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A Proposal for Language Teaching in Translator Training Programmes Using Data-Driven Learning in a Task-Based Approach

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ABSTRACT

In recent decades, there has been little progress in the field of language learning and teaching in translation studies. However, the literature suggests the utility of corpora for language teaching in such context, and particularly Johns' (1991) data-driven learning (DDL) approach, due to the affordances it offers. Nonetheless, the literature does not suggest how to adopt this approach in translation training settings or, perhaps most importantly, how to combine DDL with other tasks to foster language skills development. In this respect, this paper designs a proposal for adopting DDL for language teaching within a translator training programme using a task-based learning (TBL) approach. The paper, first, outlines the needs of translation studies in terms of language teaching and learning. Then, it identifies the affordances and potential issues of DDL. Next, the paper proposes a three-step framework for planning DDL lessons within a TBL approach and a four-level framework for grading DDL tasks towards more autonomous use. Using both frameworks, the paper proposes an English language course unit for an undergraduate translator training programme using an adaptation of Estaire's (1990) work. Finally, it concludes by pointing out some problems which might arise in implementing the proposal.

Keywords: data-driven learning, task-based learning, translator training, English for specific purposes

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1. Introduction

Despite the substantial development in the field of teaching English for specific purposes (ESP), little has been written regarding language teaching within translation training programmes. Most of the available literature (see Berenguer, 1996; Hurtado Albir, 1999; Kelly, 2005; Kiraly, 2000) has focused on different pedagogical methodologies. However, some authors (Bernardini, 2004; Molés-Cases & Oster, 2015; Marco & van Lawick, 2015) within the field have highlighted the potential of corpus-based approaches for translator training.

The idea of using corpora—i.e. 'large systematic collections of written and/or spoken language stored on a computer and used in linguistic analysis' (Römer, 2008, p. 112)—for pedagogical purposes has been researched for over 30 years. Within the surplus literature on this topic, many (Tribble & Jones, 1990; Burnard & McEnery, 2000; Aston, 2001; Sinclair, 2003; Braun, 2005; Tribble, 2015) have promoted and problematized the potential use of corpora as a tool for language teaching and learning—namely, Johns' (1991) data-driven learning (DDL).

However, most of the reviewed literature presents isolated case studies of DDL which have largely explored (1) the pedagogical considerations underpinning DDL in determined contexts and possible solutions and (2) the effectiveness of DDL for teaching particular target structures or lexis, and (3) have tested the effectiveness of different stances towards DDL. As of the date when this paper was written, there was no available research on the use of DDL for language teaching in translation studies (TS). This might be due to the fact that little has been written about the integration of DDL into the classroom and how to combine it with other activities to develop language skills and translator competencies.

Consequently, the purpose of this paper is to produce a pedagogical proposal for incorporating DDL in an English course unit in an undergraduate translator training programme by embedding it in a task-based learning (TBL) approach (Ellis, 2003; Estaire, 1990). Furthermore, the paper proposes a three-step framework for including DDL-based tasks in the TBL approach and suggests a framework for grading the DDL-based tasks to promote learner autonomy in the use of DDL.

Section 2 of the paper identifies the current requirements in language teaching within TS. Section 3 matches the affordances of DDL to the needs in TS and Section 4 describes the potential pedagogical issues. Section 5 overviews the design of the proposal. Section 6 proposes the stages and frameworks for organising the tasks in the DDL, taskbased proposal for teaching a class at level C1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). Finally, Section 7 concludes the paper by outlining the possible considerations for the future implementation of this proposal.

2. Language Learning in Translation Studies

In Chile, as in most Latin American countries, undergraduate translation training courses provide both, translation theory and practice course units as well as language modules to ensure trainees will be proficient enough to translate texts appropriately. This poses a challenge for language teachers, who are not only to teach the language, but also about the language itself. However, it appears that language teaching and learning within these programmes has been neglected for a long time (Beeby, 2004). In the early 1970s, Holmes (1972, p. 77) reflected on the nature of TS and classified the main components of applied TS into translation policy, translation criticism translation and teaching. Regarding the latter, he described the role that translation has played in language teaching and outlined the general features of the approach which would be suitable for translator trainees. It was this claim which later made Berenguer (1996) suggest that language teaching within programmes translation should be considered a type of language for specific purposes (LSP) which should foster the development of specific skills and translator competencies (p. 9).

The Process of Acquisition of Translator Competence and Evaluation ([PACTE] 2000) identifies six such

competencies for professional translators-namely, communicative competence (language proficiency), extralinguistic competence (cultural awareness and subject knowledge), instrumentalprofessional competence (translation tools), psycho-physiological competence (physical, cognitive and attitudinal resources), transfer competence (translator strategic competence ability) and (conscious and unconscious decisionmaking to solve translation problems) (pp. 101–102). The first of these competencies is related to first- and second-language proficiencies, which the German National Association for Interpreters and Translators ([BDÜ] 1986) defined as follows:

... the ability to master and correctly use that... language in a manner appropriate to style, subject-matter and addressee and in the appropriate cultural register, as well as the ability to discuss language (metalinguistic competence)... (as cited in Kiraly, 2000, p. 164)

To achieve the aforementioned level of language proficiency, Kelly (2005) suggested that language course units in translation programmes should focus 'on the particular language skills translators require' (p. 73). Berenguer (1996) outlined such skills and suggested these course units should be aimed at (1) teaching reading comprehension skills, (2) helping learners differentiate the two languages in use, (3) training the learners to use dictionaries and other resources, (4) making the learners experts in culture and (5) sensitising the learners to the translation process (my translation). In addition to these skills, Hurtado Albir (1999) proposed that reading, writing, listening and speaking skills should be prioritised over all other possible learning objectives.

Based on the aforementioned considerations, Beeby (2004) proposed a comprehensive TBL approach built on student-, genre- and translation-based syllabi. Similarly, Bernardini (2004) described a corpus-based approach which allows trainees to explore corpora. Interestingly, she added that this method could also be used to teach languages.

Applications of Corpora for **Pedagogical Purposes**

The use of corpora in the field of second language learning and teaching is not new. Römer (2006a) identified two approaches to corpora: direct and indirect applications. The former refers to the research carried out by linguists which influences language teaching materials and syllabi, while the latter allows learners and teachers to work with the corpus themselves to either determine common patterns in grammar and vocabulary and/or to study discourse. Johns' DDL (1986, 1991) is a prime example of the indirect application.

Hadley (2002) defined DDL as the study of a large database of English corpora which is later analysed using concordancing software to identify patterns in authentic language samples (pp. 106–107). This 'brings to the class abundant examples of authentic language samples that can be studied and exploited in many ways' (Hadley, 2002, p. 107), but perhaps most important, as Tribble and Jones (1990) suggested, is the fact that it 'favours learning by discovery—the study of grammar... takes the character of research' (p. 2).

Such research, according to Braun (2005), is based on data which is realistic (shows language in real use), rich (offers a wide variety of information), illustrative (provides real patterns instead of explanations) and up-to-date (shows

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trends in language and short-term historical changes). Bernardini (2004) identified additional affordances, such as (1) providing opportunities for discourse production and observation, (2) promoting learning autonomy and (3) providing an important consciousness-raising function (pp. 102–103), defined as '...draw[ing] the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language' (Rutherford & Smith, 1988, p. 107). Furthermore, as learners explore the complexities of authentic language and notice its formal aspects, they might also be able to get a *feel* for the language (Chalker, 1994; Johns, 1991a), which plays a crucial role in language teaching and learning (Robinson, 1991).

The student-focused nature of DDL is underpinned by three language learning theories: the noticing hypothesis, constructivist learning and Vygotskyan sociocultural theory (Flowerdew, 2015). These imply that learners are not passive receptors but active researchers who study language regularities (Johns, 1991a). This notion is succinctly summarised in Johns' (2002) famous statement, 'Every student is a Sherlock Holmes' (p. 108), which challenges learners' and teachers' traditional roles in the classroom. Indeed, DDL regards the latter as directors or coordinators in an 'attempt to cut out the middleman as far as possible and to give the learner direct access to the data' (Johns, 1991, p. 30). This fosters learner autonomy and motivation, which can promote the development of cognitive and metacognitive learning skills, as O'Sullivan (2007) mentioned.

The aforementioned skills are vital for developing strategic and psychological translator competencies. Additionally, DDL provides trainees with an

understanding of how to use the language and how it works; that is, it imparts procedural and declarative knowledge (Kiraly, 2000) and also 'equip[s them] with a tool box, containing skills that are transferable from problem to problem across sub-disciplines' (Römer, 2006b, p. 105). Such skills would be useful for facing the challenges found in TS. Indeed, DDL would be propitious for the development of other translator competencies, such as the instrumentalprofessional competence, since learners are likely to engage with other online resources. However, achieving this would articulating require the pedagogy underlying DDL with that of second teaching, which language means understanding pedagogical the considerations that DDL could present.

4. Discussing a DDL Pedagogy

Several considerations must be addressed to determine how DDL can be adopted in a particular context. One such issue relates to the possible ways in which DDL can be used in the classroom. Cresswell (2007) proposed two general approaches to DDL: deductive and inductive. In the deductive approach, the teacher pre-selects or grades the corpus to limit the scope of the learners' discovery, usually by using paper-based worksheets or teacher-compiled corpora, while the inductive approach allows the learners to freely and autonomously explore online concordancers to find evidence that supports their hypotheses regarding language phenomena.

Both approaches have their own affordances: the inductive approach to DDL aims to promote a better understanding and retention, as the discovery process may lead to deeper cognitive processing, as Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) suggested, while the deductive approach may be an effective way to incorporate DDL into the classroom (Gavioli & Aston, 2001; Johns, 1991; Tribble & Jones, 1990). However, these two stances should not be regarded as exclusive extremes to be labelled 'the best approach' to DDL. Instead, they can be regarded as the start and finish points of a learning process which aims to take the learner from a more controlled teachermediated stance to the full-blown autonomous use of DDL. Such a grading process is largely determined by the educational culture in the different learning contexts.

In some settings, DDL might stand as an approach which challenges the traditional paradigms regarding the learner and teacher roles. The leading studentcentred nature of the approach places teachers in a supportive secondary position with which they might be unfamiliar or even reluctant to accept due to the pedagogical issues that may arise. The first is corpora availability which, according to Römer (2006a), can be obtained from CD-ROM, the Internet, concordance packages and corpus-based reference works. However, for DDL purposes, teachers may want to consider the first three as potential ways of obtaining materials. Teachers may also wish to create their own corpus for language teaching (Tribble, 1997) using freeware concordance, such as Laurence Anthony's (2015) AntConc. The second issue is that of corpora size. Although large amounts of data might be available, Tribble (1997) warned that learners' access to multi-million word corpora does not necessarily mean those are what they need for their particular learning situation.

Both of these issues depend on the physical resources which teachers have at

their disposal. DDL assumes that most language learning organisations have laboratories computer or clusters. However, this might not be the case in every context, as some classrooms may have limited access to corpora or concordancing software either due to a lack of facilities or Internet. Although worksheets with corpora can be provided, these do not allow learners to see the whole sentence; therefore, they might trigger understanding problems.

Indeed, one of the most serious potential problems which teachers must address concerns the content of the corpus with which learners must engage. Widdowson (1978)identified the challenges which learners face when working with corpora in the classroom. However, the most important one is that of the genuineness versus authenticity of discourse. Although corpora are genuine because they show real language, learners need to relate to the texts; that is, they need to relate to authenticate them. However, the fact that texts are genuine does not necessarily mean that they are authentic (Widdowson, 1978).

This issue seems to question the usefulness of 'authentic materials' or corpora for language learning. Tribble (1997) problematized the fact that the genuine examples shown in these materials might not lead to authentic language use during tasks or activities. Similarly, Meunier (2002) suggested that the results displayed in the concordancing software can be ambiguous, misleading or messy, which might mislead learners in their search for evidence (p. 129). Interestingly, Kennedy and Miceli (2001) reported that students who fail to do so might become frustrated and abandon the search altogether. Thus, it is vitally important, as Bax (2003) pointed out, to

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train learners in the use of new technology to foster its adoption. Such training may not only involve an induction regarding how to use the concordancing software but also how to read the corpus, as Sinclair (2003) proposed.

With regard to the main DDL tasks, Whistle's (1999) work concluded that concordance-based activities should not last more than 30 minutes, as the learners will start regarding corpus analysis as mechanical, laborious and tedious. This is very similar to Allan's (2006) findings regarding the use of DDL outside the classroom and conclusion that DDL requires a wide variety of tasks. Additionally, DDL-based tasks alone may not provide enough ground for the development of all four language skills. Thus, as Gabrielatos (2005) suggested, DDL could constitute a type of task within a broader TBL approach, which could provide a task sequence to contextualise the DDL search, and therefore contribute to the authentication process.

5. Designing a Proposal: Joining TBL and DDL

According to Willis and Willis (2007), one of the best affordances of TBL is that the learners are provided with opportunities to develop skills which are the classroom. outside used Thev emphasise that the series of real-world tasks can be particularly useful for reflecting the skills and competencies needed in particular cases in teaching ESP. Although the literature on TBL is extensive (see Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996), the design of this proposal is based on an adaptation of Estaire's (1990) framework, while the tasks are articulated according to Ellis's (2003, p. 243) three-phase framework.

The former identifies six steps regarding the design of a task-based lesson: (1) the topic to be discussed and (2) the final task, which determines (3) the learning outcomes, (4) contents, (5) sequencing tasks and (6) assessment throughout the learning process. Furthermore, the latter deals with the articulation of tasks and suggests a pretask, a main task and a post-task. The pretask contextualises the main task and activates the learners' schemata, while the main task provides the setting for using the language fluently. The post-task usually focuses on form and accuracy by providing feedback on the students' mistakes or asking them to perform consciousness-raising tasks, engage in production-practice activities or noticing activities. Therefore, these pre- and posttasks 'ensur[e] that the task performance is maximally effective for language development' (Ellis, 2003, p. 243), which is exactly what DDL needs to be complemented with. Indeed, a meaningful and purposeful task sequence could provide a solution to Widdowson's (1978) observations on the 'authenticity' of corpora, as the learners are able to develop relationships with them (Braun, 2005).

Therefore, some potential pedagogical problems of DDL can be addressed using the affordances present in TBL. Figure 1 shows a three-step framework integrating the key factors for the implementation of DDL while outlining the main tasks for such a purpose.

Step	Objective	Elements to consider
1. Contextualisation	Understand the elements of the context which need to be considered before implementing DDL	a. learners b. curriculum c. delivery method d. resources
2. Selection	Choose the topics in which the search will be framed and the contents to be analysed using DDL	a. topics b. items (grammar and vocabulary) c. deductive/inductive approach d. final task and learning outcome of the module
3. Sequencing	Organise the tasks from a deductive to an inductive approach to DDL	a. concordancer induction (if needed) b. main DDL task c. pre- and post-DDL tasks d. tasks for skills development

Figure 1: Steps for planning a DDL-based lesson

The first stage is contextualisation—that is, a thorough analysis of the setting where the DDL is to be implemented. It requires teachers to think of the level of English of their learners, their previous experiences using technology, motivation and personal interests. The teachers should also consider the institutional or programme objectives as well as the course unit learning outcomes. The delivery method for the course should also be analysed (e.g. on-site, blended or fully online). Lastly, this stage involves thinking of the resources needed to implement DDL in the setting, such as the computer-student ratio. Internet access. access to smartphones or tablets, etc.

After teachers have studied the setting, they are to decide which contents of the course syllabus to deal with using DDL. Such selection of grammar and lexical items is based on their suitability to be explored and exploited using DDL. At this stage, the teachers should also consider whether they will work with an online concordancer or design a corpus themselves, and if one stance towards DDL might be more suitable than the other for the target class. This is intrinsically related to the next phase.

The following step is *sequencing*, which comprises two major principles. The first involves designing purposeful DDL tasks in a coherent learning sequence and meaningful context within the TBL approach, while the second principle involves articulating tasks for skills development complement the to previously planned DDL tasks.

In addition to these principles, teachers might wish to grade activities so that the learners begin using a deductive approach and gradually shift to a more inductive approach, although some might wish to attempt the hands-on version of DDL. In both cases, an induction regarding the use of concordancing software and the interpretation of key words in context (KWICs) is recommended to increase the chances of success of subsequent activities. For such purposes, teachers may wish to use online platforms to set up the different task sequences they have planned.

Due to the manifold elements which need to be considered when articulating tasks, this paper suggests a general framework for organising the DDL-based tasks from a deductive to a more inductive approach (see Fig. 2). The first level, i.e. introduction, aims to contextualise the delivery method or platform (if any), but most importantly, emphasises the autonomous role which the students will be required to cultivate throughout the course. This promotes the awareness of the vital role that they will play in this set of lessons. The following levels provide more and less controlled support for the students as they carry out their searches. The main goal is for the the students master use of to concordancing software, which could eventually lead to fully autonomous use.

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Figure 2: Chart for DDL-based task sequencing

1		
Level	Description	DDL Stance
1. Introduction	Introduce the delivery method, e.g. Moodle platform, and its features, and define the learners' autonomous role in the course	-
2. Initiation	Introduce the learners to the DDL methodology and allow them to perform simple, controlled and guided searches	Teacher-led (deductive)
3. Training	Assign tasks which prompt the learners to carry out partially guided searches	Teacher-led/Student-led (deductive → inductive)
4. Automatisation	Assign tasks which promote autonomous searches on the part of the learners	Student-led (inductive)
Self-Management	•	Autonomous use of DDL

6. A Task-Based, DDL Proposal for Translation Studies

This section details the proposal for an undergraduate translator training programme in Chile. To do so, it follows the three steps for planning a DDL lesson. Then the DDL tasks are graded using the aforementioned framework, which is incorporated into a broader TBL design for the module based on an adaptation of Estaire's (1990) framework. The section then concludes by discussing the DDL task sequences in the proposal.

6.1 Contextualisation

The five-year bachelor's TS programme trains students in Spanish as A language, English as B language and either Japanese or Portuguese as C language. This proposal was designed for the on-site version of the English Language V course unit, which is delivered during the fourth year. Among its learning outcomes, learners are expected to use advanced grammar structures and a wide range of vocabulary at level C1 of the CEFR and understand and produce oral and written discourse on a variety of abstract and complex topics. The course unit outline proposes a total of eight units, divided into three modules. Among the resources available, the programme relies on a computer laboratory with broadband Internet access. This allows the course to be mounted on a course wiki to be used as a 'digital textbook' as an alternative to the paper-based textbook. In addition to permitting teachers to plan and organise content, this platform allows flexibility on the part of the learners, who can upload materials, create their own sites and engage in collective writing tasks.

As for the learners, they have studied English as B language for at least four semesters in the programme. In addition, they come from different educational and socioeconomic backgrounds, which implies they have different levels of English, learning styles, levels of autonomy, motivation and commitment to the course. Moreover, their educational experiences in the Chilean system are characterised by knowledge transmission and learner passivity (Flores, 2012, p. 23; Silva et al., 2006, p. 2). It is also important to highlight that these learners have never used corpora or concordancing software in their language course units.

6.2 Selection

The focus of this proposal is on the second course module, which includes the following grammar contents: verb patterns, punctuation, ellipsis. substitution, relative clauses, passive voice and reporting passives. Most of these structures can be used in a formal language, which leaners usually struggle to achieve. Translators are expected to produce, edit and proofread formal written materials in L2, which is why these translator trainees would particularly benefit from learning these structures. Furthermore, such grammar would allow the design of a coherent final task which would allow them to apply all these

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structures meaningfully, namely oral and written reports.

In addition, the textbook for this class suggests the following themes: the world of work, relationships and education and intelligence. Therefore, the adapted reading passages and activities will include vocabulary, collocations and idioms relating to those topics. As regards the concordancing software, the learners will use online free corpora available in Corpus Concordancer English the software (Lextutor, 2015).

6.3 Sequencing

The articulation of DDL tasks and their display on the course wiki will be based on the framework for task sequencing described above, which includes one session for the tutorial, three for the initiation and training and six for the automatisation stage. Fig. 3 provides a summary of the grading of the DDL tasks in the course sessions.

Figure 3: DDL tasks grading for the module sessions

DDL Session Grading				
Level	DDL Stance	Sessions		
1. Introduction	-	Online tutorial		
2. Initiation	Deductive	1-3		
3. Training	Deductive/Inductive	4–6		
4. Automatisation	Inductive	7–12		

Concerning the overall model structure, its learning outcomes are to (1) develop the language skills to produce formal written and spoken English for reports at level C1, (2) encourage the learners to use DDL, (3) promote learner autonomy and (4) foster the development of some translator competencies. Thus, the main task in each session paves the way for the next one, and together they will eventually provide the skills and knowledge the learners will need to accomplish the final task of the module.

This proposal groups the sessions into five stages according to the function they perform in relation to the overall module learning outcome. The first one compromises two sessions which will be the cornerstone of the course—namely, the role of autonomy and carrying out a DDL search. The learning outcomes of these two sessions will ultimately underpin the whole module, especially the second stage which aims to review, explore and discuss the grammar structures, formulae and vocabulary for producing reports. This step also involves the transition from the initiation to the training level, which involves the learners carrying out more searches. The contents autonomous discussed in the second stage will then be used in the skills development phase, especially those relating to the production of reports. such as editing and proofreading at the text level. Such skills will be crucial for the following stage, which will provide the learners with the practice they need to carry out the final task. Importantly, at this stage, it is supposed that this will be the last transition towards becoming a more autonomous user of DDL. The final part of the module is the assessment phase, where the learners will produce written and oral texts which will be assessed by teachers, peers and the learners themselves. Fig. 4 shows the aforementioned articulation of DDL graded sessions in an adaptation of Estaire's (1990) TBL framework.

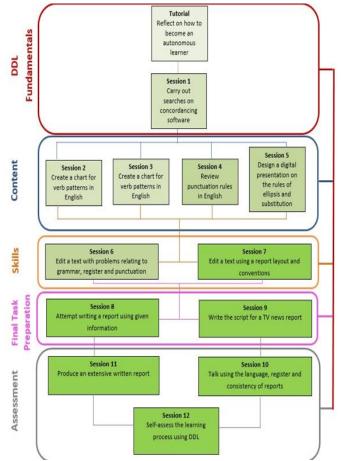
The task sequence within each session is determined by the main task and the learning outcomes. Consequently, the rest of the tasks in the sequence work as either pre- or post-tasks, which generally aim at enabling learners to practise and hone their language skills. The integration of these elements provides the context and stimuli for the development of translator

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competencies as well—namely, linguistic, extra-linguistic, psycho-physiological, instrumental-professional and strategic competencies.

As for the DDL-based tasks, these are graded according to the levels described above, and each one plays a particular role towards the learners' adoption of DDL. For instance, although sessions one and two are both at the initiation level, the former introduces the notions of concordance and how to use it for vocabulary searches, while the latter focuses on its use for grammatical patterns. Similarly, session four presents some tasks which invite the learners to carry out predetermined searches while allowing them to carry out their own, whereas session eight presents a series of tasks where the learners must use the concordancing software according to their linguistic needs to proofread and edit their work. In the last sessions, the learners use the concordancing software according to their needs and linguistic enquiries. The details of all sessions, main tasks, learning outcomes, task sequences and contents can be found in the Appendix.

Figure 4: Module structure based on an adaptation of Estaire's work



7. Conclusions and Considerations

This proposal attempts to address most of the issues involved in adopting a DDL approach in translator training programmes. However, two potential issues have been identified: learners' interaction with DDL and their required level of autonomy. Although precautions can be taken to empower the learners with autonomy and guide them throughout the their educational culture. process. background and attributes will ultimately determine whether they will be able to cope with the responsibility of their autonomous role. Possible solutions to these situations can only be confirmed after the proposal has been tested. Such a trial could help in identifying any possible flaws in the design of the lesson, and therefore help to improve the sequence of the tasks for subsequent modules and course units.

In spite of these issues, the aforementioned frameworks can potentially allow language teachers working in translation training contexts to use incorporate DDL and plan effective lessons to foster language learning in their settings. This could be very valuable for translation undergraduate training programmes where languages are both, the means by which translation theory and practice are taught, and the object of the learning process itself. Furthermore, the widespread use of a DDL methodology in more than a course unit could allow teachers to use bilingual corpora in translation course units, which would opportunities enhance trainees' to understand how language is used and learn a powerful tool which can help them in their learning language process and later on in the professional careers as translators.

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More lesson plans can be requested from the author via email to nestor.singerc@usach.cl

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