REPRESENTATIONS OF NEW TECHNOLOGIES AND RELATED TERMINOLOGY
IN TEXTBOOKS FOR LEARNERS OF FRENCH AND SPANISH

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The purpose of the thesis is to look at the presentation of vocabulary related to new technologies in four French and four Spanish textbooks for first-year university students to examine the relevance of the language presented in terms of its authenticity to French and Spanish as it is used today. The focus is on authenticity to show the correlation between what is presented to students versus what they will need to communicate effectively in ways that are linguistically, socially, and sociopragmatically appropriate with native speakers. The thesis also provide teachers with a pedagogical framework that will help them integrate new technologies and their related vocabularies into curriculum when textbooks fail to do so.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

With the proliferation of new media and new technologies (e.g., the iPod, streaming video and audio, the evolution of the Internet, and so forth), linguistic and cultural practices are being reshaped and redefined. These new means of communication have lead to new ways of using language, and the ease of communication has lead to a world where cultures are mixing and influencing each other more directly and visibly than ever before. These new technologies are changing communication on a local and global level in personal and professional spheres. People in many—but not all—areas of the world have the opportunity to communicate with each other with a flexibility and immediacy that has never before been experienced. With facility and opportunity of communication comes increased globalization, at least on some levels of social and cultural interaction. This results not only in the blending of cultures, but also in the creation of new cultural identities through these technologies, such as the culture of online communities, each of which has its own norms and pragmatics (Whitworth, 2009, pp. 292-293). This global culture and the creation of online cultures are not the only results. The creation of new technologies can also lead to the creation of other new technologies, neologisms, and new literacies to embrace and effectively use these new technologies.

With each new technology that is created, other media and products are created to expand upon its uses or improve it in some way. The result is exponential. For instance, the creation of the Internet led to other new types of media. New messaging
platforms such as e-mail and instant messaging came into being because technology evolved in such a way that an invention such as the Internet was able to house them and because the technology used in creating these tools had advanced in such a way that their creation was possible. The evolution of online communities exemplifies the ever-changing nature of the Internet and technology in general. Initially, the Internet housed sites such as blogs, personal websites, discussion forums, and chat rooms. Then, social networking sites such as Myspace.com and Orkut.com were created. Now social networking sites have exploded and Facebook.com is one of the premier online communities—combining elements of the different media listed above. Facebook has an instant messaging utility, applications or “apps” similar to those found on different cellphones such as the iPhone, a “wall” on which messages can be posted, online photo albums similar to photo album sites such as Photobucket.com, a space to post longer messages that are similar to blog entries, quizzes and games that can be found online as well. Not to mention, there is also a private messaging utility that is similar to e-mail.

Another example of the merging of technologies is cellphones and personal digital assistants (PDAs). Phones, Instant messaging, Internet search utilities, e-mail, music, and digital organizers were once separated. Now cellphones are equipped with all of these functions, including those of a PDA. For that reason, PDAs have become obsolete in favor of a tool that can do the work of several. With the creation of new technologies, other technologies are either created or reformatted to either compete with the new technology or to include and embrace it. In the case of the PDA, the function was kept, but incorporated into another technology. In either case, the result is a shift in new technologies and changes in how we live and work. These changes have
not just resulted in the creations of online communities and changes in personal communication. Job descriptions have expanded if only through a tacit understanding that one must check his/her e-mail every hour. More and more often, companies are now requiring that their employees know how to use and often provide a cellphone with a data plan such as a Blackberry phone or an iPhone.

With social and professional expectations of technological savvy growing, it is increasingly important to be literate in multiple technologies and their associated literacies. These technologies and media often require their own literacy in order to be able to navigate and use them. While many of these technologies contain elements of traditional print literacy, each of these tools requires their own skills in order to take advantage of their full range of functions. For instance, the Internet and its websites have expanded the traditional definition of print literacy in which the reader only reads from left to right or right to left and linearly from page to page. Web pages can often times be accessed from different pages within the site and do not have to be viewed in order. It is also not necessary to read each and every page or up and down and from left to right with several websites having different, independent zones to view on a given web page (Williams, 2009, pp. 48-49). The pedagogical importance of this continuous change is the need for a broader definition of literacy in education. This definition of literacy then needs to be translated into a curricular framework and taught in schools; however, not all schools have embraced changes in literacy and implemented educational practices that reflect a less traditional view of literacy based on print literacy. For that reason, literacy education as it stands does not always fulfill the literacy needs of students both in their personal and professional futures (Lothingon, Neville-Verardi, &
Ronda, 2009, p. 11). If students are not literate in new technologies in the same way that their peers are, it is likely that they will not be as successful. The ultimate goal of education is to make sure that all of our students have every possibility to be as successful as they can possibly be (New London Group, 1996, p. 60).

Neologisms are a reflection of changing realities in that they are new words that are created in order to describe new inventions and ideas. As seen in previous paragraphs, these new products change the realities of those who use them in that they change what people think about, how they think, and how they convey these thoughts to other people (New London Group, 1996, p. 61). The influence of these products also influences language through the creation of neologisms. For instance, Google is a popular Internet search engine. It is so popular that that the verb to google has been coined. To google is a verb that means: to search for something online-- most likely using Google.com. The use of Google is so popular and so well-known that a word was created to describe its use. This change in language reflects a change in technology and its use. The acquisition of neologisms is important in that it helps speakers to keep current with technological vocabulary in that they will understand and be able to interact with others in discussions of such topics and use these technologies properly. These changes are important to the second-language learner, too. The language learner needs to be able to keep current with technological vocabulary in the foreign language as well for two reasons. They need to be able to describe products and concepts that pertain to their reality both in their native language and the target language and because the use of these technologies is international. The native speakers with which they interact will most likely use some or all of the same technologies. According to the
Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century, it is important that students acquire language skills that allow them to communicate in real contexts (2006, p. 39). To accomplish this, it is important to teach students literacy skills that allow them to communicate in situations that they are likely to encounter. The first step to teaching this kind of literacy is the introduction of these technologies in the conceptual sense, including their associated vocabulary. One of the objectives of this thesis is to show the necessity of the education of neologisms in the foreign language curriculum. There are two main reasons for that need: self-expression is central in the teaching of the target language because the goal of foreign language education is that students be able to use the target language efficiently and expressively in the various situations in which they may find themselves. In order to accomplish this goal, it is necessary to include concepts in the curriculum of a language that students use in their lives. This leads to the second point. As the needs of the language learner evolve, the foreign language curriculum must change to reflect those needs. The teaching of the target language is not stagnate because the needs of the student change with and often within each generation.

There is a strong relationship between changes in technology and students. Each generation is more and more technologically savvy. The specific demographic that the author has chosen is the college foreign language student because the textbooks that will be examined in terms of their presentation of new technologies and their associated vocabulary are college-level, first-year French and Spanish textbooks. While the discussion of the relevance of neologisms and the technological inventions that they describe is intended for this specific group, many of the arguments made will be
relevant for other groups—such as the high-school foreign language student and the adult language-learner. The reasons for this being that the high-school aged student is often at least technologically aware. In fact, the number of technologically adept students seems to increase with each generation. That is not to say, however, that all or even most students in high school or college are technologically literate. While the younger language learner may be enculturated into a tech-savvy world, the adult language learner may also interact with these technologies and media in the workplace with changing job descriptions that require the use of new technologies and at home to make life more efficient. Many in all three of these groups belong to the Net Generation, those born between 1977 and 1997. Members of the Net Generation often have at least basic technological literacy such as being able to use an MP3 player (McBride, 2009, p. 156). Many of the adult learners will be digital immigrants, or individuals who are not as technologically literate as their Net Generation counterparts because they did not grow up using technology. For instance, many of them began using networked computers as adults (Blattner & Williams, 2009, p. 268). In either case, the education of these technologies and their respective vocabulary is important because professional needs have shifted with changes in technology and because our culture has also changed in such a way that it may hinder the personal life of the user to not be completely literate.

Use of technology in the classroom is also important in that it enhances students' educational experience. They can research topics that interest them. They can play vocabulary and grammar games targeting the language being studied. They can find different language learning materials including authentic materials used by native speakers online to help in their study of the target language. They can also gain
linguistic and pragmatic insights by interacting with native speakers online through the
target language on social networking sites, in chat rooms, in forums etc. Students can see how the language is really used not just on a syntactic level, but also in terms of how native speakers expresses themselves: How direct they are, what types of topics they like to discuss, what questions or statements they find offensive or too personal, etc.
CHAPTER 2
FRENCH TECHNOLOGY-RELATED NEOLOGISMS

As mentioned in the introduction, the presentation of technological neologisms and their respective technologies is important in foreign language education because it reflects the linguistic needs of language learners in that it will help them be able to express themselves more effectively. Another advantage is the ability to communicate through these technologies with a native speaker to improve both linguistic and cultural competencies. For these reasons, it is important that what is taught to students be authentic to their communicative needs. The following sections contain neologisms that reflect these needs, words that commonly appear in the French language and that are often in the vocabulary of language learners in their native language through constant use of these technologies. Each of these sections describes the term in question, gives alternate terms that designate the same product and whether or not these variations are accepted or not. The variation noted in the dictionaries will be compared to the variation and the presentation of these terms in French and Spanish language textbooks in the chapters that follow.

2.1 Blog

The French equivalent given by the Office québécois de la langue française (OQLF) for the word blog is blogue. The definition they give is the following: “a website maintained by one or more bloggers who express themselves freely and with a certain periodicity, in the form of a post or articles, informative or personal, dated, formatted like
a log, signed and categorized in reverse chronological order, sometimes enriched with hyperlinks, images or sounds, and with a section in which readers may leave comments” (2009). While blogs are typically created by one blogger, there can be several. Blogs are characterized by their ease of publication, their editorial liberty, and the interpersonal nature with their readership. The author can publish his/her opinion and point of view freely on a variety of subjects. The different posts, articles, and the site itself may contain hyperlinks, photos, sounds, and other media that are embedded within. These links lead to other blogs and websites. From blogue, several other words were created to describe other aspects of this phenomenon using different parts of speech. These terms being: bloguer (to blog), blogueur (blogger), and blogage (blogging) (2009).

Other accepted terms are carnet Web and cybercarnet. The following terms are not accepted: blog, weblog, weblogue, journal Web, webjournal, joueb, jourel, bloc-notes, and bloc. Following the example of the term bogue (bug), the OQLF suggests the term blogue. The reason being that the OQLF preferred a word that followed the French rules of orthography and morphology, but that still reflected the popularity of the English word blog. The OQLF also rejected the word weblog (a combination of web and log) and its gallicization- weblogue. Journal Web and webjournal were also rejected as they may cause confusion with the other accepted terms since they both describe a journal published online and a blog. Joueb (a contraction of journal and web) as well as jourel (a contraction of journal and électronique) have not shown to be as popular as the term blogue. Jourel is also problematic in that it is also a surname. The other reasoning for the rejection of these terms is that an online journal is not the same as a blog. While
there may be similarities between the two types of sites, there are some innate
differences. An online journal is usually a digital diary in which the journal keeper relates
events from his/her personal life. Blogs typically have a focus or theme that they relate.
For instance, there are blogs about politics, entertainment, music etc (OQLF, 2009).

In 2005, the Commission générale de terminologie et de néologie (CGTN) of
France proposed the term bloc-notes and its abbreviated form bloc to be used in the
place of the English word blog. These terms were not chosen by the OQLF for several
reasons. They could not compete with the gallicization blogue, they were not precise
enough, and did not produce accompanying terms in other parts of speech as blogue
did (blogueur, bloguer, blogage). Moreover, the term bloc-notes is already used as a
technological term for the English term notebook, notebook computer, or laptop
because the dimensions tend to be similar to that of a sheet of paper. It is for that
reason that the term ordinateur bloc-notes exists. The term would also lead to confusion
in that Bloc-notes is also the name of a basic word processor in Windows (OQLF, 2009).

2.2 Podcast

The equivalent of a podcast or podcasting offered by the OQLF is balado and
baladodiffusion, respectively. The definition of podcasting is: “a way of broadcasting that
allows Internet users, through a subscription to RSS web feed or its equivalents (Atom,
for instance) to automatically download radio content, either audio or visual, designed to
be transferred to a digital music player to listen or watch later” (2009).

The OQLF supports the use of another term: baladiffusion. The OQLF proposed
these two portmanteaus in 2004 which are formed from the words *baladeur* (referencing the iPod) and *radiodiffusion*. O was added to the truncated form *balad* to form *baladodiffusion*. These terms were created based off a similar process used to create *radiodiffusion* (radio broadcasting), *télédiffusion* (television broadcasting), and *webdiffusion* (web broadcasting). The OQLF does not support the use of the following terms: *podiffusion*, *diffusion pour baladeur*, *balladodiffusion*, *balladiffusion*, *podcastage*, and *podcasting*. *Balladodiffusion* and *balladiffusion* are not supported because they are based off of the word *ballade*, a type of free-verse poem. As seen earlier, the OQLF prefers the terms that reference *baladeur*, an MP3 player, as this is the tool that supports podcasts. They also remain true to the English terms which also references the iPod (an MP3 player) and also to *podcast* and *podcasting* which are portmanteaus of *iPod* and *broadcast*. *Podcasting* and *podcastage* are also to be avoided due to the fact that they are portmanteaus created from a brand name: iPod. Also, *podcastage* is not considered to be integrated enough morphologically to be a French word. The CGTN proposed *diffusion pour baladeur* in 2006. It is not supported by the OQLF because it cannot be used to create words in other parts of speech, it is too specific and long, and not as popularly used as the term *baladodiffusion* (OQLF, 2009).

*Baladodiffusion* refers to the method of transmission or *podcasting*. The term designating the actual transmitted file is a *balado*, the French equivalent of a *podcast*. This same method of broadcasting is used in *diffusion RSS* (RSS broadcasting). The difference here, as exemplified in the creation of the terms used, is the use of an MP3 player or other digital media player (OQLF, 2009).
2.3 Internet

The French equivalent offered by the OQLF for Internet is: Internet. They give the following definition: 'the worldwide, technological network made up of a group of national, regional, and private networks linked together by the Internet Protocol Suite: TCP-IP to share information, exchange messages, multimedia files, and attachments' (1999, 2007).

The OQLF gives two synonyms: réseau Internet and Net. The orthographic variation internet is also recognized. The term is a portmanteau of Interconnected and Networks. The spelling with an upper-case I was initially supported as a way to show the unique nature of the Internet as a proper noun, in the same way as the Web. Recently, in the French press and online, the use of internet, with a lower-case i has become more common at it is subjected more and more to the rules of French morphology. Seeing as both spellings exist, the choice between the two denotes an attitude towards the Internet as being a unique entity and the internet as being just one of several media. The OQLF supports the use with an upper-case I over that with a lower-case i. Internet with an upper-case I remains invariable in the plural and can be reduced to the abbreviated form Net, also capitalized (OQLF, 2007).

There is variation in the prepositions used with the terms Net and Internet. The preposition sur is used when referring to the Internet as an information highway on which one surfs or travels. That is why the preposition sur (on) is often used with the verb surfer (to surf) when referring to the Internet. The preposition dans (in) is used when viewing the Internet in the same way as flying in a space in which one must navigate. It is for that reason that the preposition dans is often used with the verb
naviguer (to navigate). The preposition sur is used more than dans, even though it is ambiguous (at least when devoid of context or surrounded by little context) in that sur Internet can either mean about the Internet or on the Internet. For instance, the expression trouver un renseignement sur Internet can mean to find information on the Internet or to find information about the Internet (OQLF, 2007).

2.4 E-mail

The OQLF recommends the term courrier électronique for e-mail or electronic mail. The OQLF gives the following definition for courrier électronique: It is “a messaging utility that allows the exchange of messages through a computerized network” (2009). Accepted synonyms are: courriel and messagerie électronique. Courrier électronique and courriel can also be used to refer to a message sent using an online messaging system as well as the system itself (OQLF, “Courrier électronique” & “Courriel”, 2009). The reason for this is that the word courrier had already been used to describe the method of transportation of the message and the message itself, just as mail retains both connotations in English. Because the creation of neologisms is often an artificial process through which completely new words are often created by reusing old words, the different nuances of these words are often kept and considered in the creation process. In fact, these words may be chosen because several of these different shades of meaning can be used to describe different attributes of the new technology. Courriel was adopted by the CGTN in 2003. At the time of its adoption, the term was already quite widely used in Quebec and throughout the Francophone world (OQLF, “Courriel”, 2009).
Another synonym that refers to the message is: *message électronique*. While the term *messagerie Internet* is also an accepted term, it is not completely synonymous with the other terms in that it refers specifically to a messaging system that uses the Internet and not a smaller network as the others may also describe. *C. élec.* and *mél* are not considered to be synonyms either, but rather unpronounceable abbreviations to be used in writing, just as *Tél.* is used to represent *téléphone*. *Courriél* is not accepted either because the suffix -*iél* does not exist in French. It is also to be avoided because of the popularity of the word *courriel* and as a way of simplifying *courriél* because it does not require the accent. In 2003, the CGTN suggested the term *mél* be used, but not as a noun, only an abbreviation. The term has become quite popular despite the wishes of the CGTN; most likely due to the similarity of the term to the word *e-mail*, from which these other terms were modeled. With regards to the terms that refer to an e-mail message, *courriél* is to be avoided for the same reason as for the messaging service. *E-mail* and *mail* are to be avoided due to the fact that they are English borrowings that have not suffered any changes to apply French morphological norms. Despite the OQLF's rejection of these two terms, they remain quite popular in France. *Courriélec*, another portmanteau of *courrier* and *électronique*, is not supported due to the popularity of the word *courriel* (OQLF, “Courrier électronique”, 2009).

2.5 Chat

A chat is an online conversation that is realized in a chat room or instant messaging utility. Some of the main attributes of this kind of communication are the fact that it is synchronous communication, does not take place face-to-face, and is written
communication using a keyboard. It is for that reason that all of the terms accepted by
the OQLF include a term or are formed using a term that either references the keyboard
(clavier) or the Internet (cyber= cyber, en ligne= online) and chat (bavardage). The
accepted terms are: clavardage (the main term provided), bavardage-clavier,
cyberbavardage, bavardage en ligne. The OQLF proposed all three of these terms in
1997. Clavardage is a portmanteau of clavier and bavardage. The OQLF prefers the
term cyberbavardage in that it describes the fact that the conversation takes place in
cyberspace. The OQLF would like to note that only the standard definition of bavardage
(chat) is to be taken from these neologisms, not the secondary connotation that exists in
Quebec-- to have an affair. In 2006, the CGTN proposed the term dialogue en ligne to
replace causette (French for chat), which appeared in 1999. Nevertheless, the OQLF
does not support the usage of these two terms as well as two others: tchate and
tchatche. Tchate and tchatche are borrowings from the English chat that have been
modified to reflect the French rules of morphology and pronunciation. Even with the
modified forms of the word chat, the OQLF prefers the term clavardage overall because
it is the most widely used and because the terms used to create the portmanteau are
French in origin (OQLF, 2009).

2.6 Conclusions about Variation in French Neologisms

Both the OQLF and the CGTN favor either gallicizing English terms that already
exist for these technologies or creating terms using French words that already exist.
Gallicization requires changing the English term to reflect French rules of pronunciation
and morphology. Creating compound words and portmanteaus using French words
requires choosing terms that have the same nuances as their English equivalents to create completely new terms using words that are native to French and, therefore, already reflect French language structure. There are several reasons to favor these kinds of words over simply borrowing words from English. With terms created with or made to follow French norms, it is substantially easier for the user to know how to use the term in various contexts. For instance, the user knows that the plural for balado would be balados or that the verb bloguer conjugates like a regular -ER verb in French. These terms are also easier to use because they avoid awkward vowel and consonant clusters that may be problematic for speakers of French. For these organizations, the stability of the French language may be in question. These organizations may seek to limit the number of borrowings introduced into French to keep a balance of words of French origin to borrowings. In any case, even though French equivalents are proposed by the OQLF and the CGTN, many of original English terms remain in use and may even be more popular—such is the case with blog and mail (e-mail).
CHAPTER 3
SPANISH TECHNOLOGY-RELATED NEOLOGISMS

This section will analyze Spanish terms that are used to describe new technologies. Many of these terms are based off of their English counterparts in some way, either through lexical influences or modifications applied to English words phonetically and morphologically to approximate Spanish language structure. Better said, many of the Spanish terms are created by using Spanish words that already exist to make up portmanteaus and compound words or by modifying the English term to be more user-friendly for the Spanish speaker. In either case, the new terms often exist as a way to avoid using English words.

3.1 Blog

The term for blog proposed by the *Diccionario panhispánico de dudas* of the Real Academia Española is: *bitácora*. *Bitácora* or *cuaderno de bitácora* are terms that would translate as *logbook* in English (2005). In its original use, this term was used to describe the log of a ship, a record all the things that happen on a ship during its voyage; such as matters relating to the course, the speed, the crew, and accidents and issues that occurred. While the term itself does not contain a component that reflects the digital nature of this type of writing, the definition includes example sentences and ways of clarifying the term from its traditional use. For instance, it gives this sentence from *El País*, a Spanish newspaper, as an example of its usage: 'Los corresponsales de guerra italianos ofrecen nuevas perspectivas del conflicto iraquí a través de sus cuadernos de
bitácora en Internet (2005). In English: “The Italian war correspondents offer new perspectives on the Iraqi conflict through their blogs on the Internet” (2005). The term they used for blog in this case was: cuadernos de bitácora en Internet (logbooks on the Internet). The qualifier on the Internet was most likely used to distinguish the term blog from, perhaps, the personal notes of the Italian correspondents. The Real Academia also offers the following terms as more descriptive translations: ciberbitácora and ciberdiario. These terms are more descriptive in that they both describe the online nature of blogs through the inclusion of the word ciber, making it clear that it exists in cyberspace (2005). As with several French neologisms, the Spanish equivalents were created by taking English words and conforming them to Spanish rules of morphology and using words that already exist in the Spanish language. For instance, both ciberbitácora and ciberdiario contain the word ciber, a modified version of the English word cyber because the letter y does not often occur between consonants in Spanish. The second half of each of these terms is a Spanish word. Diario and bitácora are words that already exist in Spanish. Diario is a word that can mean (daily) newspaper or a diary/journal. These different nuances reflect the public nature of this type of writing, the fact that these writings are published, and the fact that the writings tend to be quite personal, reflecting the author’s opinions and even emotions or feelings on the chosen topic.

Despite the existence of a Spanish term, the word blog still tends to be quite popular online; so much so that it has spawned the borrowing/creation of different terms relating to blogs such as: blogger/blogero/bloguero, blogosfera/blogósfera, fotolog/fotoblog, bloguear, blogonimia, blogalifóbica, and tumblelog. A blogger, blogero,
or bloguero is someone who creates and maintains a blog. The blogosfera or blogósfera is the world of blogging. A fotolog or fotoblog is a blog with entries that are mostly pictures, but may contain titles, captions, commentaries by the author, and a message board. The verb bloguear means to blog. Blogonimia is the study of the origin of words and titles used by bloggers on their blogs. Blogalifóbica is a term used to describe businesses or organizations that do not allow their employees to have blogs. As the suffix -fóbica indicates, it is in a sense a/an (unrealistic) fear of blogs. A tumblelog is a site that is similar to a blog, but not as structured. The English equivalent is a microblog. These sites often do not have as much on them. They may have links, files posted, and short postings (Wikipedia, 2010).

3.2 Podcast

The words podcast and podcasting are not available in the Real Academia Española Diccionario panhispánico de dudas, nor is there a translation given on Wordreference.com®. The Spanish equivalent given by Podcastellano.es® is: podcasting for the broadcasting of files and podcast for the file itself. Both words are masculine in Spanish. In several different places throughout the site on links and in articles, the plural podcasts is given. Unlike the word chatear, the word has not been altered morphologically to match the norms of written Spanish. In order for the term to do so, the ending -es would have to be added, instead of just -s to form the plural. Masculine words in Spanish that end in a consonant require this ending to make them plural. Both the singular and the plural forms are directly borrowed from English without any orthographic changes. A reason may be that the verb chatear needs to have a Spanish
ending so that the speaker can conjugate it using Spanish endings; whereas the word podcast would not have as many inflections: just podcast and podcasts. There are other words derived from podcast that can be found on this site as well. Podcastera refers to the world of podcasting. A podcaster is a person who makes podcasts (2011).

3.3 Internet

The RAE gives the the following definition for Internet: “Red mundial de computadoras u ordenadores interconectados mediante un protocolo especial de comunicación” (2005). In the definition, the author notes variation in usage by providing two of the most common terms for computer: computadora (Latin American Spanish) and ordenador (Spain). The translation would be: “worldwide web of computers or computers connected through a special communication protocol” (2005). Since it is considered a proper noun, it is written with an upper-case I, and used without an article.

'Instalarán cabinas públicas con acceso a Internet' (2005). The translation of this sentence from Nacional, a Venezuelan newspaper, is: “[They] will install public booths with access to [the] Internet” (2005). If a determiner is ever used, the feminine form is preferred in that it references the Spanish word red, meaning network, which is feminine. As with chat and chatear, the pronunciation of Internet has been modified to reflect Spanish norms. The accent has been moved to the last syllable- [internét]. With regards to surfing online, the following expressions are commonly used: navegar en la red, navegar en Internet, and navegar por Internet. On Yahoo! España Respuestas, the Spanish version of Yahoo! Answers, an Internet user asked why the verb navegar is used in Spanish. Two users explained that surfing on the Internet is like sailing on an
ocean or a sea. Another user explained that it is because one flies through cyberspace. In terms of the choice between the prepositions _por_ and _en_, the choice seems to be determined by how one views the Internet. One would use _en_ if one considers the Internet to be an ocean or sea on which one sails. If one thinks of it as this virtual atmosphere through which one flies, the preposition _por_ would be more appropriate. In this case, the preposition _en_ would mean _on_ and _por_, _through_ (2011). The prepositional phrase _de Internet_ is the Spanish equivalent of _of/from/about the Internet_ or as an adjective in expressions such as: _Glosario de Internet_ (_Internet Glossary_) or _Curso de Internet_ (_Internet Course_) (Yahoo! España, 2011). The phrase _a Internet_ means _to the Internet_. For example, there are sites entitled _Addición a Internet_ (_Addiction to the Internet_) and _Conexión a Internet_ (_Connection to the Internet_) (Yahoo! España, 2011).

3.4 E-mail

The term _correo electrónico_ does not appear in the _Diccionario panhispánico de dudas_. Neither does the term _correo-e_. Wordreference.com gives the following Spanish equivalents for _e-mail_ (system): _correo electrónico_ and _email_. Another possibility found online is _correo-e_. For the term that refers to the message, it gives the following: _correo electrónico_, _emilio_, and _email_. The entry notes that the use of the term _emilio_ is familiar (2011). _Correo electrónico_ and _correo-e_ are literal translations for _electronic mail_ and _e-mail_ respectively. Both _electronic_ and _mail_ are translated literally and the abbreviation _e_ is hyphenated in both _e-mail_ and _correo-e_.

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3.5 Chat

When searching for the term *chatear* *(to chat)*, the term *chat* was given by the RAE from the *Diccionario panhispánico de dudas*. The definition given by the Real Academia is: “a conversation between between people connected on the Internet, through the exchange of electronic messages and more frequently the service which supports this type of conversation” (2005). The term is masculine in Spanish and the plural is *chats*. Both the singular and plural forms are kept just as they are in English. The words are not changed to follow Spanish rules with regards to morphology and plurality, just as they were not for the term *podcast*. However, they are pronounced following Spanish rules of pronunciation. That is because only words of foreign origin end in *t* in Spanish and words that end in a consonant in the singular form in Spanish form their plural form by adding -*es*.

The article goes on to say that the English borrowing is accepted, but other Spanish terms are also available: *cibercharla* and *ciberplática*. *Ciber* of course makes reference to cyberspace. The *y* has been changed to an *i* to reflect Spanish norms of orthography. The second part of both terms are essentially the same, both *charla* and *plática* mean *chat* or *conversation*. *Chatear* is a term derived from the borrowing *chat*. This term is also completely acceptable, but is different from the noun *chat* in that it has undergone changes to follow norms of Spanish words. It is more important for *chatear* to reflect Spanish usage in that it is a verb and needs to be structured in such a way that it can be conjugated. The definition offered by the Real Academia for the verb is: “to maintain a conversation through the exchange of electronic messages” (2005).
3.6 Conclusions about Variation in Spanish Neologisms

As in French, Spanish technological neologisms are often created as a way of avoiding the use of the English term that already exists. For that reason, the terms used to create these neologisms often have some relationship not only with the technology that they describe, but also the English term that they are replacing. In both courriel or courrier électronique and correo electrónico or correo-e, these terms describe e-mail or electronic mail in that they follow the same formation and use similar components. All of these terms have a version that is a compound word (electronic mail, correo electrónico, and courrier électronique) and portmanteaus created based off of the compound words (e-mail, correo-e, and courriel). Not to mention, the components of the French and Spanish neologisms are literal translations of the electronic and mail. The same phenomenon is seen with the Spanish term for blog: bitácora. Bitácora is the term that describes a log used to chart the operations of a ship or other endeavor. Since the word blog is a portmanteau of web and log, the variations of bitácora: ciberbitácora and ciberdiaario are closer translations in that they also contain an element that describes the Internet: ciber.
CHAPTER 4

THE PRESENTATION OF VOCABULARY RELATED TO NEW TECHNOLOGIES IN TEXTBOOKS

In evaluating the presentation and usage of vocabulary related to new technologies in the foreign language classroom, one should consult the vocabulary presented in foreign language textbooks. The reason being that many programs, both in high school and college, tend to be textbook based in that these texts serve as the main resource of vocabulary, grammar, and culture for the course. That being said, the amount of new technological vocabulary and the amount of variation in terms of which terms are presented in the foreign language classroom is often directly related to the choice of text. In this chapter, the presentation of technological neologisms is compared between eight different, first-year foreign language textbooks: four French and four Spanish. Comparisons will be made both between specific textbooks and between textbooks of different languages (French and Spanish).

4.1 New Technological Vocabulary in French Textbooks

In three of the four textbooks consulted (French Textbooks 1, 3, and 4), a fair amount of technological vocabulary was presented. These textbooks contained at least thirty terms related to technology, whereas the fourth textbook (French Textbook 2) only contained four: *le vidéo (video), le DVD (DVD), l'ordinateur (computer), and la technologie (technology)* (2006, p. 206 & p. 446). Conceptually, the vocabulary
presented in the three texts is quite similar. There is an emphasis on the computer and
it accessories (printers, wireless connections, monitors, etc.), DVD’s and DVD players,
and music (CD’s, CD players, and MP3 players). There is some variation in the choice
of terms, but the focus remains the same. Some of the variation is due to the lexical
variation of certain terms. For instance, there was variation in the different textbooks
that presented the word e-mail. Another kind of variation is from the usage of associated
terms that are presented to qualify a given term. For instance, two textbooks presented
the terms printer (imprimante) and mouse (souris). French Textbook 1 presents
multifunction printer (imprimante multifunction) and wireless mouse (souris sans fil)
(2010, p. 455). French Textbook 4 presented the terms without any qualifiers
([imprimante] and [souris]) (2008, p. 260).

There is some variation in the choice of terminology to designate a given
technology or application. For instance, French Textbook 1 uses the term baladeur MP3
to designate MP3 player (2010, p. 455); whereas French Textbook 4 uses the term
baladeur iPod® (2008, p. 94). The other two textbooks do not have this term at all. This
means that there is some variation in the specific products presented as well. French
Textbook 2 does not have any terms for music players and French Textbook 3 only has
the word for tape recorder (magnétophone) (2010, p. 362). Various terms for e-mail
appear within three of the texts. French Textbook 1 presents un e-mail (an e-mail
message) and le courrier électronique (e-mail [referring to the message sending utility])
362). French Textbook 4 presents several terms: le courriel, le mél, and le courrier
It does not, however, present a term for an e-mail message. French Textbook 1 even goes as far as to give an example of an e-mail on a different page, including a screenshot that includes various icons and fields in French that exist in an e-mail. These fields being from, to, date, subject (2010, p. 161). The authors accomplished this by having one version of the e-mail in French, and the other in English.

Terms that the textbook authors tend to neglect relate to the various types of online communities and web pages that the student will most likely use. These terms being: social networking site, blog, podcast, discussion form, chat etc. However, while French Textbook 4 does not explicitly present the term blog in its vocabulary, each chapter is accompanied by a vlog or video blog. The term presented is vidéoblog from the example Le vidéoblog de Léa (2008, p. 55). The accompanying text presents other terms such as computer(ordinateur) folder (dossier) and blog (blogue) in this same, passive way (2008, p. 30). While the authors of this text did not explicitly teach these terms, their presentation with the associated media could be quite effective if the teacher makes an effort to point them out to students. This is the only text that makes an effort to acknowledge the importance and existence of new technologies and their applications throughout the textbook. While French Textbooks 1 and 3 present a great deal of vocabulary, they fall short in showing their uses and applications in the life activities of students and in learning the foreign language. On the other hand, all four textbooks embrace the use of different media and technologies through their ancillaries. French Textbook 1 gives videos to watch to do certain activities. French Textbook 2 has notes in the margins of certain pages referencing the CD-ROM, the DVD, the workbook activities, and the online materials that come with the text. French Textbook 3 gives
references the online materials for extra practice and answers to certain exercises. French Textbook 4 has several pages that detail the various ancillaries at the student's disposal in their various media both in the first few pages of the text and in the margins of select pages.

4.2 New Technological Vocabulary in Spanish Textbooks

There is some variation in the choice of vocabulary presented in Spanish textbooks. The kinds of technologies represented is the same as seen in the French textbooks. There is vocabulary related to the computer, the Internet, and music players. One of the notable differences is the variation of specific terms. In the Spanish textbooks, there is little lexical variation. For instance, the term used to designate e-mail was correo electrónico in Spanish Textbook 1, 3, and 4. While Spanish Textbook 2 did not give a term for e-mail in the vocabulary lists, it did give an example of an e-mail in Spanish with all of the associated vocabulary for writing and sending an e-mail in Spanish on the example with terms such as enviar and e-mail (2009, p. 70). Spanish Textbook 3 also provided an excerpt about e-mails with the associated term e-milios to mean e-mails (2008, p. 70). One notable kind of variation was that of presenting different dialects and not the choice of different terms within a given dialect. For instance, Spanish Textbook 1 gives both computadora and and ordenador as terms designating computer (2009, p. 384). Computadora is the term used in Central and South America; whereas ordenador is used in Spain. There was one textbook that contained hardly any vocabulary related to new technologies and new media: Spanish Textbook 2. Spanish Textbook 1, 3, and 4 each presented well over thirty terms.
Spanish Textbooks 3 and 4 each had over forty terms.

4.3 Summary of the Presentation of New Technologies in Foreign Language Textbooks

There are very few differences between the Spanish and French textbooks with regards to their presentations of vocabulary related to new technologies. One difference is that the Spanish textbooks consulted tended to have around ten more vocabulary words. The increased number of verbs and adjectives related to the new technologies accounted for the difference. Also, the difference in the choice of vocabulary was different in Spanish textbooks. The one example of variation: the choice of *ordenador* or *computadora* to say *computer* was due to the lexical differences between peninsular and Latin American Spanish. In the French textbooks, there was two kinds of variation: the variation based on the personal choice of the authors and lexical variation. For instance, the choice between *MP3 player* (*baladeur MP3*) and *iPod®* (*baladeur iPod®*). This choice is not determined by the dialect in question. The choice between the terms could be that the authors of French Textbook 1 think that MP3 player is a more general term that applies to all MP3 players and not just those made by Apple®. The authors of French Textbook 4 could be thinking of the popularity of the iPod® and use this brandnomer as a metonym for *MP3 player*. Also, several different terms were presented for *e-mail*, such as: *courrier électronique, courriel, mél*, and *e-mail*, the choice most likely reflecting what the author considers to be most common and possibly most correct or accepted by organizations such as the OQLF or the CGTN.
The first step in teaching technological literacy is the presentation of these technologies and media on the conceptual level in describing them and their uses through the vocabulary that describe them. The next step for the language educator is to teach the target language through the different media in the target language. *The European Common Framework* speaks of the importance of being plurilingual within the context of a world that is becoming more and more interconnected as a way of redefining our identities in a world were social groups are mixing more and more (2001, p. 1). The New London Group speaks of the importance of mastering different modes of expression and pragmatics in order to be successful in the changing workplace (1996). It is the responsibility of the teacher to help the student gain these pragmatic and linguistic competencies because without these, the likelihood of success in the workplace diminishes greatly. Two of the catalysts for change in interlingual communication and communication in the workplace is the increased role of new technologies in communication within and between different companies both domestically and abroad.

The first step towards proper use and the mastering of these technologies is learning the associated terminology. In teaching these terms, the language educator should consult a wide range of materials and media to introduce them. While several of the French and Spanish textbooks published within the past two years contain a lot of
terminology related to new technologies; these lists tend to not be exhaustive. These lists often contain words relating to the computer, some Internet terminology, and possibly some terminology relating to MP3 players while often neglecting terminology regarding social networking sites and certain types of online communities and other media found online such as podcasts. If such deficiencies exist, it is up to educators to provide additional opportunities to acquire such vocabulary. For instance, they can present these terms in a list. They can also provide readings, video clips, and activities using other media that incorporate these terms. In fact, language educators can find authentic materials (or realia) related to the various topics that they want the student to learn. Probably the most effective way to teach this type of vocabulary is to teach the student how to use these new technologies. Many of them can be found on the Internet and many of them are free. For example, edited and simplified podcasts that are designed for the language classroom are available online as well as those created for native speakers.

Teaching neologisms through the use of the new technologies and new media is a very effective way to teach the terminology related to different new technologies in that it not only helps to reinforce the target term, but it helps students to expand their own definition of the product by understanding its various facets and uses. Students can learn from a definition or description provided by a teacher or article that a social networking site is:

A website that allows subscribers to interact, typically by requesting that others add them to their visible list of contacts, by forming or joining sub-groups based around shared interests, or publishing content so that a specified group of
subscribers can access it. (Dictionary.com, 2009)

The problem with these definitions is that they tend to be vague and do not fully describe the product in question because new technologies often perform a variety of functions or perform them in a very unique, specialized way. For instance, the above definition of social networking sites says that on these sites, people interact, they join groups, share their interests, and publish content (2009). The definition is vague in that it does not describe how this type of website manages to accomplish all of these things. It also does not specify the kind of content, all of the ways that these different internauts can interact, and the organization of the groups and subgroups. The most comprehensive way to teach all of these is for the teacher to have students interact with the invention in question on their own. By having hands-on experience, students learn exactly how each of the different parts of the product work and can be manipulated to perform a variety of functions. In that way, students internalize what the product is and creates their own definition of the invention. That is to say that both the technology and its related vocabulary become more relevant to students both in their native language and the target language and they have a more complete view of what it is. Here are some examples of technologies to incorporate and how to incorporate them: Students could post messages on a blog or create one of their own. Students could listen to podcasts in the target language and learn how to either download or stream them. These podcasts could either be unadulterated emissions designated for native speakers or educational podcasts designed for language students.

Another reason to have students interact with these new technologies is so that they have meaningful interactions with new technologies. The use of technology is
important for students on a social level, an educational level, and for their potential in the workplace. In terms of social applications, students will gain new ways to interact not only with their friends, but also with native speakers of the target language all over the world. This means more opportunities for students to use the target language in an authentic way. Teachers have been doing this for years by having students write letters and more recently e-mails to pen pals abroad. Another activity teachers could have their students do is create a vlog (videoblog) of their classroom and their school so that their pen pals can see what they are like and the nature of education in their country.

Teachers can also have their students interact with penpals online in chat rooms. The students get to help their pen pals with their English, while the pen pal helps them with the language they are studying. This leads to the next point. These technologies can be used for more than learning these technologies, their associated terms, and their respective literacies. These technologies can be used to better acquire the target language.

Technological tools to learn a new language are not a new thing. From the Pimsler Method on cassette tape and CD, to CD-Rom tools such as Rosetta Stone and other CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) utilities have been in use for decades (Koike & Klee, 2003, p. 91). New technologies encourage language study in a number of ways. The difference from these and more traditional technological language learning materials is the fact that these are not necessarily designed with language learning in mind. For instance, chat rooms were not created for people to practice a foreign language. Even still, there are now websites where people can meet up for language exchanges and help each other learn a new language. Similarly, podcasts
with language learners in mind were created after podcasts for native speakers became popular. Podcasts with topics and a level of language appropriate for the language learner are popping up everywhere. Another difference is that these new technologies often times do not require buying extra materials or being in a language lab. Also, the skills learned in using them will have repercussions that go beyond the language classroom. These are skills that are often needed in other classes and possibly the workplace.

Technological skills are helpful and increasingly necessary in the workplace. E-mail and the use of different software such as digital gradebooks have become the norm in the workplace to increase productivity. The implementation of these tools requires a new skill set. Changes in technology often lead to changes in job descriptions. In order to better help our students be prepared for their other classes, college, and future jobs; steps need to be put in place that encourage literacy in new technologies and their respective media. While it is impossible to know which of these skills will be useful for students in the future, it is possible to know which of these skills would be useful for students during their studies. Being able to do research for classes on the Internet and creating Power Point presentations have become commonplace expectations in middle school and high school. Several of these basic uses are listed in different standards of the Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century. Educators can of course envision the tools and skills that would most likely be useful in their classrooms. What may be more effective would be for educators to start with considering the tools and skills listed in sources such as the Standards. From there educators would do well to consider technology use and technological literacies in both
horizontal and vertical planning. In terms of vertical planning, educators would meet with teachers of the same content area (French, Spanish, German etc.) at all levels to see what the technological and literacy needs of the students are throughout their language education. In terms of horizontal planning, the educator would meet with educators in different content areas to see what the needs of students are in different disciplines in the same grade, and possibly others. Students benefits when their educational needs are supported and reinforced at different levels and within different content areas. Also, this expanded view of the needs of students makes it easier to determine the content and acquisition goals at each step of students' education. This leads to a key point in language education and education in general- it is necessary to change education as the needs of students change to help them become successful in their future education and work endeavors. In other words, changes in personal and professional life expectations should trickle down into education. Educational practices always need to reflect the current and future needs of students. The call to include technology, technological terms, and an expanded view of literacy in the classroom fall under a bigger idea- the idea that education should always reflect the needs of students. If those needs are not met, education must change in order to be effective.
APPENDIX A

FRENCH TEXTBOOK 1 VOCABULARY (CHEZ NOUS)
p. 455
1. un ordinateur (un ordi)- computer
2. un baladeur MP3- MP3 player
3. un clavier- keyboard
4. une clé USB- USB drive
5. un graveur CD/DVD- CD/DVD burner
6. un disque dur- hard drive
7. une imprimante (multifonction)- a (multifunction) printer
8. un lecteur CD/DVD- CD/DVD player
9. un lien- link
10. la messagerie instantanée- instant messaging
11. un moniteur (avec un écran plat)- a monitor (with a flat screen)
12. un ordinateur portable- laptop
13. un PDA- PDA (personal digital assistant)
14. un scanner- scanner
15. une souris (sans fil)- (wireless) mouse
16. une webcam- webcam

pour travailler à l'ordinateur
1. un clip (vidéo)- video clip
2. une connection sans fil- wireless connection
3. un e-mail- an e-mail message
4. le courrier électronique- e-mail
5. en ligne- online
6. envoyer- to send
7. un fichier- document
8. imprimer- to print
9. un logiciel- software
10. multimédia- multimedia
11. une pièce jointe- attachment
12. recevoir- to receive
13. la recherche- a search
14. un réseau (sans fil), Wi-Fi- a Wi-Fi, wireless network
15. retoucher- to retouch sauvegarder- to save
16. surfer sur Internet- to surf the Internet
17. un site Web- a website
18. télécharger- to download (2010).
APPENDIX B

FRENCH TEXTBOOK 2 VOCABULARY (PAROLES)
p. 206

1. le DVD - DVD
2. le vidéo - video

p. 446

1. l'ordinateur - computer
APPENDIX C

FRENCH TEXTBOOK 3 VOCABULARY (ESPACES)
1. allumer- to turn on
2. composer (un numéro)- to dial (a number)
3. démarrer- to start up, boot up
4. effacer- to erase
5. enregistrer- to record
6. éteindre- to turn off
7. être connecté(e) (avec)- to be connected with
8. être en ligne (avec)- to be online with
9. fermer- to close
10. fonctionner/marcher- to work, function
11. graver- to record
12. imprimer- to print
13. sauvegarder- to save
14. surfer sur Internet- to surf the Internet
15. télécharger- to download
16. un CD-ROM/un cédérom (CD-ROM/cédéroms pl.)- CD-ROM(s)
17. un e-mail- an e-mail message
18. un fichier- a document
19. un jeu vidéo (jeux vidéo pl.)- video game(s)
20. un logiciel- software
21. un mot de passe- password
22. une page d'accueil- home page
23. un site Internet/web- website
24. un appareil photo (numérique)- a (digital) camera
25. une caméra vidéo/un caméscope- a camcorder
26. une chaîne (de télévision)- a (television) channel
27. une chaîne stéréo- a stereo
28. un disque dur- a hard drive
29. un lecteur (de) DVD- a DVD player
APPENDIX D

FRENCH TEXTBOOK 4 VOCABULARY (VIS-À-VIS)
1. un téléphone- telephone
2. des CD (m.)- CD's
3. une chaîne stéréo- stereo
4. un ordinateur- computer
5. un baladeur iPod®- iPod®
6. un lecteur de CD/DVD- CD/DVD player
7. un mobile- cell phone
8. un portable- cell phone, laptop

Les nouvelles technologies p. 260
1. un assistant numérique (un PDA)- PDA (personal digital assistant)
2. un appareil (photo) numérique- a (digital) camera
3. un caméscope- camcorder
4. un lecteur de CD- CD player
5. des CD (m.)- CD's
6. le clavier- keyboard
7. le moniteur, l'écran- screen
8. la souris- mouse
9. un ordinateur de bureau (de table)- desktop computer
10. un micro (un micro-ordinateur)- a laptop
11. un ordinateur portable (un portable)- a laptop
12. une imprimante- printer
13. un scanner- scanner
14. un baladeur iPOD® (un iPOD®)- iPod®
15. le browser- browser
16. cliquer sur- to click on
17. une connexion ADSL- DSL connection
18. le courriel, le mél- e-mail
19. le fichier- document
20. Internet (m.) (sur Internet)- Internet, on the Internet
21. le logiciel- software
22. un photocopieur- photocopier
23. le site- (web)site
24. surfer le Web- to surf the Web
25. télécharger- to download
26. un téléphone multimédia- data phone
27. le traitement de texte- word processing
28. le Web- the Web
29. le Wi-fi- Wi-fi

p. 263
1. le journal télévisé/les informations (f. pl.)- news program
2. une retransmission sportive- a sport's broadcast
3. un documentaire- a documentary
4. une émission de musique- a music broadcast
5. un jeu télévisé- a game show
6. une publicité- an advertisement

Autres mots utiles p. 263
1. le câble- cable (television)
2. une chaîne- channel
3. un DVD (des DVD)- DVD(s)
4. une émission de télé réalité- a reality TV show
5. un feuilleton- soap opera
6. un lecteur de DVD- DVD player
7. une série télévisée- a televised series
8. une télécommande- a remote control
9. la télévision satellite- satellite television
10. la TNT (télévision numérique terrestre)- Digital Terrestrial Television (DTTV or DTT)

Internet un monde vaste! p. 283
1. appuyer- to press/push a key
2. (re)lier- to link
3. une base de données- database
4. une carte vidéo- video card
5. le courrier électronique- e-mail
6. un clic- click
7. un dossier- document, file
8. un fournisseur d'accès- Internet provider
9. un graveur de CD/DVD- CD/DVD burner
10. un lien- a link
11. le matériel- hardware
12. la mémoire- memory
13. un message- message
14. un moteur de recherche- search engine
15. une page d'accueil- home page
16. un port USB- USB port
17. un répertoire- directory
18. un réseau- network
19. une station d'amarrage- USB port
APPENDIX E

SPANISH TEXTBOOK 1 VOCABULARY (PUNTOS DE PARTIDA)
1. la calculadora - calculator
2. la computadora - computer

Vocabulario Preparación: Tengo... Necesito... Quiero... (Part 3) p. 384
1. el lector de DVD - DVD player
2. la televisión - television
3. el estéreo - stereo
4. el radio (portátil) - radio, (walkman)
5. la impresora - printer
6. el ratón - mouse
7. la computadora/el ordenador - computer
8. la cinta - tape
9. el contestador automático - answering machine
10. el correo electrónico - e-mail
11. el disco duro - hard drive
12. el equipo - equipment
13. la grabadora - (tape) recorder/player
14. la pantalla (grande/plana) - (big/flat) screen
15. la Red - Net
16. la videocasetera - videocassette recorder/player (VCR)
17. almacenar - to store, save
18. cambiar (de canal, de cuarto, de ropa) - to change (channel, room, clothing)
19. conseguir - to obtain
20. copiar/hacer copia - to copy
21. fallar - to “crash” (computer)
22. funcionar - to work, function
23. grabar - to record, to tape
24. guardar - to keep, save (documents)
25. imprimir - to print
26. instalar - to install
27. mandar - to send
28. manejar - to drive, operate (a machine)
29. navegar (gu) la Red - to surf the Net
30. obtener (like tener) - to get, obtain
31. sacar fotos - to take photos
32. el archivo - (computer) file (2009).
APPENDIX F

SPANISH TEXTBOOK 2 VOCABULARY (¡ANDA!)
La residencia p. 77
1. el radio/la radio- radio/radio broadcast
2. el despertador- alarm clock
3. el reloj- clock, watch
4. el televisor- television set
5. el DVD- DVD
6. la computadora- computer
7. los discos compactos (los CD)- CD
8. la calculadora- calculator

Otras palabras útiles
1. el reproductor de CD/DVD- CD/DVD player

p. 173
1. grabar- to record
2. sacar un CD- to release a CD (2009).
APPENDIX G

SPANISH TEXTBOOK 3 VOCABULARY (¡ARRIBA!)
1. la calculadora- calculator

La computadora y los aparatos electrónicos p. 399
1. la antena parabólica- satellite dish
2. la computadora portátil- laptop
3. el disco duro- hard drive
4. el disquete- floppy disc
5. el DVD- DVD
6. el escáner- scanner
7. la fotocopiadora- photocopier
8. la impresora- printer
9. el lector CD/DVD- CD/DVD player
10. la pantalla- screen
11. el ratón- mouse
12. el teclado- keyboard
13. el teléfono móvil/celular- cell phone
14. la videograbadora- VCR

Otros aparatos electrónicos (other electronic appliances)
1. el cajero automático- ATM machine
2. el contestador automático- answering machine
3. el teléfono inalámbrico- cordless phone

Recursos en la computadora (Resources on the computer)
1. el correo electrónico- e-mail
2. la hoja electrónica- spreadsheet
3. el hipervínculo/el enlace- hyperlink
4. el juego electrónico- computer (electronic) game
5. la Red informática- Internet
6. el sitio web/la página web- web site/web page

Verbos (Verbs)
1. apagar- to turn off
2. archivar- to file, save
3. borrar- to erase
4. encender (ie)- to turn on
5. fotocopiar- to photocopy
6. funcionar- to function, work
7. grabar- to record
8. imprimir- to print
9. instalar- to install
10. programar- to program
Adjetivos (Adjectives)
1. electrónico/a- electronic
2. tecnológico/a- technological

Otras palabras y expresiones (Other words and expressions)
1. el diseño- design
2. la marca- brand

La televisión y la radio p. 441
1. el canal- channel
2. el concurso- game show, pageant
3. la emisora- radio station (business entity)
4. la estación de radio- radio station
5. el noticero- newscast
6. la telenovela- soap opera
7. la televisión por cable- cable TV
8. la televisión por satélite- satellite TV
9. la televisión en directo, en vivo- live (on television)

Verbos (Verbs)
1. informar- to report
2. patrocinar- to sponsor
3. revisar- to check
APPENDIX H

SPANISH TEXTBOOK 4 VOCABULARY (AVENTURAS)
1. un mensaje electrónico- an e-mail message
2. leer el correo electrónico- to read e-mail
3. sacar fotos

El carro y la tecnología (Car and Technology) p. 281
1. el televisor- TV set
2. la calculadora- calculator
3. la computadora- computer
4. el monitor- monitor
5. el ratón- mouse
6. la cámara (de video)
7. la impresora- printer
8. el teclado- keyboard

Internet y la computadora (Internet and Computer)
1. el archivo- file
2. la computadora portátil- laptop
3. el disco- disk
4. Internet- Internet
5. el módem- modem
6. la página principal- home page
7. la pantalla- screen
8. el programa de computación- software
9. la red- the Web, the Internet
10. el sitio Web- website
11. guardar- to save
12. imprimir- to print
13. navegar en Internet- to surf the Internet

La tecnología (Technology)
1. la cinta- tape
2. la contestadora- answering machine
3. el control remoto- remote control
4. el disco compacto- CD, compact disc
5. el estéreo- stereo
6. el fax- fax
7. el radio- radio (set)
8. el reproductor de DVD- DVD player
9. el teléfono celular- cell phone
10. la televisión por cable- cable television
11. el tocadiscos compacto- compact disc player
12. el videocasete- videocassette
13. la videocasetera - VCR
14. apagar - to turn off
15. funcionar - to work, function
16. llamar - to call
17. poner - to turn on
18. prender - to turn on
19. sonar (o:ue) - to ring

Adjetivos (Adjectives)

1. descompuesto/a - not working, out of order
2. lento/a - slow
3. lleno/a - full (2007).
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