbre, las ingentes pérdidas patrimoniales y el empañamiento de las perspectivas de ingreso redujeron la confianza de los consumidores a mínimos sin precedentes y dispararon las tasas de ahorro.

German Translation

Die Kreditbeschränkung verschärfte sich in den Schwellenländern und die Preise für Vermögenswerte fielen weiter. Große Unsicherheit, hohe Vermögensverluste und geringere Verdienstaussichten drückten die Zuversicht der Verbraucher auf ein Rekordtief und verursachten einen gewaltigen Sprung bei den Sparquoten.

The source text prevailed by metaphorical adjectives related to spatial orientation, as in the case of high uncertainty or lower earnings prospects. Thus, there are also metaphorical creations that refer to upward and downward motion, such as the verb to fall in the phrase asset prices continued to fall or the noun jump in big jump in savings rates. Spatial orientation and motion are very common in the language of economics since they are used to estimate and quantify economic variables or processes that are highly abstract (Mateo, 2022). These metaphorical creations are related to the bodily context. Due to bodily experience and the experience of the world, it is possible to easily understand the metaphorical meaning they express. Therefore, they are present in many languages and cultures, as in the case of Spanish and German. However, in the target text, the translator sometimes opts for the use of another metaphor, either for stylistic reasons or to give the text a certain degree of creativity. For example, high uncertainty has been translated in German into große Unsicherheit (big uncertainty), possibly for stylistic reasons, in order not to repeat the same adjective hohe (high) two times in the same sentence. The other orientational metaphors of the original text have been translated in German into the same metaphor. In the Spanish version, high uncertainty has been translated into aguda incertidumbre (sharp uncertainty) and lower earnings prospects into empañamiento de las perspectivas de crecimiento (blurring of earning prospects). Therefore, the earning prospects are conceptualized in the same way as a glass that is fogging up and becoming less clear. The Spanish translation version is more creative than the original, even though the translator could have used the same metaphors as in the original. Therefore, it is the translator, as an individual or as a reconceptualizer, who chooses to give the target text a particular style. In the language of crisis, the decisions of the individual translator can be observed by the extensive use of euphemistic and dysphemistic expressions between languages. Dysphemisms express a reality by emphasizing the negative side, such as the term budget cuts, which uses the metaphor cut to refer to budget restrictions. By contrast, euphemisms are used to describe situations by softening its undesired effects. The German translation of budget cuts is Sparmaßnahmen (saving measures), which refers to the same reality in a neutral way.

As discussed in previous sections, discursive and situational factors play a key role in LSP translation, mainly in translation of specialized terms. The historical and cultural factors of each linguistic community have significantimpact on the economic terms they use. At the same time, it is the discourse context that gives lexical units a particular metaphorical meaning. For example, in the first sentence of the fragment, The credit crunch in emerging countries intensified […], there are two economic terms: credit crunch and emerging countries. The term credit crunch contains a metaphor related to the noise produced when something hard is being pressed by the teeth when chewing food. In English, the use of crunch is very common in many discourse contexts. Depending on the lexical unit it is combined with, it means that there is a rupture or breakdown as in the case of light crunch or energy crunch. Similarly, the term credit crunch refers to a crisis of lending institutions, which reduces their lending activity or tightens up the requirements for obtaining a loan. The Spanish and German languages do not have a conceptualization related to noise to express this same reality. Thus, there is a metaphorical variation between languages. The Spanish version alludes to elasticity through the expression contracción crediticia (credit contraction), while the German version focuses on a limitation such as Kreditbeschränkung (credit limitation).

The second term emerging countries comes from the conceptualization ECONOMIC STABILITY IS ABOVE. Thus, the economic development of these countries is a bottom-up movement. In Spanish, países emergentes comes from the same conceptualization and uses the same linguistic form. In the German language, emerging countries are referred to as Schwellenländer, which comes from the conceptual metaphor ECONOMIC STABILITY IS A HOUSE or ECONOMIC STABILITY IS A ROOM. The word Schwelle refers to threshold or to the edge of the doorway. Thus, emerging countries are on the doorstep of achieving the economic stability enjoyed by other countries. The variation of German, with respect to other languages, shows a close relationship with the study carried out by Schäffner (1996) under the title Building a European house? Or at two speeds into a dead end? Metaphors in the debate on the United Europe. In her paper, the author compares the conceptualizations of texts about the construction of a united Europe after the fall of the Berlin Wall in various languages. While French and English texts use different conceptualizations of Europe as a common project, EUROPE IS A HOUSE in German texts. According to Schäffner (1996), the origins of the use of this conceptualization dates back to Mikhail Gorbachev's speeches from 1987, which was a reflection of the new political thinking of the Soviet Union and its communist party. Gorbachev's speech advocated the structural and architectural aspects of a house, including coexistence between the countries of Eastern and Western Europe (Schäffner, 1996, p.33). According to the author, the conventionalization of this metaphor in German political discourse became especially noticeable during the 1994 political campaign. In the Germanlanguage, the HOUSE domain has been transferred to the economic sphere for the construction of common goals. This is possible because it was already established in the cognitive system. Subsequently, these already established conceptualizations enhance the understanding of new conceptualizations that arise due to social, political or economic movement.

Conclusions

Studies that focus on metaphor translation from a prescriptive point of view and also consider metaphor as a semantic phenomenon have a predominant position within this research area. These studies focus on identifying the metaphorical expressions in the source text that are translated by the same metaphor or by another metaphor in the target text. However, they do not delve into whether the translation involves a case of metaphorical variation between languages in which translation by the same metaphor is not possible, or whether it was the translator's decision. In the same way, these studies do not delve into whether the translation of the same metaphor of the source text can adopt another meaning in the target text. A simple list of translation patterns per se does not contribute to progress in this research area if these translation patterns are not linked to a pragmatic study.

Although there have been studies that have advocated a descriptive and context-based approach to metaphor in translation since the beginning of the 21st century, this research area has been addressed from heterogeneous standpoints. To date, the works on conceptual metaphor in translation have only focused on the influence of one specific contextual factor. In order to achieve a broader understanding of the metaphor translation phenomenon, it is necessary to conduct an individual study to identify the contextual factors involved in each case. The application of the EMCT to the study of translation can contribute to bringing together the existing contextual approaches to metaphor translation in order to move in the same direction. In this regard, the study of metaphor in LSP is especially important. The historical, social or political moment in which a new term is coined, the type of text in which it appears, and its origin play a fundamental role in the metaphorical creation and in its translation into other languages. All areas of knowledge are subject to continuous evolution, which is directly reflected in LSP. Thus, new designations and new terms, mostly metaphorical, emerge to name new realities. As shown in the section dedicated to the contextual model, economic terms are even more influenced by the historical, social, and cultural context in which they are embedded than general language metaphors (Mateo, 2022). In LSP translation, it is necessary to advance in a more pragmatic direction. The fundamental base of this pragmatic direction should focus on the translator practice and on the target text specifications.Translators give special style to a text and are able to recognize what a client or target reader requires in today's world, especially as communities are increasingly multicultural. Translators also play a key role in building bridges between cultures and mediating between speakers of different languages (Hubscher-Davidson, 2013).

It is important to mention that conceptual metaphor introduced by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) was a purely cognitive phenomenon and language was faded into the background. The fundamental role played by language within this theory was emphasized a few years later. "From the earliest writing of CMT (Conceptual Metaphor Theory) to the present, linguistic metaphors have been the main type of evidence provided in support of the existence of conceptual metaphors" (Deignan, 2017, p.102). Due to the linguistic approach to metaphor, it was possible to advance in corpus-based methodologies to address metaphorical meanings in corpora. Translation scholars also advocated the use of this methodology for metaphor research in translation. However, "Translation scholars are advised to use existing methodologies to identify metaphorical expressions in texts and to conduct corpus-based research" (Shuttleworth, 2014, p.9). In any case, corpus-based metaphor identification research should also address the specialized meaning of metaphor. To date, only few studies have focused on identifying lexical metaphors within specialized terms. Therefore, not much progress has been made in this area. This is a gap in metaphor research that needs to be filled with further research.

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The Correct Application of Spelling in the Significant Learning of Upper Basic Students

Icela Rosaura Santos-Cusme a

A B S T R A C T

Spelling plays an essential role in ensuring the understanding of written texts, therefore, guaranteeing meaningful learning. The objective of the study is to analyze the correct application of Spelling in the meaningful Learning of Higher Basic students, the research is aimed at identifying the strategies used by the teacher to strengthen spelling, evaluate the students' spelling skills, and determine the benefits of this, in meaningful learning. The methodology presents a mixed, exploratory, and descriptive approach, inductive, analytical,and synthetic methods, survey technique, interview, and observation were used. The results show that teachers incorporate methodologies in their classes to strengthen their spelling. It is concluded that a small group of students has adequate spelling ability, the majority is in the process of achieving it, while a significant group of students present difficulties, finding greater limitations in the application of rules and use of punctuation marks, use of capital letters. and clarity in the expression of ideas and meaningful learning is related to spelling because adequate writing of texts allows the student to better assimilate the contents.

Keywords: *communication;learning;spelling;understanding;*

1 Introduction

Spelling allows or facilitates certain rules to be able to write correctly. At a global level, educational systems recognize that the main problem with writing is the inadequate use of spelling rules; teachers use strategies, materials, and tools to make up for these deficiencies (Castro et al., 2022). In Ecuador, the Ministry of Education, from the curriculum in the area of Language and Literature, points out that the development of writing requires the work of skills and knowledge before the production of texts. In this sense, it is up to the teacher to remember that the emphasis is not on the decontextualized knowledge of grammar, but on the use of the language in various communication situations, so it is suggested to adequately mediate the contextualized learning of punctuation rules through reflection on the appropriate use of grammatical rules (Ana et al., 2024). The national report on writing results ERCE - Ecuador carried out by INEVAL (2019), analyzed the domain of readability conventions, which includes all those of written communication that account for the domain of the written code and in which aspects such as the spelling and punctuation marks. It points out that in primary education these are just being learned and that they are progressively consolidated, therefore, through their evaluation, indicators of development and knowledge of spelling rules are analyzed, finding that the majority of students who are years above the fourth year basic they need to reinforce their spelling (Marslen-Wilson & Tyler, 1980).

At the Dr. Gonzalo Abad Grijalva Educational Unit of the Chone Canton, teachers show interest in strengthening spelling skills, applying methodologies with which they seek to help students understand and apply spelling rules with greater precision in their writing, encouraging confidence in their writing skills, improve motivation and attitude towards the area of Language and Literature and promote meaningful learning.

The study variables are the application of spelling and meaningful learning. Various studies have exposed the importance of the correct application of spelling, Trigo et al. (2020), associated the correct application of spelling rules with the influence of social factors, Jiménez & Cartuche (2023), explained the usefulness of methodological strategies to strengthen spelling, Albarracín et al. (2020), proposes the need for students to be actively involved in orthographic learning, based on its relevance as a component of written language. The problem focuses on the poor application of spelling among parallel eighth-year A and B students of Higher Basic General Education (EGBS) of the Dr. Gonzalo Abad Grijalva Educational Unit of the Chone Canton, a situation that affects meaningful learning. Writing with spelling errors hinders students' ability to communicate effectively, which affects their academic performance in various areas and the process of acquiring writing and written communication skills (Gao et al., 2012; Eyrich et al., 2008).The objective of the study is to analyze the application of spelling among parallel eighth-year students A and B of Higher General Basic Education (EGBS) of the Dr. Gonzalo Abad Grijalva Educational Unit of the Chone Canton, the specific objectives are aimed at identifying the strategies used by the teacher to strengthen spelling, evaluate students'spelling skills and determine the benefits of spelling in meaningful learning. Throughout the research, we seek to answer the question: How does the lack of spelling skills affect the significant learning of the eighth-year EGBS students of the Dr. Gonzalo Abad Grijalva Educational Unit of the Chone canton?

2 Materials and Methods

The methodology is based on a mixed approach, combining qualitative and quantitative methods to obtain a comprehensive vision of understanding the phenomenon. It is an exploratory and descriptive study through which the complexity of students' spelling learning was addressed. Inductive, analytical, and synthetic methods were used to evaluate the correct application of spelling in the meaningful learning of Upper Basic students.The population includes all the individuals that are considered in a research (Condori, 2020), as a population, 57 people are selected, corresponding to 49 eighth-year Basic students, 5 teachers from the area of Language and Literature and 3 authorities from the Unit. Educational Dr. Gonzalo Abad Grijalva. No sample was selected, we worked with the entire population. The techniques used were the survey, interview and observation. The survey was applied to teachers, as an instrument a structured questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data on the specific characteristics of spelling practice and its relationship with meaningful learning. The interview was applied to the authorities to obtain qualitative information, using the interview guide as an instrument. Finally, observation was applied to the students, the observation guide was used as an instrument, the data was recorded through the development of a class in the area of Language and Literature.

3 Results and Discussions

Spelling is the set of norms and rules that regulate correct writing, establishing guidelines for accentuation, use of letters, and punctuation, among other aspects (Cabanillas, 2021). They include standards and rules that govern the correct spelling of a language. Rules that include, but are not limited to, emphasis, capitalization, punctuation, and other conventions that facilitate understanding and consistency of language (Dich & Cohn, 2013; Morin et al., 2018).The descriptive approach to spelling highlights that the rules must reflect the reality of linguistic use and evolve with the language, considering regional and contextual variations (Custodio & Rodríguez, 2021). This linguistic science is responsible for establishing conventions and guidelines for the correct graphic presentation of words in a given language (Zúñiga et al., 2020).

The treatment of spelling promotes the establishment of interdisciplinary relationships in all subjects of the curriculum (Rodríguez et al., 2021). It is an important tool in written communication and ensures that ideas are communicated effectively following clear rules that avoid ambiguities and misunderstandings. It guarantees the coherence of written expression that facilitates understanding between senders and receivers. From a didactic perspective, it is important to teach spelling comprehensively, incorporating it in the context of written communication and focusing on the understanding and application of spelling rules (Devonshire et al., 2013; Caravolas et al., 2001). Spelling from a modern approach proposes rules that adapt to the phonetics and structure of the Spanish language, seeking to simplify and make the writing system more coherent (Espinosa, 2021). This includes graphic conventions that govern how words are written and presented in the text. These agreements developed by normative institutions promote uniformity and correct use of the written language.

Developing spelling skills is a challenge for teachers, who are responsible for guiding the learning process and promoting activities that stimulate the assimilation of new words, which is why it is important to point out the errors commonly made when writing a word so that it can be corrected and replaced with another. Ensuring that the student has good spelling requires teacher knowledge about the basic vocabulary used when writing and the words where errors are frequently made (Llopis & Puig, 2020). In this way, the teacher can design and implement strategies focused on obtaining positive results in spelling (Ávila et al., 2021).Learning behaviors are learned through the association of stimuli and responses, and positive or negative reinforcements influence the repetition or suppression of said behaviors (Baque & Portilla, 2021). Learning refers to the process by which people acquire new knowledge, skills, attitudes or abilities, whether through experience, formal instruction or interaction with the environment.

Learning, focused on the development of mental structures and the way in which individuals construct their knowledge. It points out the stages of cognitive development, from assimilation to accommodation, and highlights the importance of balance in the individual's adaptation to the learning environment (Armas, 2019). Learning is understood as a relatively permanent change in human behavior resulting from the acquisition and processing of information, experiences or stimuli from the environment.Humanistic learning theory, which emphasizes self-actualization and individual potential. It highlights the importance of an educational environment that encourages autonomy, self-assessment and self-regulation of learning, recognizing the subjectivity of the student (Quezada & Salinas, 2021). From an evolutionary perspective, learning is seen as a process of adaptation and adaptation to the environment. People develop new skills or change their behavior to meet changing challenges and demands.

Sociocultural theory highlights the influence of the social and cultural environment on learning. Emphasize the role of social interaction, the zone of proximal development and language as a fundamental tool for the construction of knowledge and cognitive development (Vargas & Cárdenas, 2019). Some theories of learning emphasize the idea that learning involves the active construction of meaning and knowledge by the student through the integration of new ideas with their previous experiences. Figure 1 shows some observations made to the students.

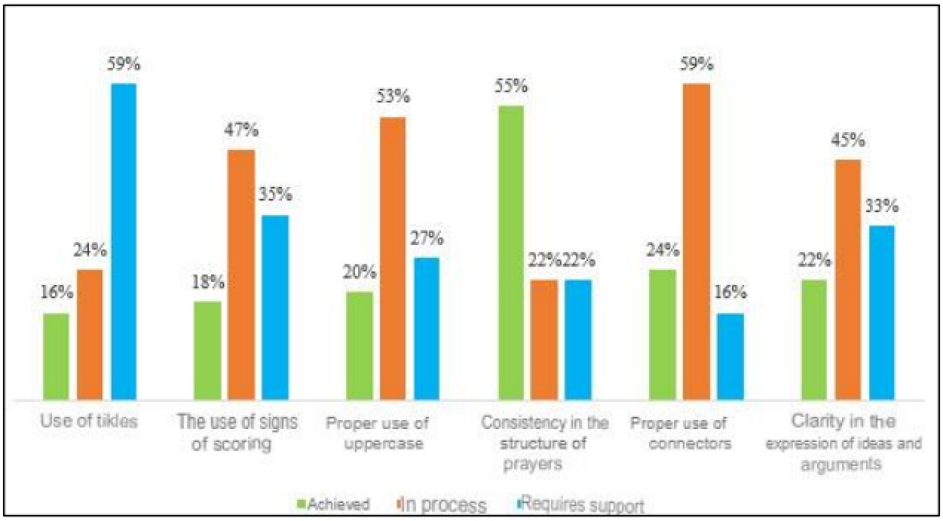

Figure 1. Observation of students

It is shown that about the aspect of using accents, 59% require support, regarding the use of punctuation marks, 35% require help with the use of capital letters, and 27% require knowledge of the coherence in the structure of sentences. 22% need to know the proper use of connectors, 16% need clarity in the expression of ideas and arguments, and 33% require help in a general sense. Figure 2 presents the results of the survey applied to teachers in the Language and Literature area of the Dr. Gonzalo Abad Grijalva Educational Unit, where they consulted about the methodologies used to strengthen the students' spelling.

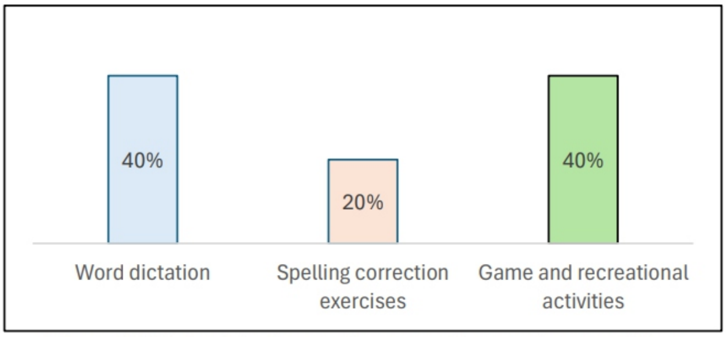

Figure 2. Methodologies used to strengthen students' spelling

As can be seen, 40% of teachers use word dictation, 20% use correction exercises, and 40% use games and recreational activities to strengthen the learning of spelling in their students. Figure 3 shows how spelling is integrated into the teaching process.

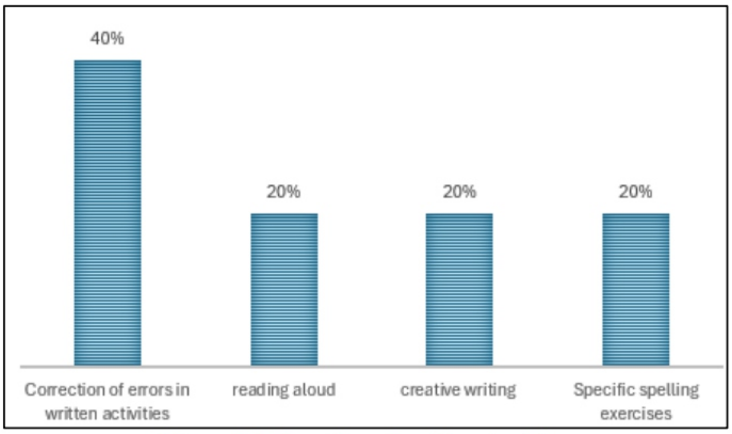

Figure 3. Integration of spelling teaching

The figure shows that 40% of respondents use error correction in written activities, 20% use reading aloud, 20% use creative writing, and 20% use spelling exercises. Figure 4 shows the teaching resources used to evaluate the teaching of spelling.

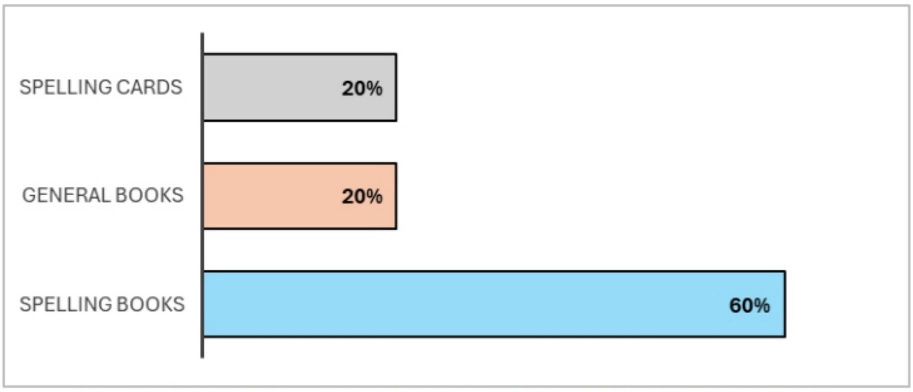

Figure 4. Teaching resources to evaluate the teaching of spelling

Figure four shows that 60% of the respondents use spelling books to evaluate spelling instruction, 20% general books,and 20% spelling cards. Table 1 shows the interview carried out with the manager.

Table 1
Interview with the manager

N°	Ask	Informant 1	Informant 2	Informant 3
1	How do you rate students' meaningful learning in the area of language and literature?	They achieve the acquired learning	They get a good learning	Students' meaningful learning in the area of language and literature is fair to good.
2	Does the educational institution aim to implement spelling teaching programs for students?	In this 2024 school year, the institution's improvement plan included the teaching program for the language area based on reading - writing.	Yes, because it is the process of carrying out a plan or strategies to teach students spelling rules.	The educational institution aims to implement a spelling teaching program for students by 2024.
3	Does the educational institution provide training to teachers around language and literature before starting the school year?	No	No	No

Discussion

The analysis of the results of the observation applied to the students shows that most of the students are in the process of mastering the spelling skill, which represents a deficiency because they are Eighth Year Basic students who must have an adequate command of this skill. In addition, specific limitations were found for a significant group of students who require support in relation to the use of accent marks; they also present deficiencies with the use of punctuation marks, capital letters and clarity in the expression of ideas, in this sense Ávila et al. (2021), maintain that there are shortcomings in the teaching and learning of spelling, with the poor mastery of the spelling rules reflected by students being common, regardless of the academic level studied. Under similar conditions, Suárez et al. (2021), and Trigo et al. (2020), found that spelling difficulties that are related to the use of the accent mark are the most frequently observed.

From the survey applied to teachers, it was found that they mainly use the dictation of words, games and recreational activities to strengthen the learning of spelling in their students, that the teaching of spelling is mainly integrated by correcting errors in written activities, and Among the most used resources and materials are spelling books to evaluate your teaching. Findings that are related to Ávila et al. (2021), which defines active methodological strategies as novel and innovative teaching tools that are located in the constructivist pedagogical model that places the student at the center of the learning process, identify the main methodological strategies. active applied in the teaching of spelling, reading, play, spelling, dictation, mural and the orthographic story, Jiménez & Cartuche (2023), concluded that the teaching strategies used by teachers must be striking to awaken interest, generating active participation and cooperation in children, highlighting strategies such as puzzles, anagrams and games in general.

As far as the authorities are concerned, there is an institutional commitment to the implementation of spelling teaching programs, although there is a lack of prior training for teachers in this matter. In this regard, Hunt et al., (2020), point out the importance of providing teachers in training with the necessary skills so that they can incorporate them into their teaching practice and improve the spelling skills of their students. For his part, Gaviño (2022),recognizes the importance of the teaching role as disseminators and catalysts of academic spelling.

The main limitation was a limited institutional commitment to the implementation of specific spelling reinforcement programs that reflect a holistic vision of educational quality, and there is no solid basis to identify specific areas that need continuous growth and educational interventions more effective (Panigrahi et al., 2018; Lewalter, 2003).

It is recommended to implement specific spelling reinforcement programs that reflect a holistic vision of educational quality, improve professional development through pedagogical strategies in the area of spelling, and identify specific areas that need continuous growth, creating a solid foundation to design more effective educational interventions (Merchant et al., 2014).

4 Conclusion

Only a small group of students has adequate spelling ability, the majority is in the process of achieving it, which represents a serious deficiency since at the level corresponding to the Eighth Basic Year, students must already have an adequate command of spelling. In addition, a significant group of students have difficulties in applying spelling rules and use of punctuation marks, use of capital letters, and clarity in the expression of ideas, Students require greater intervention at the teaching and management level to strengthen their spelling skills. To make up for this deficiency, teachers strive to continuously apply strategies and methodologies, which contribute to the holistic vision of the educational quality offered in the institution. Meaningful learning is related to spelling becauseadequate writing of texts allows the student to better assimilate the contents.

Conflict of interest statement
The author declared that she has no competing interests.

Statement of authorship
The author has a responsibility for the conception and design of the study. The author has approved the final article.

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