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Macro- and micro-structural contrastive
analysis of abortion laws: *Abortion Act 1967*
(UK) and *Ley Orgánica 2/2010, de 3 de
marzo, de la Salud Sexual y Reproductiva y
de la Interrupción Voluntaria del Embarazo*
(Spain)

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*To my mother because,
despite the distance,
she is always with me.*

*To Professors Susana
Álvarez and Paola
Catenaccio for having
accompanied me and
helped me writing my
first project.*

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ABSTRACT

This end-of-degree project stems from the double-degree programme signed between the University of Valladolid, Spain, and the Università degli Studi di Milano, Italy.

Since laws are applied in a defined geographical area, translation of laws is not as frequent as the translation of other legal text types. So, the main objective of this project is not to translate, but to compare the abortion law in force in the United Kingdom (*Abortion Act 1967*) and in Spain (*Ley Orgánica 2/2010, de 3 de marzo, de Salud Sexual y Reproductiva y de la Interrupción Voluntaria del Embarazo*). For this purpose, first, we will describe the main features of the legal systems in the United Kingdom and Spain. Second, we will define the main characteristics of the specialised language, *i.e.* legal English and legal Spanish. Finally, we will focus on the case study of the above-mentioned abortion laws making a definition of the text type and a macro- and micro-structural analysis of both texts.

Keywords: legal English, legal Spanish, normative texts, law, contrastive study, macro- and micro-structural analysis.

RIASSUNTO

Questo elaborato finale nasce a capo del progetto di doppio titolo sviluppato dall'Università di Valladolid, Spagna, in collaborazione con l'Università degli Studi di Milano, Italia.

Siccome le leggi sono applicate in un'area geografica definita e limitata, la traduzione delle leggi non è così frequente come la traduzione di altri tipi di testi giuridici. L'obiettivo principale di questo progetto non è quindi quello di tradurre, ma di confrontare la legge sull'aborto in vigore nel Regno Unito (*Abortion Act 1967*) e in Spagna (*Ley Orgánica 2/2010, de 3 de marzo, de Salud Sexual y Reproductiva y de la Interrupción Voluntaria del Embarazo*). A tal proposito, in primo luogo, descriveremo le principali caratteristiche del sistema giuridico nel Regno Unito e in Spagna. In secondo luogo, verranno definite le caratteristiche principali della lingua specializzata, cioè l'inglese giuridico e lo spagnolo giuridico. Infine, ci concentreremo sullo studio del caso di studio delle leggi sull'aborto sopracitate, con una definizione del tipo di testo e un'analisi macro e microstrutturale di entrambi i testi.

Parole chiave: inglese giuridico, spagnolo giuridico, testi normativi, studio contrastivo, analisi macro- e micro-strutturale.

RESUMEN

Este TFG se enmarca en el programa de doble titulación entre la Università degli Studi di Milano, Italia, y la Universidad de Valladolid, España.

Puesto que las leyes se aplican en un área geográfica determinada, la traducción de leyes no es tan frecuente como la traducción de otros tipos de texto jurídico. Por lo tanto, el objetivo principal de este proyecto no es traducir, sino comparar las leyes del aborto vigentes en el Reino Unido (*Abortion Act*

1967) y en España (*Ley Orgánica 2/2010, de 3 de marzo, de Salud Sexual y Reproductiva y de la Interrupción Voluntaria del Embarazo*). A tal efecto, en primer lugar, describiremos las principales características de los sistemas jurídicos del Reino Unido y de España. En segundo lugar, definiremos las particularidades del lenguaje especializado, es decir, el inglés jurídico y el español jurídico. Finalmente, nos centraremos en el estudio de las leyes del aborto antes mencionadas, haremos una definición del tipo de texto y un análisis macro- y micro-estructural de ambos textos.

Palabras clave: inglés jurídico, español jurídico, textos normativos, estudio contrastivo, análisis macro- y micro-estructural.

1. INTRODUCTION

This end-of-degree project is the result of one year of work developed within the double-degree program between the University of Valladolid (Spain) and the Università degli studi di Milano (Italy). In fact, this project is the last stage to complete the program. Hence, the skills and competencies acquired during four years of linguistic training are comprised in this project. During this period, the main languages studied have been English and Spanish both from the point of view of the general language, as well as from a more specialised perspective, particularly in the legal and economic fields.

In addition to my academic background, another reason to study legislative texts, and, in particular, laws, is that laws are mainly applied in a defined geographical area, so translation and contrastive-studies of laws are not as frequent as of other legal text types. Therefore, in this project, we show and compare the main characteristics of the legal systems in the UK and Spain and legal languages —English and Spanish respectively— and then we show a case-study analysed and contrasted.

1.1. Justification

Once I completed the double-degree program, I thought it was appropriate to put into practice all the learning and skills acquired during these four years. Subjects such as *Sistemi giuridici comparati*, in Italy, and *Traducción especializada*, in Spain, encouraged me to apply my knowledge of the legal field to this project by comparing an English normative text and a Spanish normative text. The decision of contrasting legal texts was not a coincidence. In fact, we live in a globalised world in which the need of linguists, translators, interpreters and mediators specialised in the legal field is becoming greater and greater. Besides, both English and Spanish are official languages in the main international organisations. So, for these reasons, I believe that identifying the differences and similarities between two laws of different countries as the UK and Spain is essential.

The decision of contrasting the abortion laws of the countries above-mentioned —*Abortion Act 1967* and *Ley Orgánica 2/2010, de 3 de marzo, de Salud sexual y Reproductiva y de la Interrupción Voluntaria del Embarazo* respectively— was also intentioned. Recently, feminism and women empowerment have been internationally on the agenda. In fact, lastly, abortion laws have suffered changes in many countries across the world and it has

constituted a polemic and controversial issue with advocates and detractors, and that is why we have found very interesting studying these laws. Therefore, through this project, we want to show not only linguistic skills, but also the knowledge in a disputed and characterised context as the evolution and history of the legal systems in Spain and UK and their respective abortion laws.

1.2. Objectives

The main objective of this project is to analyse from a comparative point of view the macro- and micro-structural peculiarities of the abortion law in the UK and in Spain. In order to reach this objective, we have previously had to reach a series of secondary objectives, such as the study of the legal systems in both the UK and Spain, the study of legal languages and, within them, their respective normative texts.

Moreover, in order to achieve both the main and secondary objectives, we have had to develop different competences within the framework of the double-degree program. The knowledge, deepening, and mastery of my mother tongue (Spanish) and my second language (English) have been essential and also the analysis, determination, and comprehension of specialised texts in English and Spanish, in this case normative texts. In addition, the management of information and documentation, that is bibliographic resources, has been crucial. On the other hand, the knowledge of the different textual functions and methods of conceptual extraction and of macro- and micro-textual analysis has had a very important role in the development of this project.

Furthermore, as we have also had to apply the skills and knowledge acquired over the last four years, it has also been essential to develop the ability to communicate with experts from other fields apart from our own. And, last but not least, we have acquired legal knowledge by understanding the functioning of specific legal systems and their respective languages, being able to manage legal texts and placing them in specific situations.

1.3. Methodology

Now, we are going to present the steps followed to reach the objectives listed in the previous sub-chapter. First of all, we decided the field where we were going to frame our project; it was the legal field because it is the field we have worked the most in the last four years. Then, we chose the abortion law for our study due to all the controversy and confrontation of opinions it has recently generated. At first, we wanted to carry out a macro- and micro-structural contrastive analysis of this law in one of the states of USA, in the UK and in Spain. Nevertheless, analysing three laws was going to exceed a lot the conditions established for our project, so, we decided to reduce our analysis to the two above-mentioned European countries, UK and Spain. We were able to find these laws on the Internet¹. In the case of the law in the UK, we had some problems related to the previous versions of the laws and the differences between their structures; finally we decided to analyse the latest version available.

Secondly, we made a first reading of both texts in order to understand their

¹ UK's abortion law (<https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1967/87/data.pdf>) and Spain's abortion law (<https://www.boe.es/buscar/pdf/2010/BOE-A-2010-3514-consolidado.pdf>).

meaning and we also carried out a categorizing system in which we determined those points that we had to deal with in our theoretical framework, which would be divided into legal framework and linguistic framework. In the first place, we located a series of bibliographic resources, both digital and on paper, and we made an exhaustive documentary work in both English and Spanish in order to contextualize the legal framework. Those resources were composed by different books and studies by experts in the field and also by the official sites of the governments of the UK and Spain. Then, we proceeded to explain and write all the information gathered, and we also translated some information from Spanish into English.

After that, we did another bibliographic and documentary work for the linguistic framework; in this case, we had to turn to experts in legal language and legal translation. Later, we focused on normative texts and their formal structure in both English and Spanish.

Then, once the theoretical part was finished, we proceeded to find out about the criteria we should take into account for our analysis, which we explained before the analysis. After that, we made analytical readings of the laws in question. Later we did a manual analysis in which we marked all the phenomena we found in the text with different colours, basing on the models of Vázquez del Árbol (2014) for the macro-structural analysis and on Borja Albi (2000) for the micro-structural analysis. This analysis has been carried out based on the theoretical foundations explained in the theoretical framework and contrasting the laws with each other, in order to show the similarities, differences and particularities of both laws in different tables through both macro- and micro-structural analysis. Finally, we drew a series of conclusions from the analysis done.

1.4. Structure of the study

Our end-of-degree project is divided into six chapters: the introduction, the legal framework, the linguistic framework, normative texts, the analysis and the conclusions. In turn, these chapters are divided into sub-chapters. Before the first chapter, we can find a general index, an index of images and an index of tables. After them, we can also see the summary of the project in English, Italian and Spanish.

So, the first chapter, which is the introduction, explains the main reasons and parts of the study; and it has four sub-chapters: justification, objectives, methodology and structure.

Secondly, the legal framework is where we explain the main characteristics of both legal systems (UK and Spain) and the procedures followed in order to create laws. The legal framework is composed of two sub-chapters: legal system in the UK and legal system in Spain.

Thirdly, we have the linguistic framework, in which we outline the main differences between general language and specialised language and then, we study in depth the features of legal English and legal Spanish. This chapter is divided into two different sub-chapters: legal English and legal Spanish.

Fourthly, we explain the main structure of normative texts.

Fifthly, we present the analysis that has three sub-chapters: the methodology of analysis, in which we explain the basis of the analysis, the macro-structural analysis and, then, the micro-structural analysis, which is divided into three sub-sections: semantic level, morphological and syntactic level and stylistic level.

Sixthly, we show the conclusions of the project.

Finally, we include some bibliographic resources and an annex where we can find the original texts we analysed.

2. LEGAL FRAMEWORK

In order to contextualize the case study that we will analyse in the fifth chapter, we present this theoretical framework, in which we outline the main characteristics of the legal system in United Kingdom and the legal system in the Spain. In addition, we will study the main law-making procedures in both cases because the objective of study is the comparison of two particular laws: *Abortion Act 1967* (UK) and *Ley Orgánica 2/2010, de 3 de marzo, de la Salud Sexual y Reproductiva y de la Interrupción Voluntaria del Embarazo* (Spain).

2.1. Legal system in the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom is a parliamentary monarchy with a parliamentary democracy that comprises four countries: England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Even though the UK is a unitary state, its legal system comprises more than one legal system. In this study, we are going to focus mainly in the legal system implemented in England because is in charge of final decisions of the United Kingdom as a whole.

English legal culture is mainly based on the Common Law, which is composed of custom, tradition and judicial decisions made by judges (Alcaraz Varó, 1996, p. 2). At the same time, English Law can be classified in public law and private law. Public law, which includes constitutional law, administrative law and criminal law, is about relations among citizens and the State and private law, also called civil law, is about relations between citizens. From a historical point of view, English Law is autochthonous, but it is also influenced by Roman law and Canonical law (*ibid.*, p. 74).

In addition, the United Kingdom became a Member State of the European Union on 1st January 1973; however, on 23rd June 2016 UK's citizens voted to leave the EU (European Union, 2019). Brexit is planned to be implemented by 31st October 2019 (Suanzes, 2019).

Different from most modern states, the United Kingdom has no codified constitution; instead of it, they have an 'unwritten constitution' composed of Acts of Parliament, court judgements and conventions (Blackburn, 2015). The branches of the government in the United Kingdom² are: legislative, executive and judicial. The Parliament of the United Kingdom is in charge of the legislative power and it is also known as the 'Legislature'. The responsibility of the Parliament is to scrutinise the work of the Government and to examine, to debate and to approve new laws.

The Parliament comprises two Houses: the House of Commons and the House of Lords.

On the one hand, the House of Commons is made up of people elected at General Election —these are Members of Parliament (MPs). Nevertheless, MPs are not only members from the winning political party, but also members of

² As the UK, Spain's power division of powers consists of legislative power, executive power and judicial power.

other political parties. On the other hand, the members of the House of Lords are appointed for their achievements and experience, but they do not usually belong to any political party (UK Parliament, 2019). Even though the Parliament and the Government of the United Kingdom work closely together as both of them play a part in law-making, they are separate institutions with separate functions (*ibid.*). The Government, also known as the 'Executive', has the responsibility for running the country and also developing and implementing policies and draft laws. Besides, the Government of the UK consists of the PM³ and her or his Cabinet and its main functions are setting taxes, managing public money and delivering public services —such as police and armed forces, energy supply, welfare benefits or National Health Service (Parliament UK, 2019). The Government is headed by the winning political party at a General Election whose leader becomes the PM and he or she chooses other party members to work with as Cabinet ministers or junior ministers (*ibid.*). In addition, PM's main functions are overseeing Civil Service's and government agencies' operations and appointing the members of the government (UK Government 2019). As said before, the PM works with a Cabinet of Ministers who are distributed in different government departments such as: Cabinet Office, HM Treasury, Home Office, Foreign Commonwealth Office, Ministry of Defence, Department for International Trade, etc. (*ibid.*).

Nonetheless, due to the fact that the United Kingdom includes England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, some governmental and parliamentary functions have been assigned to the devolved institutions, which are devolved Parliaments and Assemblies of Wales⁴, Scotland⁵ and Northern Ireland⁶. Anyway, the Government of UK is the one which represents the UK (UK Parliament, 2019).

The third of the branches of the government is the judicial power, which consists of the control of the accomplishment of legislation, and which is mainly carried out by the Supreme Court of the UK (*ibid.*). The Supreme Court is the final court of appeal of the UK; however, they do not consider a case unless a lower court has made a relevant order. In fact, it is the final court of appeal for all the civil cases of the UK and for all the criminal cases of England, Wales and Northern Ireland. This means that there are other courts of appeal⁷ in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, which can be lower courts or final courts depending on its jurisdiction (The Supreme Court, 2019).

Once we have outlined the English legal system, we are going to describe the legislative procedures in the United Kingdom in detail, since the main objective of this project is to study two particular laws.

Most plans for new laws and changes to existing laws are introduced by the Government, but MPs can also originate new laws. Proposals for new laws or proposals for changes in existing laws —known as Bills— are introduced into Parliament; however, there is often a consultation with interested parties before (UK Parliament, 2019). A Draft Bill is a Bill published for consultation and pre-legislative scrutiny. The pre-legislative scrutiny is carried out by the respective committee —or a joint committee of Lords and Members of the Commons—, who

³ Prime Minister.

⁴ Assembly for Wales and Wales Government.

⁵ Scottish Government and Scottish Parliament.

⁶ National Assembly for Wales.

⁷ England and Wales Court of Appeal, Northern Ireland Court of Appeal, High Court of Justiciary (Scotland), etc.

considers the Draft Bill. This process enables the early influence of MPs and Members of the Lords on Draft Bills and also the examination and amendments to be made easier before they are formally introduced to Parliament as proper Bills (UK Parliament, 2019). Most Draft Bills are Government Bills. In fact, the Government has also a role in Draft Bills: the Government issues a public paper for discussion and response. These papers are usually White and Green Papers; Green Papers show ideas for future government policies opened to public discussion and White Papers usually have more definite intentions for government policies (*ibid.*).

Before starting with the explanation of how laws are made, we should notice that, due to the essential geographical division of the UK, some laws apply to the whole of the UK, but not all of them. In fact, Bills can apply to one or more constituent parts, *i.e.* only to England and Wales. Law-making in some subjects is delegated to the devolved institutions (*ibid.*). As said above, the United Kingdom is still a Member State of the UE. So, regarding to legislation, law-making must comply with international or EU legislation.

Now, the legislative procedure starts when Bills are presented for consultation and discussion and this happens before Bills go to Parliament. Then, as *Figure 1* shows, Bills are presented in both Houses of Parliament for examination, discussion and amendment. As soon as both Houses have agreed on the content, Bills are presented before the monarch for approval –Royal Assent. After that, the Bill becomes an Act of Parliament (law) (*ibid.*).

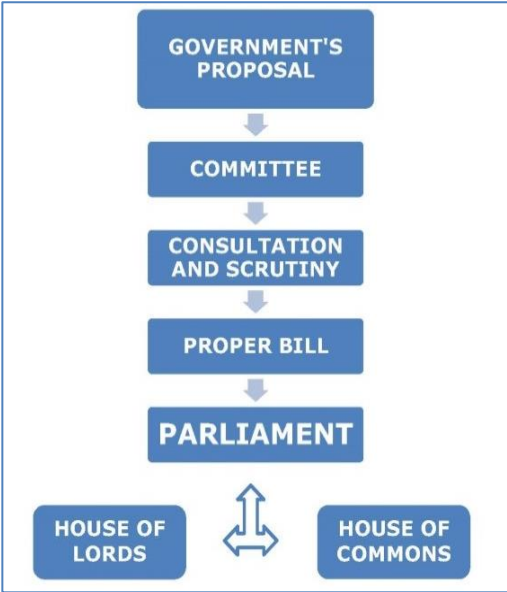


Figure 1: Pre-legislative procedure

Bills can be introduced by the Government, individual Lords or MPs, and private individuals or organisations. In addition, there are three types of Bills: Public, Private and Hybrid Bills. Public Bills are mainly proposed by Government ministers, those proposed by other MPs or Lords are Private Members’ Bills. Then, Private Bills are promoted by organisations, private companies or local authorities. And, finally, Hybrid Bills are a mix of Public and Private Bills. The first phase of the legislation can take place in the House of Commons or in the House of Lords, but they must be approved by both Houses in order to become an Act. Therefore, it is important to focus on the two possible procedures (*ibid.*).

On the one hand, as we can see in *Figure 2*, Bills starting in the House of

Lords go through a first reading, a second reading, a committee stage, a report stage and a third reading. The first reading is a formality without debate where the long title is read out and the Bill is printed. Then, the second reading is a debate of the main principles and purposes of the Bill. Lords also suggest amendments in the second reading. The next phase is the committee stage, where a detailed examination of the clauses and discussion of the amendments takes place. The government cannot impose a time limit or restrict any of the subjects under discussion.

After this, the Bill is reprinted with all the amendments and goes to the third reading, which is the final chance for amendments. Lords should tidy the Bill and be sure that it is an effective and workable potential law. What's more, amendments are accepted in this stage if they have not already been made in the previous stages (UK Parliament, 2019).

After this procedure, the Bill goes to the House of Commons, where they undergo the same stages (first reading, a second reading, a committee stage, a report stage and a third reading), but headed by the Commons. And, later, the Bill goes back to the Lords in order to reach a mutual agreement in the consideration of amendments' stage (*ibid.*).

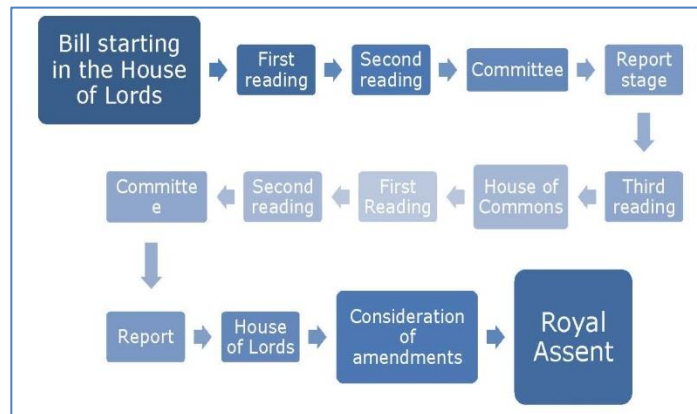


Figure 2: Lord's legislative procedure

On the other hand, as we can see below in *Figure 3*, Bills starting in the House of Commons go through a first reading, a second reading, a committee stage, a report stage and a third reading. The first reading is a formality without debate where the short title is read out and the Bill is published as a paper. Then, the second reading is a debate⁸ between opposition parties. The Commons vote if the Bill should be given a second reading, *i.e.* if the Bill is approved in order to continue the procedure. After the second reading, government Bills are formally timetabled. The committee stage⁹ is a detailed examination of the Bill and a debate of each clause and amendments —in which the committee agrees, changes or removes every clause from the Bill. Most Bills are considered in Public Bill Committee. Later, in the report stage, amendments are considered and more amendments or new clauses are suggested. And finally, the third reading is a short and limited debate on what is already in the Bill and not on what should have been added. The House votes whether to approve the third reading of the Bill and no amendments can be made (*ibid.*).

⁸ It is possible that there is no debate in the second Reading if the Commons mean so.

⁹ If the Bill starts in the House of Commons, the committee can take evidence from experts outside the Parliament.

After this procedure, the Bill goes to the House of Lords, where they go through the same stages (first reading, a second reading, a committee stage, a report stage and a third reading), but headed by the Lords. And, later, the Bill goes back to the Commons in order to reach a mutual agreement in the consideration of amendments' stage (UK Parliament, 2019.).

So, the consideration of amendments stage is intended for agreement or disagreement of amendments or for new proposals. If the first House disagrees on anything or makes changes, the Bill goes back to the second House. This stage is known as 'Ping Pong' due to the House-to-House movement of the Bill until reaching an agreement of the totality of the Bill by both Houses. If so, the Bill is ready for the last phase: Royal Assent. Otherwise, if no agreement is reached¹⁰, the Bill falls (*ibid.*). And finally, Royal Assent takes place when the Queen agrees to make the Bill an Act of Parliament, a law. There is an announcement in both Houses and legislation comes into effect. Then, the implementation of the Act is the responsibility of the Government —of different departments depending on the issue (*ibid.*).

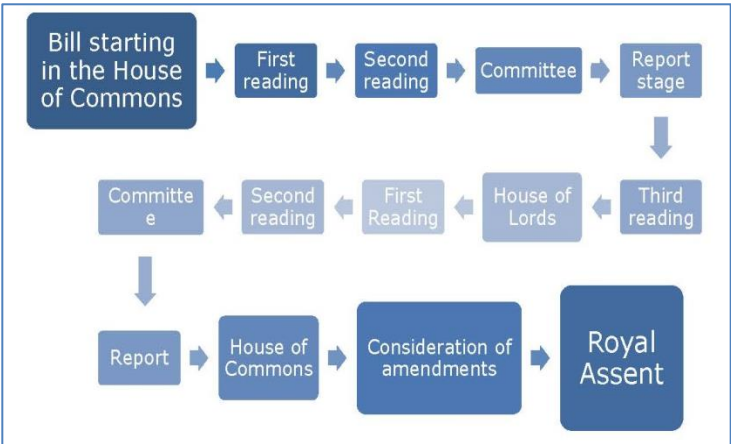


Figure 3: Commons' legislative procedure

After explaining the law-making procedure, we are going to explain the current abortion law in the UK. The abortion law in force in the United Kingdom —'Abortion Act 1967'— is an Act of Parliament which was published on 27th October 1967 and came into effect on 27th April 1968 (UK Parliament, 2019). However, this law has been amended several times after its enactment in 1969, 1980, 1988, 1991, 1995, 2004, 2006, 2013, and 2018. On the other hand, the geographical extent of this law is England, Wales and Scotland, where abortion is legal in some circumstances up to the 28th week of gestation. On the other hand, abortion is illegal in Northern Ireland unless the life of the mother is in risk (UK Government, 2019).

¹⁰ Parliament Acts.

2.2. Legal system in Spain

Once we have exposed the first part of the legal framework, we are going to analyse the second part, which is the legal system in Spain.

As the Spanish Constitution¹¹ says, Spain is a state that recognizes the rule of law and its fundamental principles are freedom, justice, equality and political pluralism. Spanish sovereignty resides in Spanish people (The Spanish Constitution, 1978, p. 9). In addition, Spanish law is mainly based on Roman law (Embid Irujo, 2010, p. 31). Spain is a Parliamentary Monarchy where the King represents the country. Nevertheless, the Government and the Parliament, democratically elected by Spanish people, are the ones who rule and command the country (Berbel Leyva, 2002, p. 24).

Moreover, Spain is a constitutional State, which means that Spanish Constitution is the supreme law of the Spanish legal system and that it is enforced in state, regional and local governments. This reference to state and local governments leads us to introduce the division of the geographical area of Spain, which is made of municipalities, provinces and Self-governing Communities¹². Firstly, municipalities are the villages and cities in Spain. In each municipality there is a Council which is a local-governing body headed by a mayor or a mayoress. Secondly, a group of municipalities forms a province, *i.e.* Ponferrada and Carracedelo are municipalities of León. All the municipalities that are part of a province are coordinated by a provincial Government. Finally, a group of provinces forms a Self-governing Community, *i.e.* the province of Cáceres and the province of Badajoz form the Self-governing Community of Extremadura. Each Self-governing Community has its own government, which is headed by the president of the Self-governing Community —it also has its own Constitution called Statute of Autonomy (*ibid.*, p. 44). There are 17 Self-governing Communities and two autonomous cities in Spain. Therefore, the Spanish State is made up of a group of self-governing communities as a whole and it is ruled by the Government, which is headed by the Prime Minister of Spain (*ibid.*, p. 44).

As the majority of legal systems, Spain has three different branches in its government: legislative, executive and judicial power. First of all, legislative power is exercised by the Parliament who is in charge of the draft, approval and enactment of laws. Secondly, the Government is in charge of executive power which is responsible of the enforcement of laws enacted by the Parliament. The Government is made up of the Prime Minister, one or more Deputy Prime

¹¹ *The Spanish Constitution* is the official translation for *Constitución Española* provided by the Spanish Official Gazette (The Spanish Constitution, <https://www.boe.es/legislacion/documentos/ConstitucionINGLES.pdf>)

¹² As in the official webpage of the Spanish Government (La Moncloa, <https://www.lamoncloa.gob.es/lang/en/Paginas/index.aspx>), *Self-governing Communities* is written in capital letters and *municipalities* and *provinces* are written in lower-case letters because they have been taken from the official webpage of the Spanish Government.

Ministers and the Council of Ministers. Public administration also takes part in the executive power and it is the group of officers that carry out public works for the Government (*ibid.*, p. 38). And finally, judiciary power is responsible of guaranteeing the accomplishment of laws by institutions and citizens (La Moncloa, 2019). The most important body of the judiciary power is the Supreme Court (Berbel Leyva, 2002, p. 39).

On the 1st January 1986, Spain became a Member State of the European Union. This means that the three branches of the government in Spain have to comply with EU's Law (Embid Irujo, 2010, p. 157).

Since this study is about a particular law, it is crucial to go into detail on the law-making in Spain. According to Berbel Leyva, there are four types of laws in addition to the Constitution: organic laws¹³, ordinary laws, regulations and ministerial orders (Berbel Leyva, 2002, p. 20). Furthermore, the laws made by the Parliament can be: basic laws and statutes affecting individual rights and duties, Orders in Council, decree-laws, and legislative initiatives (*ibid.*, p. 38). At the same time, these classifications of laws depend on another classification, *i.e.* the field of law: civil law, criminal law, administrative law, procedural law, financial law, etc.

As said above, Parliament is in charge of creating laws. The Spanish Parliament —whose official name is *Cortes Generales*— comprises two Houses: the Congress of Deputies and the Senate (*ibid.*, p. 36). On the one hand, the Senate is composed of 266 Senators. These Senators are elected by a dual procedure; they are elected in provincial constituencies —each province elects a Senator— and appointed by regional Parliaments —there is one Senator who established for each Self-governing Community and another one for each one million inhabitants in their respective territory (Senado de España, 2019).

On the other hand, the Congress of Deputies has a minimum of 300 deputies and a maximum of 400 deputies. There is one deputy elected in each province (also one in the city of Ceuta and one in the city of Melilla). The other deputies are distributed depending on population volume (The Spanish Constitution, 1978, p. 23).

Both Houses have different bodies. The Senate has three governing bodies: Speaker, Bureau and The Board of Spokesperson. Furthermore, Senate's functional organs are: Plenary Sitzings, Permanent Deputation and Committees and Reporting Bodies¹⁴ (Senado de España, 2019). The Congress of Deputies' bodies are: Bureau, Board of Spokesperson, Permanent Deputation, Committees, Subcommittees and Reporting Sub-committees and Secretariat General¹⁵ (Congreso de los Diputados, 2019). The main functions of the Congress of

¹³ Organic laws are basic laws and statutes affecting individual rights and duties (Berbel Leyva, 2002, p. 20).

¹⁴ The terms referring the Senate's governing bodies and organs are translations from the official webpage of the Spanish Senate (Senado de España, <http://www.senado.es/web/index.html?lang=en>).

¹⁵ The terms referring the Congress of Deputies' bodies are translations provided by the official webpage of the Congress of Deputies (Congress, <http://www.congreso.es/portal/page/portal/Congreso/Congreso>).

Deputies and the Senate are: legislative function, budgetary function, authorisation of international treaties, supervision and political impetus, territorial integration and election of other bodies (Senado de España, 2019).

As this study is about laws —about abortion laws in particular—, we are going to focus on the laws' draft, approval and enactment procedures. For this purpose, we are going to explain an ordinary legislative procedure, which has three phases: initial phase, constituent phase and final phase (Senado de España, 2019).

First, the initial phase consists of the presentation of a legislative initiative. The legislative initiative can be a draft law¹⁶ —when its author is the Government— or a proposal of a law¹⁷ —when its author is the Congress, the Senate, a Self-governing Community or 500,000 citizens. Draft laws and proposals of laws are usually presented in the Congress of Deputies, but Parliamentary Groups or 25 Senators can also present them in the Senate. In this case, there is a period of 15 days after the publication of the legislative initiative to present other alternative proposals of law. After this period of time, a proposal or proposals of law are considered in a Plenary Sitting. Then, the proposal is voted. If it is approved, the proposal of law is presented before the Congress of Deputies. If it is not approved, the procedure ends (Senado de España, 2019). Among the texts that begin their procedure in the Congress of Deputies, draft laws from the Government do not need to be under consideration. On the other hand, proposals of law need to be considered in a Plenary Sitting of the Congress of Deputies (*ibid.*).

The second phase is the constituent phase, which is the phase aimed at determining the content of the future law through deliberations and voting in both Houses. Once the text is already in the Congress of Deputies, the Bureau presents it before the respective Committee, it is published and the amendments period starts. In case of amendments, single reading and voting take place in Plenary Sitting.

Later, there is a Reporting meeting and, as a result, a report about the proposal, which may modify the text. Then, the respective Commission debates, votes and delivers an opinion which may also modify the text. After that, dissenting votes are presented and defended in Plenary Sitting, but no amendments are accepted by the Committee. Then, in Plenary Sitting, there are a debate and voting that may alter the text. Finally, the President of the Congress presents the approved text before the Senate; in the Senate, the procedure is similar to the one followed in the Congress of Deputies, but in the Senate, the procedure is limited by the period of two months established by the Constitution —for urgent draft laws, the period is shorter (20 days). The text received from the Congress of Deputies is published and the Bureau of the Senate decides which Committee proceeds. Moreover, there is a period for amendments and proposals of veto (10 days that can extend to 15 if asked by 25 Senators). If there are no amendments, the draft law or the proposal of law are

¹⁶ A draft law is a project of a law.

¹⁷ This translation is ours.

debated in Plenary Sitting. In case of amendments or proposals of veto, the Committee can design a Reporting Body for the report —this step can be eliminated if the Committee considers it is unnecessary.

So, the report has to be done within 15 days and it may modify the text. After that 15-day-period, there is a debate in the Committee; deliberations must start with proposals of veto (following its presentation order) and, then, amendments. Voting the report is the last stage of the debate. During the debate, *in voce* amendments about previous amendments and corrections of the text can take place. After approving the Opinion of the Committee — which comprises approved amendments—, Senators have one day to present alternative proposals to the Opinion by dissenting votes —they can't be new proposals (Senado de España, 2019). Before Constitutional period ends, there is a debate and voting in Plenary Sitting that has different phases: presentation of the Opinion of the Committee by the respective Senator, debate about the totality and debate about veto proposals if any —absolute majority is required to approve a veto.

On the one hand, if the veto is approved, the totality is rejected and the President of the Senate communicates it to the President of the Congress of Deputies and to the President of the Government; on the other hand, if the veto is rejected, there is a debate about dissenting votes. After this, the opinion of the committee, *i.e.* modification proposals, is presented, and these modification proposals must be signed by the totality of Spokespersons of the Parliamentary Groups or the majority of the Spokespersons who represent the majority of the Senators, or they must have voted it in the dissenting voting. If the Senate does not approve the veto or does not introduce amendments to the text, the text is presented before the President of the Government for sanction. Otherwise, if veto is approved or amendments are introduced in the text, it goes back to the Congress of Deputies for its ratification —the Congress can approve or reject amendments of the Senate by simple majority of its members or by simple majority after the two-month period (*ibid.*). If the Congress of Deputies is the last one that intercedes, it presents the text before the President of the Government for sanction and enactment by the King (*ibid.*).

The final phase has three stages: sanction, enactment and publication of the law in the Spanish Official Gazette¹⁸ (*ibid.*). In the *Figure 4* we can see all the procedure already explained.

¹⁸ Official translation of BOE (*Boletín Oficial del Estado*).

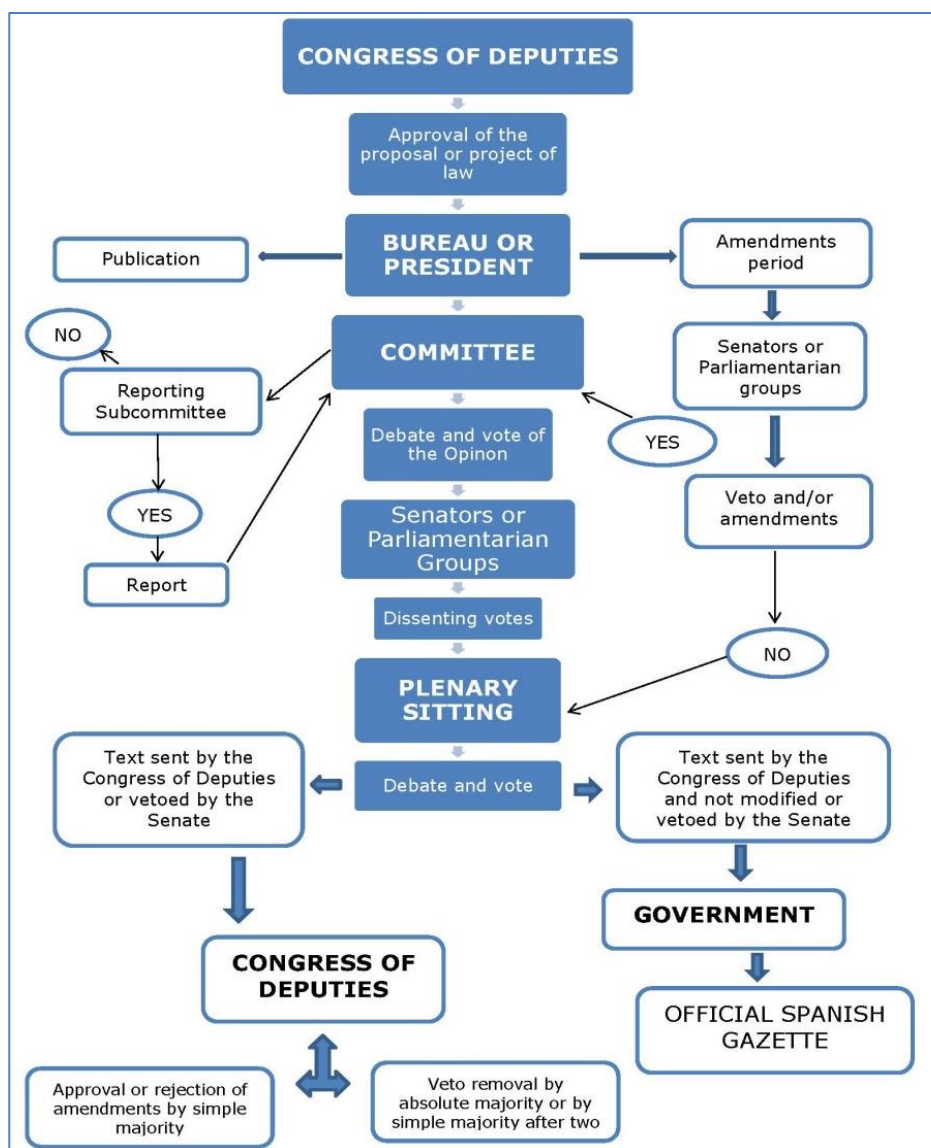


Figure 4: Ordinary legislative procedure

Now, we are going to explain the abortion law in force in Spain —*Ley Orgánica 2/2010, de 3 de marzo, de Salud Sexual y Reproductiva y de la Interrupción Voluntaria del Embarazo*—, which is an organic law. It was published on 4th March 2010 in the Spanish Official Gazette and it came into effect on 5th July 2010 (Boletín Oficial del Estado, 2010). In Spain, before the approval of the abortion law of 2010, there was previous abortion law, *Ley Orgánica 9/1985*, which was substituted by the abortion the abortion law of 2010 that is currently in force. This previous abortion law legalised the termination of the pregnancy in three circumstances: rape, physical and psychological risk to the life of the pregnant woman and malformation of the foetus (Boletín Oficial del Estado, 1985). Then, when the current abortion law was approved, abortion was legalised in any circumstance if the pregnancy has not exceeded its 14th week. Nevertheless, on February 2015, there was an amendment approved: any woman under 16 and 17 years old must have her parents' agreement for the termination of their pregnancy (Boletín Oficial del Estado, 2015).

3. LINGUISTIC FRAMEWORK: LEGAL LANGUAGE

After explaining the legal framework of our end-of-degree project, we are going to complete our theoretical framework describing the linguistic framework. Language can be general or specialised; general language is the group of rules and units used by speakers to communicate and express themselves (Gallego Hernández, 2012, p. 30). Besides, common language, which would take part in the general language, is the one known by most speakers and it links the specialised or professional languages used in different contexts. Hence, specialised languages, which have their own lexical units with particular features, in addition to general language's lexical units, are general language's subgroups used in specific situations (*ibid.*). In other words, specialised languages are those used by professionals and experts of a specific area of knowledge to give information and improve terms, concepts and knowledge, but always putting them in context in their area of knowledge and modifying them if necessary (Alcaraz Varó & Hughes, 2002, p. 15).

On the other hand, specialised languages are also denominated as Professional and Academic Languages —PAE and PAS¹⁹—: they are named professional languages because experts are the ones who use them in their conferences, books, specialised magazines and also in their every-day life; and they are called academic languages due to the fact that they have been taught and learnt at University before employed in a specialised professional area (*ibid.*).

So, now, we are going to explain, from a lexicological, syntactic and stylistic point of view, the main characteristics of specialised language in the area of the law: legal English and legal Spanish.

3.1. Legal English

Legal English texts are characterised by formality and conventionality —due to the official and representative qualities of the bodies that enact them— and also impersonality —through avoiding personal pronouns, adjectives, intensifying adverbs, interjections and multiple nominalisations— that is meant to give a distant and impartial impression (Borja Albi, 2000, p. 24)

Now, we are going to explain the main tendencies of legal English, which we have divided into three levels: semantic, morphological and syntactic, and stylistic.

On the semantic level of legal English, we can find different features: terms from the general language with a special meaning, archaisms and formal expressions, Latin and French terms and expressions, specialised terms and professional argot (*ibid.* p.30)

Firstly, there is a frequent use of common words with specialised meanings, which are called 'terms of art'.

Secondly, archaisms —such as 'wineseth' or 'hereinbefore'— and formal terms —such as 'expend' instead of 'spend' or 'complete' instead of 'finish'— are also used; jurists use legalisms and lawyerisms, which complicates the comprehension of the text (Mellinkoff, 1963, in Borja Albi, 2000, p. 31).

Thirdly, legal English has terms borrowed²⁰ from Latin, French and ancient

¹⁹ That is Professional and Academic English and Professional and Academic Spanish.

²⁰ See Alcaraz Varó, 1996, pp. 74-75 for more information.

English; however, due to the attachment of legal English to classic rules²¹—legal Spanish and legal English share these three lexical sources. At this point, it is important to know that foreign words have been introduced into English by three ways: borrowing, adoption and derivation, and calques. Latinisms can be Latin terms and expressions or Latin words adapted to English; the first ones can be specialised terms—as *prima facie* or *ex parte*—, and which have no equivalent in the common language, or also can be remains from Latin with an equivalent — some of these have been consolidated in the general language on its original form in Latin, because they have been greatly used.

Fourthly, professional argot is a way of communication developed by members of a determined field in order to communicate with each other fast and efficiently and, sometimes, also to avoid other people —external to the profession— understanding them. Therefore, all those lexical characteristics explained create the so-called legal argot —only used among professionals—, which can range from colloquial expressions to very specialised ones (Borja Albi, 2000, pp. 30-35).

Then, on the morphological and syntactic level of legal English, we can distinguish different aspects such as long and complex sentences, abundant post-modification, unusual order, omission of interrogative elements, special verbal and prepositional expressions, peculiar use of conditional clauses and parallel structures and binomial expressions, among others (*ibid.*, pp. 37-46).

Firstly, the abundance of nominalisations with post-modification that leads to long and complex noun phrases is due to the fact that accuracy and avoiding ambiguity are needed above style. We have to add to this feature, the lack of punctuation, which makes even more difficult the comprehension of the text.

Secondly, passive sentences are frequently used—which happens also in legal Spanish— unadaptable to active voice, because the agent is not always known.

Thirdly, the use of special determinatives with rare pre-modification is also present; nevertheless, there are not many determinatives: important cases are 'such' without defined article and 'said' and 'aforesaid' as pre-modifiers.

Fourthly, peculiar and complex prepositional locutions are used in legal English such as 'preposition + noun + preposition' —'by virtue of' instead of 'by'. We can also see the use of peculiar verbal groups (non-finite, impersonal, and finite, modal-auxiliary type: shall + past participle and may + infinitive), formal verbs from restricted semantic fields (such as 'agree', 'state', 'constitute', etc.) and long concatenations of phrasal verbs making difficult to understand which preposition depends on which verb (*ibid.*, pp. 46-63).

Fifthly, suffixed prepositions, such as archaisms with suffixed prepositions, sometimes can be used to give a more formal and pompous style to the text ('I hereby declare' is the same as 'I declare'). Besides, adverbs in initial position as connectors constitute another characteristic of legal language in English, they are also archaizing —such as 'whereas', 'provided that', 'without prejudice', etc. It is interesting how adverbs mark the structure and progress of the text. In the light of these principles, the main textual attitudes in legal English are: multiple subordination and long sentences —also present in legal Spanish—, use of characteristic connectors, lack and specificity of anaphors, abundant lexical repetition, lack of substitution, marked thematic progression and particular interpreting rules (*ibid.*).

²¹ This attachment to classic sources is more noticeable in other specialised languages in English

After the morphological and syntactic level, we have the stylistic level, which is involved in Graphemics. Graphemics 'is the branch of language study dealing with the relationship between speech sounds and the writing system of a language' (Collins Dictionary, 2019).

Legal texts, as any other type-text, have a defined text format. Ancient legal texts did not have a defined text format; nonetheless, current legal texts have some typographic standards (such as paragraph format, indentation, fonts, etc.) in order to indicate the importance and logic sequencing of the facts. Some of this typographic standards are the use of capitals —there are some standards about capitals, such as using them in initial position to dignify institutions, participants or sections to mark the importance of a determined term or to organize the sequencing of the text— and the lack of punctuation in order to avoid manipulations and because, in the past, texts were written to be archived and not to be read. Therefore, the lack of punctuation makes difficult the comprehension of the text and two of its purposes is avoiding misunderstandings and giving some ambiguity to the texts, which permits jurists understand them as they wish depending on the situation (Borja Albi, 2000, pp. 24-29).

3.2. Legal Spanish

Once we have gone through the main characteristics of legal English, we will outline and explain legal Spanish.

Legal Spanish is more important each day due to its presence in international organisations and institutions; Spanish is an official language of the EU (European Union) and UN (United Nations) (Alcaraz Varó & Hughes, 2002, p. 16).

So, legal Spanish is an opaque, unnatural and obscure language. Opacity leads to obscurantism, which is the opposition to the systemic diffusion of information among working classes, and, this means that, for a non-specialised reader, legal Spanish looks mysterious²² ; legal Spanish and legal English share this condition. Consequently, obscure points preclude the legal language from fulfilling its communicative function, which is the comprehension and accomplishment of the law. In spite of that, legal Spanish in EU's texts is definitely clearer (*ibid.*, pp. 18-19). In addition, the unnatural feature of legal Spanish is present in the excessive formalism, the stilted and over-elaborated lexicon and the embroiled syntax. The effects of this characteristic are not only the lack of elegance or stylistic grace, but the syntactic incoherence²³ (*ibid.*, p. 21).

Now, we are going to explain the main lexical and syntactic tendencies of legal Spanish, which we have divided into three levels: semantic, morphological and syntactic and stylistic.

On the semantic level of legal Spanish, we can distinguish three different features: the audacity in creating new terms, the lexical expressive redundancy and the different borrowings and calques from classic and modern sources.

Firstly, the audacity to create new terms is very remarkable, *i.e.* from *alimento* to *alimentista* (*ibid.*, p. 26). Even if native Spanish speakers have a tendency towards linguistic conservatism, legal Spanish experts do not share this tendency; in fact, as soon as they need to create a new term, they do it without hesitation, *i.e.* *elemento culpabilístico*. Nevertheless, sometimes, this tendency

²² Legal Spanish and legal English share this condition.

²³ Anacoluthon.

can be excessive, as in *alienidad*. Besides, in examples such as ... *la necesidad de la conducta omisiva*... we can see the linguistic automatism of legal Spanish experts and also an excessive use of it; in these cases, legal jargon, which is considered obvious, can be unbearable. So, on the one hand, this automatism is positive because it clarifies or adds important information to terms, but, on the other hand, it can damage the elegance and spontaneity of the text (Alcaraz Varó & Hughes, 2002, pp. 26-27).

Secondly, lexical expressive redundancy is the fact that jurists notice that terms can be confusing and, consequently, they try to specify them adding another term with a similar meaning next to it, *i.e. órganos y entidades*; this feature of lexical redundancy in many cases is necessary, but, in other cases it is not (Alcaraz Varó & Hughes, 2002, p. 28). This feature of legal texts is also called *dobletes* or *parejas*²⁴ —[...] *en aras de la libertad y convivencia en paz* [...]— and *tripletes* or *tríos*²⁵ —[...] *disposiciones superlativamente dispersas, oscuras y problemáticas* [...]—.

Thirdly, Legal Spanish has classic sources —Latinisms, Hellenisms and Arabisms— and modern sources —Anglicisms and Gallicisms (*ibid.*).

In the classic sources, Latinisms represent the main one because Spanish is a Romance language²⁶ and Spanish law is based in Roman law. So, Latinisms are the group of terms, expressions and linguistic turns originating from Latin. When speaking about Latinisms in legal Spanish, we distinguish three groups: crude Latinisms²⁷—all the expressions that have been taken from Latin with no change, such as *ab initio*, *sine die* or *ut supra*—, terms derived from Latin —all the expressions and terms derived from Latin and many of them are not used in any other specialised language, but in legal Spanish, *i.e.* from *lis*, *litis* to *lite*; from *usufructus* to *usufructo*; some Latinisms have entered legal Spanish through another language different from Latin, such as from ‘abduction’ in English, which comes from *abduction-onis*, to *abducción*— and classic Latin prefixes —all the Latin prefixes used for the creation of new words in legal Spanish, *i.e.* *ab-*, *ex-* or *sub-*— (*ibid.*, pp. 32-35).

Despite the large impact of Latinisms in legal Spanish, Hellenisms and Arabisms should be mentioned due to the cultural and historical influence they have. So, Hellenisms are terms and expressions that come from Greek (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2019). Hellenisms are very important for medicine, literature, etc. and they are also represented in the legal field, but many of them have entered into legal Spanish by Latin, French and even English —*amnistía* or *democracia* are two examples— (*ibid.*, p. 35). Then, Arabisms, which are terms derived from Arabic, are common in everyday-Spanish lexicon, but not as much in legal Spanish —*i.e. alcaide*— (*ibid.*, p. 36).

Then, in the modern sources of legal Spanish Anglicisms can be loanwords or calques from English —such as *firma* from ‘firm’ or *arrestar* from ‘arrest’— and Gallicisms can be calques and borrowings from French —*a mano armada* from *à main armée* or *cotizar* from *coter* are some examples. It is important to know that Gallicisms are present in legal Spanish due to the fact that Spanish law is also based in Napoleonic law (Alcaraz, Hughes, & Gómez, 2014, pp. 38-40).

Moreover, polysemy, homonymy, figurative language, personification and

²⁴ There are two words in the expression.

²⁵ There are three words.

²⁶ Romance languages are the group of languages derived from Vulgar Latin (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2019).

²⁷ This translation is ours.

lexical metaphors are also present in legal Spanish's lexicon (Alcaraz, Hughes, & Gómez, 2014, pp. 81-95).

After explaining the main characteristics of this specialised language, we can classify legal Spanish's terminology in three different groups: technical vocabulary —univocal terms only used in the legal field—, semi-technical vocabulary —terms from every-day language that have added one or more meanings in the legal field and they are only understandable in context due to their polysemy— and every-day vocabulary (*ibid.*, pp. 56-62).

On the morphological and syntactic level, the attraction to archaizing and elements, the attachment to stereotyped expressions and the inclination towards nominalisation are remarkable.

Firstly, the attraction to archaizing and grandiloquent elements of legal Spanish leads to connotations of exaggeration. Some examples of this tendency are the use of future imperfect subjunctive²⁸ —such as *El que atentare...*—, rarely used pronouns —such as *cualesquiera*— and expressions —such as *fehaciente* or *decaer en su derecho* (*ibid.*, p. 24). Another feature of this specialised language is the use of ablative absolute clauses, which are structures whose predicate is a past participle, an infinitive or a gerund that belongs to a sentence on which depends because of the meaning, but they have not grammar link, such as in this example: *Finalizada la subasta, se liberarán o devolverán las cantidades consignadas por los postores excepto lo que corresponda al mejor postor [...]*. Furthermore, the excessive use of gerunds —which could be influenced by English or French— and deontic structures —when obligation or necessity has to be expressed such as *haber de* or *tener que*— are also archaizing characteristics of legal Spanish, as well as, passive voice (Iannone, Calvi & San José, 2017, pp. 27-29).

Secondly, the attachment to stereotyped expressions —such as *que estimando como estimo* instead of *estimo*— is another trend of legal Spanish which is rhetoric and does not add anything to communication. Besides, lexicon can be symbolic or relational: symbolic lexicon includes lexical units that represent the reality —*ley, demanda*— and relational lexicon comprises lexical units that mark relations among different elements of the sentence —*mediante, a tenor de*—; we can see stereotyped expressions in both types of lexicon (Alcaraz, Hughes, & Gómez, 2014, pp. 25-26).

Thirdly, inclination towards nominalisation is the transformation of a sentence into a noun phrase and the conversion of a term from a determined grammar category²⁹ into a noun. Most of nominalisations in legal Spanish are formed with suffixes —such as *-idad, -miento, -ción*, etc. Besides, there is a phenomenon called 'emptiness' —because it adds no information— that is the use of a verb to complement the term nominalised, instead of simply verbalize the second, *i.e. interponer un recurso* instead of *recurrir*. Nevertheless, most empty verbs are synonyms of *hacer, decir* or *tomar* among others (*ibid.*, pp. 28-29). In addition, nominalisations can become cacophonies; however, they are not only lexical and semantic strategies, but also messages' organisation strategies —when nominalising verbs we omit information such as who carried out the action and for whom, verbal tenses and modes, etc. (Fowler, 1986, in Alcaraz Varó & Hughes, 2002, p. 30).

Furthermore, nominalisation leads to relexicalisation, which is the coining of specialised terms that imply mysterious, obscure and, sometimes, prodigious

²⁸ We provided this translation.

²⁹ Adjective, adverb, noun, verb, etc.

meanings —*i.e. ejecutoriar* (Alcaraz Varó & Hughes, 2002, p. 31). And, finally, syntactic structure is also an important point, because different from other specialised languages in Spanish, which are characterised by the use of coordination and juxtaposition, legal Spanish is characterised by the excessive use of subordination, which is caused by the presence of anaphors —such as *refierido* or *citado*. In fact, this feature can confuse non-professional readers, but this subordination is needed in order to effectively inform in detail in legal texts (*ibid.*, pp. 115-117). Hence, in order to clarify the pure syntactic tendencies of legal Spanish, they are: the use of future imperfect of subjunctive, the use of ablative absolute, the excessive use of gerunds, long noun phrases and its evaluative adjectivisation, authoritarian and deontic mode³⁰ and syntactic ambiguity.

And, finally, on the stylistic level, the misuse of punctuation and the arbitrary use of capitals are notable in legal Spanish (*ibid.*, pp. 103-114). After having explained the mainly characteristics of both specialised languages, we are going to classify legal texts by genre: normative texts include all legislative regulations —laws, decrees, etc.—, judicial texts —those texts that regulate any relation between people and the administration and judicial bodies—, case-law texts —all sentences issued by the court of justice and by the judicial bodies—, reference works —involves all the works, such as dictionaries or encyclopaedias, that jurists use to clarify doubts or questions they may have—, doctrinal texts —which are expositive and argumentative texts and among them we can include legal manuals, thesis or specialised publications—, and, finally, law-application texts —are public and private legal documents which do not belong to the already-mentioned categories such as testaments, contracts, etc. — (Borja Albi, 2002, pp. 79-124).

4. NORMATIVE TEXTS

Subsequent to the enumeration of the main genres of legal language, and taking into account the purpose of our study, we are going to classify normative texts in both languages.

On the one hand, Spanish normative texts are the Spanish Constitution, Statutes of Autonomy, Organic Laws, Ordinary Laws, Decrees, Orders and Regulations. On the other hand, English normative texts are Acts, Statutes, Bills, Rules, Orders and Regulations. Issuing bodies of Spanish and English normative texts are the legislative power³¹ in both cases. Their tone is very formal and they are written to be read as first instructive and second argumentative texts, with the purpose of regulating human relations in systems based in the rule of law (*ibid.*, pp. 86-97).

There are some differences between the denominations of the genres; nevertheless, its normative function is the same for both legal systems.

So, now, we are going to outline the main structure of normative texts, particularly laws, in both cases. On the one hand, the laws of Spain are named with a number and the year, month and day they have been enacted. All the laws follow the same macrostructure. First of all, they have a preamble, where the reasons are exposed; then the called articulated, which is constituted by different titles divided in chapters and then in articles; and then provisions,

³⁰ The attitude of the speaker.

³¹ Note that we are focusing in Spain and the UK.

which are divided into additional provisions, temporary provisions and derogatory provisions. After this, there is a final provision, which indicates the date when the law in question came into effect. Finally, there is a conclusion and signatures.

On the other hand, the laws of the UK (Acts) have a characteristic macro-structure that we list in order: preliminary data (short title, official citation, long title and date of Royal Assent), enacting formula and main text (sections and subsections) and schedules.

The micro-structure of legislative texts is characterised by impersonality and by having the same intention regardless of who wrote them and for whom. In other words, the editor is responsible for shaping in a linguistic way what has been decided in Parliament and must faithfully reflect the will of Parliament and also make it understandable to the reader (Borja Albi, 2000, pp. 86-97).

5. ANALYSIS OF MACRO- AND MICRO-STRUCTURAL FEATURES OF ABORTION LAWS IN THE UK AND SPAIN

5.1. Methodology of analysis

After normative texts outline, we are going to analyse the abortion laws of the United Kingdom ('Abortion Act 1967') and of Spain (*Ley Orgánica 2/2010, de 3 de marzo, de Salud Sexual y Reproductiva y de la Interrupción Voluntaria del Embarazo*). We took these texts from the Government of the UK and from the Spanish Official Gazette respectively.

These texts are normative texts written in order to be understood and accomplished by everyone. Some differences that we must know before starting are that the Spanish law has 15 pages and 7,593 words and the English law has seven pages and 2,272 words. The number of words and pages is very important because it is already a characteristic distinguishing the laws.

We chose those texts because, due to the geographical application of laws, there are not many studies dedicated to the contrastive analysis of both macro- and micro-structural analysis of laws.

In order to analyse them, we based our study on the representatives of the linguistic and textual currents, who consider texts units of fundamental analysis, but always taking into account the context.

So, we are going to make a two-staged analysis of the law following Van Dijk. Van Dijk uses the distinction between deep structure and superficial structure in the texts, thus we can distinguish macro- and micro-textual components. Therefore, within the macro-structural components, connections between isolated sentences are not relevant, which would be relevant for the micro-structural components, but rather the connections of the text as a whole. Then, van Dijk speaks about micro-structures to refer to sentence structures and text sequences, and defines the macro-structure as a global textual structure with a semantic nature and different from other structures from lower levels. That is, the macro-structure is an abstract representation of the text that tends to the global comprehension of its meaning.

On the other hand, when we speak about microstructure, we can say that there are two features that all texts share: coherence and cohesion. Cohesion refers to the components of the textual surface and is intimately related to the

lexical-syntactic mechanisms that make up the text; we can divide cohesion into lexical cohesion and grammatical cohesion. After this, the characteristics of the texts must be fulfilled both at the micro- and macro-structural levels, as well as at the macro-structural level (García Izquierdo, 2012, pp. 80-112).

Once we have distinguished the two phases of our analysis, we based our macro-structural analysis on previous macro-structural analysis of Vázquez y del Árbol, and we based our micro-structural analysis on Borja Albi’s division of legal languages’ aspects. Hence, we have carried out the following analysis, starting with a macro-structural comparison in which we have contrasted the information in each part of each law identifying the differences and similarities between both laws and showing all these elements in *Table 1*. We continued with our micro-structural analysis³² looking for semantic aspects, morphological and syntactic aspects, and stylistic aspects³³. In the micro-structural analysis, we also identified differences and similarities and showed them on tables.



5.2. Macro-structural analysis

In order to explain the macro-structural analysis of our texts, we present a table where we compared both laws according to the information they carry in each chapter or section.

EN	ES
<p>Abortion Act 1967 (c.87) Document Generated: 2018-06-29 At the heading of all the pages of the document, except the 1st one, we can find the information above. However, at the heading of even pages, (2nd, 4th and 6th) it is right-aligned; but at the heading of odd numbers (3rd, 5th and 7th). It is left-aligned.</p> <p>Changes to legislation: Abortion Act 1967 is up to date with all changes known to be in force on or before 29 June 2018. There are changes that may be brought into force at a future date. Changes that have been made appear in the content and are referenced with annotations. (See end of Document for details)</p> <p>At the heading of all the pages (the 1st one included), we can see a reference to the changes made to the law, this reference leads us to the annotations made through all the text and to the last page (7th).</p>	

³² Borja Albi also defines textual aspects, but in our case, textual aspects would be in the macro-structural analysis.

³³ We also changed graphemic aspects into stylistic aspects due to the fact that stylistic aspects involve graphemic aspects and more aspect related to style.

 <p>At the 1st page, before the short title, we can find the British national coat.</p>	 <p>LEGISLACIÓN CONSOLIDADA</p> <p>In the first page we find the acronym <i>BOE</i>, which belongs to <i>Boletín Oficial del Estado</i> (Spanish Official Gazette) and inside of the letter 'O', we can see the Spanish national coat. However, this figure only appears at the heading of the first page, at the heading of all the other pages appears this:</p> <p style="text-align: center;">BOLETÍN OFICIAL DEL ESTADO LEGISLACIÓN CONSOLIDADA</p>
<p>Abortion Act 1967 This is the short title of the law.</p>	
<p>1967 CHAPTER 87 This is the official citation of the law.</p>	<p>Ley Orgánica 2/2010, de 3 de marzo, de salud sexual y reproductiva y de la interrupción voluntaria del embarazo.</p> <p>This is the official name of the law following the already-explained structure: number, year, day and month of enactment.</p>
<p>An Act to [...]. The long title explains shortly what the law is about.</p>	
<p>[27th October 1967] Date of Royal Assent, in other words, the date when it was approved and not the date when it came into force. This date is written next to the long title —explained in the previous row — but it is right-aligned.</p>	<p>Jefatura del Estado «BOE» núm. 55, de 4 de marzo de 2010 Referencia: BOE-A-2010-3514 After the official name of the text we found the name of the department of the government in charge, the place where it is published and when, and, finally, the reference of the law. It is important to know that the date of enactment is different from the date of publication, which is also different from the date when the law comes into force. This information is centre-aligned.</p>
	<p>ÍNDICE It is an index where all the following titles, chapters and articles are organised in order of appearance.</p>
	<p>TEXTO CONSOLIDADO Última modificación: 22 de septiembre de 2015 This shows us the date of the latest modification of the text, as we could see in the heading of all the pages of</p>

	the abortion law of the UK.
In the latest-updated British abortion law, the one we are analysing, there is no enacting formula, despite the fact that the original abortion law and the study of the structure of English laws on which we are basing our comparison have these enacting words.	JUAN CARLOS I REY DE ESPAÑA A todos los que [...]. Sabad: [...]. Later, we can see the enacting formula which introduces the law and the name of the King ³⁴ , who is the authority of the department of the government in charge of enacting the law (<i>Jefatura del Estado</i>). After the name of the King we can see his charge and the mention of the public to whom the law is addressed.
	Preámbulo The <i>Preámbulo</i> is a preamble in which all the reasons of the law are and the decisions taken are explained. The preamble has three parts: I, II, III.
	TÍTULO PRELIMINAR. Disposiciones generales. The preliminary title is the first part of the called 'articulated' —explained before— and it establishes the object, definitions and inspiring principles of the law and also declares the rights that guarantees. It is divided into four articles: <i>Artículo 1. Objeto, Artículo 2. Definiciones, Artículo 3. Principios y ámbito de aplicación</i> and <i>Artículo 4. Garantía de igualdad en el acceso.</i>
Annotations ³⁵ : Annotations authorise changes and other effects on this law and also convey editorial information. These annotations are divided into 'Modifications', which do not alter the text, and 'Commencement Information'. There are three Modifications in this section: C1, C2, C3; and one Commencement Information: I1.	
	TÍTULO I De la salud sexual y

³⁴ Nowadays, the King of Spain is Felipe VI.

³⁵ Annotations can have inner references to this text or external references. External references are references to other texts of the legislation. In addition, annotations appear all over the text.

	<p>reproductiva</p> <p>This first title introduces sexual and reproductive health and is divided into four chapters.</p> <p>CAPÍTULO I Políticas públicas para la salud sexual y reproductiva</p> <p>This first chapter shows the public politics for sexual and reproductive health and it has two articles: <i>Artículo 5. Objetivos de la actuación de los poderes públicos</i> and <i>Artículo 6. Acciones informativas de sensibilización.</i></p> <p>CAPÍTULO II Medidas en el ámbito sanitario</p> <p>The second chapter of the first title speaks about the health sector measurements, in particular, about health care and about professionals' training. In addition, it is divided into two articles: <i>Artículo 7. Atención a la salud sexual y reproductiva</i> and <i>Artículo 8. Formación de profesionales de la salud.</i></p> <p>CAPÍTULO III Medidas en el ámbito educativo</p> <p>The third chapter explains the measures related to the educational field and it has two articles, the first is about including reproductive and sexual subjects into the educational system, and the second is about making activities about reproductive and sexual education. The two articles of this chapter are: <i>Artículo 9. Incorporación de la formación en salud sexual y reproductiva al sistema educativo</i> and <i>Artículo 10. Actividades formativas.</i></p> <p>CAPÍTULO IV Estrategia de salud sexual y reproductiva</p> <p>And, finally, in this first title, we have the fourth chapter that explains the elaboration of a strategy of reproductive and sexual health as a tool of collaboration between the diverse public administrations in order to achieve the appropriate development of public politics in this field. This fourth chapter has one chapter: <i>Artículo 11. Elaboración de la</i></p>
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	<i>Estrategia de Salud Sexual y Reproductiva.</i>
<p>SECTION 1: Medical termination of pregnancy. This section explains the conditions of the medical termination of pregnancy, when and which requirements are necessary in order to carry out the medical termination of pregnancy. This section has different subsections: Subsection (1), Subsection (2), Subsection (3) and Subsection (4). [Annotations : amendments and modifications]</p> <p>SECTION 2: Notification This section exposes the necessary procedure of notification in order to terminate a pregnancy. This section has four subsections: Subsection (1), Subsection (2), Subsection (3) and Subsection (4). [Annotations : subordinate legislation made, amendments and modifications]</p>	<p>TÍTULO II De la interrupción voluntaria del embarazo The second title —which is the last of the articulated— introduces regulations about voluntary termination of pregnancy and the guarantees on entering the assistance/ service. This second title is divided into two chapters. CAPÍTULO I Condiciones de la interrupción voluntaria del embarazo The first chapter is about the conditions in the voluntary termination of pregnancy and it consists of six articles. The first article speaks about the guarantees on entering the voluntary termination of pregnancy; the second is about the common requirements; the third explains the termination of pregnancy when asked by the woman; the fourth is about the termination of pregnancy due to health causes; the fifth about the Clinical Committee who would carry out the termination, and; the sixth is about the information provided before consent of the voluntary interruption of pregnancy. The six articles of this chapter are: <i>Artículo 12. Garantía de acceso a la interrupción voluntaria del embarazo, Artículo 13. Requisitos comunes, Artículo 14. Interrupción del embarazo a petición de la mujer, Artículo 15. Interrupción por causas médicas, Artículo 16. Comité clínico and Artículo 17. Información previa al consentimiento de la interrupción voluntaria del embarazo.</i></p>
<p>SECTION 3: Application of Act to visiting forces etc. This section is about the places where the termination of the pregnancy must be carried out and on which conditions. This section has two subsections: Subsection (1) and Subsection (2). [Annotations : amendments and marginal citations]</p>	<p>CAPÍTULO II Garantías en el acceso a la prestación The second chapter is about the guarantees on entering the service and it has six articles. The first article of this chapter is about the guarantees on entering the service (by the public health service), the second is about the measurements in order to guarantee those public</p>

<p>SECTION 4: Conscientious objection to participation in treatment. The fourth section is about the right of objecting to the participation on the termination that practitioners have. This section has three subsections: Subsection (1), Subsection (2), Subsection (3).</p>	<p>health services, the third speaks about the protection of privacy and confidentiality, the fourth about the processing of personal data, then, the fifth is about the accessing and transferring of personal data, and, finally, the sixth addresses cancellation of data. Therefore, the articles in this chapter are: Artículo 18. Garantía del acceso a la prestación, Artículo 19. Medidas para garantizar la prestación por los servicios de salud, Artículo 20. Protección de la intimidad y confidencialidad, Artículo 21. Tratamiento de datos, Artículo 22. Acceso y cesión de datos de carácter personal, and Artículo 23. Cancelación de datos.</p>
<p>SECTION 5: Supplementary provisions. In the fifth section we can find two supplementary provisions: Subsection (1) is about Infant Life (Preservation) Act 1929 and Subsection (2) is about when is unlawful procuring the miscarriage of a woman carrying one or more <i>foetus</i> and when it is not. [Annotations : amendments]</p>	<p>Disposiciones adicionales After the articulated, we have the provisions. And the first of the provisions are the additional provisions. There are three additional provisions. The first one is about an inspection report in order to guarantee and verify the accomplishment of the rights and services of this law, the second one is about evaluation of the costs and adoption of measurements and, eventually, the third one is about the access to contraceptive methods. Hence, the additional provisions are: <i>Disposición adicional primera. De las funciones de la Alta de Inspección, Disposición adicional segunda. Evaluación de costes y adopción de medidas</i> and <i>Disposición adicional tercera. Acceso a métodos anticonceptivos.</i></p>
	<p>Disposiciones derogatorias After additional provisions, we have derogatory provisions, but in this case there is only one: <i>Disposición derogatoria única. Derogación del artículo 417 bis del Código Penal.</i> This derogatory provision repeals the article 417 <i>bis</i> of the Criminal Code of 1973 (<i>Código Penal de 1973</i>).</p>

<p>SECTION 6: Interpretation. This section, which has no subsections, is about the interpretation of 'the law relating to abortion'. [Annotations : amendments and marginal citations]</p> <p>SECTION 7: Short title, commencement and extent. Finally, section 7 is about how may be cited this law, when it came into force and which is its territorial extent. This section has three subsections: Subsection (1), Subsection (2) and Subsection (3).</p>	<p>Disposiciones finales Then, in the last place, we have the final provisions: the first final provision redrafts the article 145 of the Criminal Code and introduces a new article 145 <i>bis</i>, the second final provision modifies the fourth paragraph of the article 9 of the <i>Ley 41/2002, de 14 de noviembre, Básica reguladora de la Autonomía del Paciente y de Derechos y Obligaciones en Materia de Información y Documentación clínica</i>, the other four remaining final provisions are about the character of the law, its regulatory development, the territorial extent of application and the date when the law came into force. So, final provisions are: <i>Disposición final primera. Modificación de la Ley Orgánica 10/1995, de 23 de noviembre del Código Penal, Disposición final segunda. Modificación de la Ley 41/2002, de 14 de noviembre, Básica reguladora de la Autonomía del Paciente y de Derechos y Obligaciones en Materia de Información y Documentación clínica, Disposición final tercera. Carácter orgánico, Disposición final cuarta. Habilitación para el desarrollo reglamentario, Disposición final quinta. Ámbito territorial de aplicación de la Ley and Disposición final sexta. Entrada en vigor.</i></p>
<p>Changes to legislation: This is the information to which all the heads of the pages is referred and it shows the last modifications' date and explains that modifications are showed in annotations. It also says that in the future, more</p>	

changes can be brought into and specifies the changes yet to be applied.	
	<p>Por tanto,</p> <p>Mando a todos los españoles, particulares y autoridades, que guarden y hagan guardar esta ley orgánica.</p> <p>Madrid, 3 de marzo de 2010.</p> <p>JUAN CARLOS R.</p> <p>El Presidente del Gobierno, JOSÉ LUIS RODRÍGUEZ ZAPATERO <i>Finally this is the conclusive formula signed by the King and the Prime Minister of Spain in the date indicated.</i></p>

Table 1: Comparison of macro-structural characteristics of the laws

After analysing the laws in the *Table 1* above, in relation to the content of both laws, even though one of them is larger than the other, which is the Spanish one, and that it regulates more than the termination of pregnancy, they share some characteristics and information.

In the first page, both of them have its respective national coat, also the official name of the law —each of them with its respective citation— and dates, which do not indicate the same information in each law —as explained before. After that, and also in the first page of the English law, there is a long title that explains shortly what the law is about. On the other hand, in the Spanish law, we have a long preamble after the index —which does not exist in the English law. This long preamble is complemented by the preliminary title, which also has general information. Later, the English law has annotations related to what has been said; this law has annotations all over the text modifying or adding amendments to what has been said in most sections. Then, the Spanish law has its first title which is about sexual and reproductive health —the English law is only about the termination of pregnancy. So, in the second title of the Spanish law, chapter one of the Spanish law corresponds to sections one and two of the English law, and chapter two with sections three and four.

Then additional provisions in the Spanish law contain similar information to section five and final provisions are also similar to section seven, even if the Spanish final provisions have more information.

Finally, the English law ends with an explanation of the changes to legislation, and the Spanish law with a conclusive formula.

5.3. Micro-structural analysis

After having compared both macro-structures distinguishing both laws' sequencing of the facts and contrasting it, we are going to describe in detail the micro-structures of both laws and compare them. For this, we are going to divide our micro-structural analysis into three levels, following Borja Albi, as we have

divided the linguistic framework's explanation, which are: semantic level, morphological and syntactic level, and stylistic level.

5.3.1. Semantic level

First of all, in the Spanish law, we noticed some automatism related to the creation of new terms, which reflects the characteristic of audacity in creating new terms frequently in legal Spanish. Nevertheless, we did not see any term creation in the English law. In the table below, we show all the new terms found and, then, from which term they were created.

AUDACITY IN CREATING NEW TERMS
ES
[...] <i>la concurrencia de la indicación</i> [...] (page 5, line 58)
Los centros prestadores del servicio [...] (page 12, line 34)
[...] <i>la disposición adicional primera mandata que</i> [...] (page 6, line 48)
[...] <i>a fin de incorporar la penalidad correspondiente</i> [...] (page 6, line 28)
[...] <i>y con respecto a su ámbito competencial</i> [...] (page 9, line 41)
[...] <i>se determinarán reglamentariamente</i> [...] (page 11, line 40)

Table 2: Audacity in creating new terms

As you can see in the table above, there are five examples of new terms creation, and they are different because of their grammar category. The first one has been created from a verb to a noun, particularly from *concurrir* to *concurrencia* —it is a nominalisation. *Prestadores* is another example of the first term-creation type. Secondly, the verb *mandatar* comes from the noun *mandato*, it also represents an archaizing feature. Then, in third place, from the noun *pena*, the noun *penalidad* was created. Fourthly, from the noun *competencia*, the adjective *competencial* was produced. And, finally, from the adjective *reglamentario*, they formed the adverb *reglamentariamente*.

Secondly, we found redundancy in some groups of terms. Although this lexical redundancy is frequent on Spanish legal texts, it is not a very notable characteristic of this text. The English law does not present lexical redundancy.

LEXICAL REDUNDANCY
ES
[...] <i>grupos o sectores</i> [...] (page 9, line 12)
[...] <i>clínicas, establecimientos o consultorios ginecológicos</i> [...] (page 14, line 23)

Table 3: Lexical redundancy

The first example of lexical redundancy that you can see in the *Table 3* is a *doblete* and the second one is a *triplete*.

In third place, we have the terms of art also called common terms with specialised meanings, exposed below.

COMMON TERMS WITH SPECIALISED MEANING
EN
[...] <i>statutory instrument</i> [...] (page 3, line 17)
[...] <i>shall be construed</i> [...] (page 4, line 22)

Table 4: Common terms with specialised meaning

In the *Table 4*, we can see that the term 'instrument' in the text means 'legal document'. So, it is a term that commonly, as Cambridge Dictionary says, has different meanings —such as 'a tool or other device, especially one without electrical power, used for performing a particular piece of work'— because it is a polysemic word, but it has a specialised meaning in the text and in legal language in general. Then, the term 'to construe' means 'to interpret' and it is only used in legal English.

And, finally, in the semantic level, we have the terms that come from other languages. This characteristic about the sources or origins of the legal terminology is one of the most frequent in both legal languages and it is also repeated in both legal texts. In fact, Latinisms are the most frequent types of borrowings and calques, then Gallicisms and Anglicisms.

Latinisms	
EN	ES
[...] <i>foetus</i> [...] (page 5, line 14)	[...] <i>nasciturus</i> [...] (page 5, line 50)
[...] <i>continuance</i> [...] (page 1, line 19)	[...] <i>de officio</i> [...] (page 13, line 35)

Table 5: Latinisms

On the one hand, as we can see in *Table 5*, the English word 'foetus' has preserved the Latin form and is now an English word that can be derived as in 'foetal'. On the other hand, *nasciturus* is a crude Latinism, for that reason, it should be written in italic letters, as the Real Academia Española says. However, this term was not written in italics in the law published in the Spanish Official Gazette. Then, 'continuance' in English and *de officio* in Spanish are both words derived from Latin into Spanish. In addition, in the English law, as well as in the Spanish, we have noticed the use of Latin prefixes, such in 'abnormalities' or *requerimiento*.

As we can see in *Table 6*, the term 'miscarriage', in English, and the term *promoción*, in Spanish, have been derived from French.

Gallicisms	
EN	ES
[...] <i>miscarriage</i> [...] (page 5, line 16)	[...] <i>promoción</i> [...] (page 8, line 35)

Table 6: Gallicisms

Then, in *Table 7*, the term 'practitioner' in English comes from old English and the term *caso* in Spanish comes from English.

Anglicisms	
EN	ES
[...] <i>practitioner</i> [...] (page 1, line 16)	[...] <i>casos</i> [...] (page 6, line 10)

Table 7: Anglicisms

Eventually, it is important to know that, even if there are some Arabisms and Hellenisms mainly in legal Spanish, in these laws, both in English and Spanish, we have not noticed the use of them.

5.3.2. Morphological and syntactic level

After explaining the semantic level, we are going to explain the morphological and syntactic level. First of all, in both legal languages the use of long and complex sentences is very frequent.

LONG AND COMPLEX SENTENCES	
EN	ES
<p><i>The power under subsection (3) of this section to approve a place includes power, in relation to treatment consisting primarily in the use of such medicines as may be specified in the approval and carried out in such manner as may be so specified, to approve a class of places. (page 2, lines 9-12)</i></p>	<p><i>La presente Ley reconoce el derecho a la maternidad libremente decidida, que implica, entre otras cosas, que las mujeres puedan tomar la decisión inicial sobre su embarazo y que esa decisión, consciente y responsable, sea respetada. (page 5, lines 27-29)</i></p>
	<p><i>Se ha dado nueva redacción al artículo 145 del Código Penal con el fin de limitar la pena impuesta a la mujer que consiente o se practica un aborto fuera de los casos permitidos por la ley eliminando la previsión de pena privativa de libertad, por un lado y, por otro, para precisar la imposición de las penas en sus mitades superiores en determinados supuestos. (page 6, lines 24-27)</i></p>
<p><i>(1)The Minister of Health in respect of England and Wales, and the Secretary of State in respect of Scotland, shall by statutory instrument make regulations to provide—</i> <i>(a)for requiring any such opinion as is referred to in section 1 of this Act to be certified by the practitioners or practitioner concerned in such form and at such time as may be prescribed by the regulations, and for requiring the preservation and disposal of certificates made for the purposes of the regulations;</i> <i>(b)for requiring any registered medical practitioner who terminates a pregnancy to give notice of the termination and such other information relating to the termination as may be so prescribed;</i> <i>(c)for prohibiting the disclosure,</i></p>	<p><i>El sistema educativo contemplará la formación en salud sexual y reproductiva, como parte del desarrollo integral de la personalidad y de la formación en valores, incluyendo un enfoque integral que contribuya a:</i> <i>La promoción de una visión de la sexualidad en términos de igualdad y corresponsabilidad entre hombres y mujeres con especial atención a la prevención de la violencia de género, agresiones y abusos sexuales.</i> <i>El reconocimiento y aceptación de la diversidad sexual.</i> <i>El desarrollo armónico de la sexualidad acorde con las características de las personas jóvenes.</i> <i>La prevención de enfermedades e infecciones de transmisión sexual y especialmente la prevención del</i></p>

<p><i>except to such persons or for such purposes as may be so prescribed, of notices given or information furnished pursuant to the regulations. (pages 2 and 3, lines 42-45 and 1-9)</i></p>	<p><i>VIH. La prevención de embarazos no deseados, en el marco de una sexualidad responsable. En la incorporación de la formación en salud y salud sexual y reproductiva al sistema educativo, se tendrán en cuenta la realidad y las necesidades de los grupos o sectores sociales más vulnerables, como el de las personas con discapacidad proporcionando, en todo caso, a este alumnado información y materiales accesibles, adecuados a su edad.(page 9, lines 17-31)</i></p>
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Table 8: Long and complex sentences

In the *Table 8*, in the first English example, we can see that it is a long sentence whose predicate has a main verb with two subordinate phrases and both of them have another subordinate depending on them. Then, in the first Spanish example, we can see the main verb post-modified by a direct object that inside of it has a relative clause, and the relative clause has a direct object, who has two verbs coordinated. The second Spanish example is a complex with multiple-subordinated sentence with infinitives, gerunds and participles. In third place, both in English and Spanish, we can see long, complex and multiple-subordinated phrases. In fact, they are so long and divided into subsections to the subsections. In the English case, the main phrase and the subsections forma a long sentence with no full stop between the subsections. However, even if in the Spanish case there are full stops between the subsections, they all depend on the main phrase.

Multiple-subordinated phrases constitute definitely the most noticeable element of legal syntax in both specialised languages.

As we can see in the examples already explained, there are different syntactic elements that make the sentences of these texts complex and long, the same as happens in legal texts in English and Spanish.

Therefore, now, we are going to exemplify and explain the repeated elements: coordination, subordination, the use of infinitives, gerunds and participles. Other syntactic elements such as the use of ablative absolute clauses and concatenations of phrasal verbs, which are typical on Spanish legal texts and English legal texts respectively, are not noticeably present in these texts.

COORDINATION	
EN	ES
<p><i>[...] that the termination is immediately necessary to save the life or to prevent grave permanent injury to the physical or mental health of the pregnant woman. (page 2, lines 16-17)</i></p>	<p><i>El Título Preliminar establece el objeto, las definiciones, los principios inspiradores de la ley y proclama los derechos que garantiza. (page 6, lines 37-38)</i></p>

Table 9: Coordination

As you can observe, both examples in *Table 9* are sentences with two main verbs coordinated by 'or' and *y*. However, in the English text, coordination is not as much repeated as in the Spanish. And, in the Spanish texts, there is coordination frequently, but subordination is still more frequent.

So, now we are going to explain subordination, in *Table 10*, which is the most repeated element in long and complex sentences and in the syntactic level. This subordination, in the English text, is mainly constituted by infinitive clauses, gerund clauses, participle clauses, and relative clauses. On the other hand, in the Spanish text, this subordination is constituted by prepositional and adverbial locutions that introduce adverbials, by infinitive clauses, gerund clauses, participle clauses, and relative clauses—as the English text—. Hence, in the *Table 7*—below—, we present two examples of subordination in both texts.

SUBORDINATION	
EN	ES
<p>(2) <i>For the purposes of the law relating to abortion, anything done with intent to procure [F16a woman's miscarriage (or, in the case of a woman carrying more than one foetus, her miscarriage of any foetus) is unlawfully done unless authorised by section 1 of this Act and, in the case of a woman carrying more than one foetus, anything done with intent to procure her miscarriage of any foetus is authorised by that section if—[...]</i> (page 5, lines 8-12)</p>	<p><i>Se ha dado nueva redacción al artículo 145 del Código Penal con el fin de limitar la pena impuesta a la mujer que consiente o se practica un aborto fuera de los casos permitidos por la ley eliminando la previsión de pena privativa de libertad, por un lado y, por otro, para precisar la imposición de las penas en sus mitades superiores en determinados supuestos.</i> (page 6, lines 24-27)</p>
<p><i>The bodies to which this section applies are any force which is a visiting force within the meaning of any of the provisions of Part I of the M1Visiting Forces Act 1952 and any headquarters within the meaning of the Schedule to the M2International Headquarters and Defence Organisations Act 1964; and for the purposes of this section— [...]</i> (page 4, lines 10-13)</p>	<p><i>La decisión de tener hijos y cuándo tenerlos constituye uno de los asuntos más íntimos y personales que las personas afrontan a lo largo de sus vidas, que integra un ámbito esencial de la autodeterminación individual.</i> (page 3, lines 11-14)</p>

Table 10: Subordination

Now, as subordinated phrases, we show an example of conditional clauses in *Table 11*, in the next page.

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES	
EN	ES
<i>[...] if the child were born it would suffer from such physical or mental abnormalities [...]</i> (page 1, lines 26-27)	<i>Si excepcionalmente el servicio público de salud no pudiera facilitar en tiempo la prestación, las autoridades sanitarias reconocerán a la mujer embarazada el derecho a [...].</i> (page 12, lines 24-27)

Table 11: Conditional clauses

Conditional clauses are frequent on the English text, but not in the Spanish text.

We are now exemplifying non-personal forms of verbs: infinitive, gerund and participle.

INFINITIVE	
EN	ES
<i>[...] is necessary to prevent grave permanent injury [...]</i> (page 1, line 22)	<i>« [...] Los Estados Partes adoptarán todas las medidas apropiadas para eliminar la discriminación contra [...] »</i> (page 3, lines 25-28)
<i>Nothing in subsection (1) of this section shall affect any duty to participate in treatment [...]</i> (page 4, line 41)	<i>La decisión de tener hijos [...].</i> (page 3, lines 11-14)
<i>[...] shall rest on the person claiming to rely on it.</i> (page 4, line 40) <i>[...] for requiring any registered medical practitioner who terminates a pregnancy to give notice of the termination and such other information relating to the termination as may be so prescribed [...]</i> (page 3, lines 4-6)	<i>[...] busca garantizar y proteger adecuadamente los derechos e intereses en presencia, de la mujer y de la vida prenatal [...]</i> (page 4, lines 18-19)
	<i>[...] no debe estructurar su marco legal de modo que se limiten las posibilidades reales de obtenerlo.</i> (page 4, lines 44-45) <i>[...] eventualmente han podido poner en dificultades a los profesionales [...]</i> (page 4, lines 36-37)

Table 12: Infinitive

In the first example in both languages, in *Table 12*, we can see how the infinitive introduces a subordinate clause, as well as in the second examples. Then, in the third example of both languages, it is also a subordinate, but with

the function of direct object. It is frequent in both texts, but in the Spanish text, it is also very usual finding infinitives after verbs such as *deber*, *querer* or *poder*, as we can see in the last Spanish example.

GERUND	
EN	ES
<i>[...] any existing children of her family [...]</i> (page 1, line 21)	
<i>[...] in the case of a woman carrying more than one foetus [...]</i> (page 5, lines 9-10)	
<i>[...] the ground for termination of the pregnancy specified in subsection (1)(d) of that section applies in relation to any foetus and the thing is done for the purpose of procuring the miscarriage of [...]</i> (page 5, lines 13-15)	<i>El primer deber del legislador es adaptar el Derecho a los valores de la sociedad cuyas relaciones ha de regular, procurando siempre que la innovación normativa genere certeza y seguridad en las personas a quienes se destina [...]</i> (page 4, lines 20-23)

Table 13: Gerund

In the English text, as we can see in *Table 13*, gerunds appear regularly as adjectives —as we can see in the first example—, as relative clauses —as we can see in the second— or as a subordinate clause —as we can see in the third question. In the Spanish text, however, we can see that it is very frequent, but only in subordinate clauses, as in the example above.

PARTICIPLE	
EN	ES
<i>[...] any of the other grounds for the termination of the pregnancy specified in [...]</i> (page 5, lines 16-17)	<i>Esta documentación respetará el derecho de la paciente a la intimidad y confidencialidad en el tratamiento de los datos de carácter personal recogido en este Capítulo.</i> (page 13, lines 28-29)
<i>[...] in a hospital controlled by [...]</i> (page 3, lines 42-43)	<i>Así, en el ámbito de Naciones Unidas, la Convención sobre la eliminación de todas las formas de discriminación contra la Mujer, adoptada por la Asamblea General mediante Resolución 34/180, de 18 de diciembre de 1979 [...]</i> (page 3, lines 22-28).

Table 14: Participle

Participle form, like gerunds and infinitives, as we can see in *Table 14*, is regularly used in the texts of both languages as adjectives —first examples of both texts— and as subordinates —second examples of both texts.

After explaining the complexity of long sentences, we are going to outline the main verbal tenses used in both texts.

VERBAL TENSES	
EN	ES
	<p><i>Los poderes públicos en el desarrollo de sus políticas sanitarias, educativas y sociales garantizarán: [...] (page 8, lines 6-7)</i></p> <p><i>[...] que será articulado en un desarrollo futuro de la Ley. (page 6, lines 22-23)</i></p>
	<p><i>A todos los que la presente vieren y entendieren [...] (page 3, line 5)</i></p> <p><i>La mujer que produjere su aborto o consintiere [...] (page 14, line 27)</i></p>
<p><i>Any person who wilfully contravenes or wilfully fails [...] (page 3, line 14)</i></p> <p><i>[...] when a pregnancy is terminated by [...] (page 1, line 15)</i></p>	<p><i>La protección de este ámbito de autonomía personal tiene una singular significación para las mujeres, para quienes el embarazo y la maternidad son hechos que afectan profundamente a sus vidas en todos los sentidos. (page 3, lines 18-20)</i></p>
<p><i>[...] the pregnant woman had at the time of the treatment [...] (page 4, line 1)</i></p> <p><i>[...] the treatment for the termination of the pregnancy was carried out in [...] (page 3, line 42)</i></p>	<p><i>[...] la aplicación de la ley ha generado incertidumbres y prácticas que han afectado a la seguridad jurídica [...] (page 4, lines 33-38)</i></p> <p><i>[...] la regulación de la interrupción voluntaria del embarazo ha sido enfatizada por el Tribunal Europeo de Derechos Humanos [...] (page 4, lines 39-45)</i></p> <p><i>La reforma del Código Penal supuso un avance al posibilitar [...] (page 4, lines 28-33)</i></p> <p><i>[...] y cuya vigencia fue [...] mantenida por el Código Penal de 1995. (page 7, lines 4-6)</i></p>
	<p><i>[...] conservadas en la historia clínica de tal forma que su mera visualización no sea posible salvo [...] (page 13, lines 9-12)</i></p> <p><i>[...] que esa decisión, consciente y responsable, sea respetada [...] (page 5, line 27-29)</i></p>

	<p>[...] <i>Que se haya informado a la mujer embarazada [...]</i> (page 10, line 31)</p> <p>[...] <i>cuya eficacia haya sido avalada por la evidencia científica [...]</i> (page 14, line 9)</p>
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Table 15: Verbal tenses

The *Table 15* shows us that the main verbal tense used in the Spanish text is the future of indicative, which is also called future of obligation, due to the information of the sentences where it is used, as we can see in the first example. Then, in the Spanish second example, we can see future imperfect of subjunctive, which is typical in Spanish legal texts, and which also appears in this text, but not frequently. Then, the English and the Spanish texts share the frequent use of present simple, but it is more repeated in the English text. Then, we have the use of past simple and past perfect—in indicative mode in Spanish—, frequent in both texts. Later, in the Spanish text, the use of subjunctive is also persistent: in present and in past perfect of subjunctive, as we can see in the four last examples.

We tried to find examples of the tenses in passive voice, if those tenses were frequently used in passive voice, because passive sentences are very common in these texts, and also in both specialised languages.

PASSIVE SENTENCES	
EN	ES
<p>[...] <i>the treatment for termination of the pregnancy was carried out in a hospital controlled by the proper authorities of a body to which this section applies [...]</i> (page 3, lines 42-43)</p>	<p><i>La necesidad de reforzar la seguridad jurídica en la regulación de la interrupción voluntaria del embarazo ha sido enfatizada por el Tribunal Europeo de Derechos Humanos [...]</i> (page 4, lines 39-45).</p>
	<p><i>El primer deber del legislador es adaptar el Derecho a los valores de la sociedad cuyas relaciones ha de regular, procurando siempre que la innovación normativa genere certeza y seguridad en las personas a quienes se destina, pues la libertad sólo encuentra refugio en el suelo firme de la claridad y precisión de la Ley.</i> (page 4, lines 20-24)</p>

Table 16: Passive sentences

In the first row of *Table 16*, we can see two examples of passive sentences, one in English and another in Spanish, then, in the second row, there is another example in Spanish; *se destina* looks like a passive sentence, but it is not. It is a verb in personal form accompanied by the pronoun *se* in order to avoid saying who is the subject; that is why it looks like a passive sentence. In fact, as well as passive sentences in English are recurrent, *se* sentences are very present in the Spanish text—in the Spanish texts there are also a lot of passive sentences.

Afterwards, authoritarian and deontic structures appear in our texts, as we can see in *Table 17*.

AUTHORITARIAN AND DEONTIC STRUCTURES	
EN	ES
<i>[...] shall be notified [...]</i> (page 3, line 11)	<i>El primer deber del legislador es adaptar el Derecho a los valores de la sociedad cuyas relaciones ha de regular [...]</i> (page4, lines 20-23)
<i>[...] shall have effect [...]</i> (page 4, line 6)	
<i>[...] shall not be guilty of [...]</i> (page 1, line 14)	<i>[...] están obligados a no interferir [...]</i> (page 3, line 14)
<i>[...] may be prescribed [...]</i> (page 3, line 1)	
<i>[...] in such manner as may be so specified [...]</i> (page 2, line 11)	<i>[...] deben establecer las condiciones para que se adopten de forma libre y responsable [...]</i> (page 3, line 14)
<i>[...] must be carried out [...]</i> (page 2, line 4)	

Table 17: Authoritarian and deontic structures

In order to express obligation, in the English text, they used structures the structures with *shall*, *may* and *must* —*must* is the least repeated— as we can observe in *Table 17*. On the other hand, in the Spanish text we found structures as *haber de*, *estar obligado a* or *deber* in order to obligate. There structures are very usual in legal texts of both languages, but in the English law are more used than in the Spanish.

After explaining the syntactic elements, we are going to show the main morphological elements.

In first place, the already-explained phenomenon of nominalisation, which we can see in *Table 18*, is present in both laws; in fact, is one of the most prominent characteristics of these specific texts in both texts and of both legal languages. In addition, these texts share the condition of nominalisations usually followed by prepositional clauses and also concatenations of nominalisations and prepositional clauses. Nevertheless, the Spanish law has more variety of prepositions following nominalised terms and the English one has not.

NOMINALISATION	
EN	ES
<i>Preservation and disposal of certificates [...]</i> . (page 2, line 15)	<i>Derogación del artículo [...]</i> . (page 14, line 11)

Table 18: Nominalisation

On the one hand, in the English law, we can observe frequent nominalisations, as the table below shows, and these nominalisations are usually followed by prepositional clauses. The expression mainly repeated is 'noun + of', even if there are some expressions that include the preposition 'for'. Furthermore, there are also concatenations of nominalisations and prepositional clauses: *The treatment for the termination of the pregnancy [...]* (page 2, line 39).

On the other hand, in the Spanish law, we can see abundant nominalisations, as the example of the table. And these nominalisations are usually followed by a prepositional locution:

- 'Noun + de' is the most repeated: *Acceso y cesión de datos [...]* (page 13, line 12).
- 'Noun + en' is also repeated: *Inclusión en la cartera de servicios [...]* (page 7 line 2).
- 'Noun + a' is also repeated: *Acceso a los datos [...]* (page 13, line 14).
- 'Noun + para' also occurs frequently: *Habilitación para el desarrollo [...]* (page 15, line 21).
- 'Noun + por + de', in this case, two prepositional clauses depend on the nominalised term, the one introduced by *por*, which is an agent and the one introduced by *de*: *Ejercicio por la paciente de su derecho [...]* (page 13, line 41).

In addition, the appearance of adjectives between the noun and the preposition has been repeated: *El acceso universal a los servicios [...]*. These adjectives, in English, usually pre-modify the nominalised word; however, nominalised words in our English law aren't usually pre-modified by adjectives.

Besides, there are also concatenations of nominalisations and prepositional clauses also happen repeatedly in the Spanish texts —we already said that it happens in the English text too: *[...] y la confidencialidad en el tratamiento de sus datos [...]*.

These nominalisations have been created with derivation, in particular through suffixation, as is shown in *Table 19*:

SUFFIXATION	
EN	ES
<i>[...] make regulations to provide [...]</i> (page 2, line 10).	<i>[...] de la elaboración de [...]</i> (page 6, line 45).

Table 19: Suffixation

Following the examples in *Table 16*, on the one hand, the English example 'regulation' is a nominalised term from 'to regulate' —in fact, this is another example of emptiness— and the procedure used to arrive to the nominalised term is derivation, in particular, suffixation. The most frequent suffix is '-ation', but the suffix '-ment' ('treatment', page 2, line 3) is also repeated. On the other hand, in the Spanish law, *elaboración* is a nominalised term from *elaborar*. In order to get to the nominalisation, non-nominalised term was derived through suffixation, in this case, with the suffix *-ación*, which is the most repeated. The second most used suffix for nominalisation is *-miento*, such as in *cumplimiento* (page 6, line 50).

Later, these nominalisations lead us to the next characteristic of these laws, which is, as explained in the third chapter of this project, emptiness. Emptiness is a very marked characteristic of legal Spanish, and we can see it also in these two specific texts, as is exemplified in *Table 20*. However, due to the difference of extent between both texts, as explained before, in the Spanish law appears much more frequently than in the English law.

EMPTINESS	
EN	ES
[...] <i>to give notice of the termination</i> [...] (page 2, line 18)	[...] <i>tendrá una duración</i> [...] (page 10, line 3)

Table 20: Emptiness

In the English law, we found many examples of emptiness, such as the one in the table where instead of using 'to notice', they decided to use 'notice' as a noun with the verb 'to give', which gives no information, complementing it. Nevertheless, the Spanish law has more emptiness's repetitions. In the Spanish example of emptiness, instead of using *durará*, they nominalised *durar* into *duración*, and used *tendrá*, which gives no information, with it.

After nominalisation, the use of anaphors is noticeable in both laws, as we show in the Table 18:

ANAPHORS	
EN	ES
[...] <i>this</i> [...] (page 2, line 1)	[...] <i>esta Ley</i> [...] (page 7, line 23)
[...] <i>said</i> [...] (page 4, line 17)	[...] <i>previsto</i> [...] (page 10, line 24)
[...] <i>aforesaid</i> [...] (page 4, line 16)	[...] <i>presente</i> [...] (page 7, line 18)

Table 21: Anaphors

The anaphor more repeated in both texts, as we can observe in *Table 21*, is the demonstrative pronoun 'this' in English and *esta* —with all its variations in number and genre— in Spanish. After that, we noticed also the use of 'said' and 'aforesaid' in English and *previsto* or *presente* as anaphors among others.

ADVERBS	
EN	ES
[...] <i>seriously</i> [...] (page 1, line 27)	[...] <i>condiciones legalmente</i>
[...] <i>solely</i> [...] (page 3, line 11)	<i>previstas</i> [...] (page 4, line 30).
[...] <i>unlawfully</i> [...] (page 5, line 10)	[...] <i>señaladamente</i> , [...] (page 5, line 3)
[...] <i>wilfully</i> [...] (page 3, line 14)	[...] <i>libre y responsablemente</i> [...] (page 5, line 24).
	[...] <i>estricta y exclusivamente</i> [...] (page 13, line 23)
<i>Provided that</i> [...] (page 4, line 39)	<i>A los efectos de</i> [...] (page 7, line 23)

Table 22: Adverbs

In both laws, as we can see in *Table 22*, there is an important abundance of adverbs derived by suffixation of adjectives: adding the suffix '-ly' and *-mente* into English and Spanish adjectives respectively.

Furthermore, we also found examples of adverbial locutions. On the one hand, the English second example is the only example of adverbial locution in initial position in the text. As we said before, the abundant use of adverbs in initial position is a characteristic of legal English texts, but not of this text. In this case, these adverbs have been replaced by the use of prepositional locutions in initial position. On the other hand, the use of adverbs and adverbial locutions in initial position is frequent in the Spanish text, as we can observe in the example. In addition, there are also many adverbs in non-initial position such the ones

already explained suffixed with *-mente*, and others like: [...] *con perspectiva de [...]*.

As we have said, in the English text particularly, adverbial locutions in initial position have been replaced by prepositional locutions. In the Spanish prepositional locutions are also more usual than adverbial locutions. We show some examples of prepositional locutions in the *Table 23*, below:

PREPOSITIONAL LOCUTIONS	
EN	ES
<i>In determining whether the continuance of [...]</i> (page 1, line 28)	<i>En el desarrollo de [...]</i> (page 5, line 49)
<i>[...] in pursuance of [...]</i> (page 3, line 10)	
<i>[...] by virtue of [...]</i> (page 3, line 10)	<i>[...] de conformidad con [...]</i> (page 7, line 43)

Table 23: Prepositional locutions

The abundance of prepositional locutions in the English text marks the progress and sequencing of the text.

Besides, there are also other prepositional locutions in the text —not in initial position— such as the second example. And, the third example is related to the legal English’s characteristic of the use of peculiar and complex prepositional locutions which also appears in the Spanish text, as we can see in the example.

In relation to the use of prepositions, we said before, in the third chapter, that the use of suffixed prepositions was frequent in legal English, but in this text it is not very usual. In fact, we found only ‘hereby’.

And finally, in order to conclude the morphological and syntactic level of our analysis, we are going to exemplify pre and post-modification in *Table 24*.

PRE- AND POST-MODIFICATION
EN
<i>[...] of this subsection and to a hospital controlled as aforesaid [...]</i> (page 4, line 9)
<i>[...] in the case of such a force as aforesaid [...]</i> (page 4, line 16)

Table 24: Pre- and post-modification

The use of determinatives as ‘such’ and ‘aforesaid’ as pre- and post-modifiers in the English text is very abundant.

5.3.3. Stylistic level

Once we have explained the two first levels, in the stylistic level, which is the last one, we can distinguish three main characteristics, the first one is the lack of punctuation, the second is the peculiar use of capitals and the third one is the use of bold letters and italics.

In first place, the lack of punctuation, shown in the *Table 25*, is present frequently in both legal languages and also in both laws, and it makes difficult the comprehension of the information and more for non-specialised readers.

LACK OF PUNCTUATION	
EN	ES
<i>[...] that there is a substantial risk that if the child were born it would suffer from such physical or mental abnormalities as to be seriously handicapped [...]</i> (page 1, lines 26-27)	<i>La necesidad de reforzar la seguridad jurídica en la regulación de la interrupción voluntaria del embarazo ha sido enfatizada por el Tribunal Europeo de Derechos Humanos en su sentencia de 20 de marzo de 2007 en la que se afirma, por un lado, que «en este tipo de situaciones las previsiones legales deben, en primer lugar y ante todo, asegurar la claridad de la posición jurídica de la mujer embarazada» y, por otro lado, que «una vez que el legislador decide permitir el aborto, no debe estructurar su marco legal de modo que se limiten las posibilidades reales de obtenerlo».</i> (page 4, lines 39-45)

Table 25: Lack of punctuation

In the English example, we can see that between 'were born' and 'it would', a coma is needed, and in the Spanish example, between 2007 and *en la que*, we need a coma, and also between *situaciones* and *las previsiones*.

USE OF CAPITALS	
ES	
<i>Annotations: Modifications etc. (not altering the text) [...]</i> <i>Commencement Information [...]</i> (page 1, lines 5-12) <i>Amendments (Textual) [...]</i> <i>Subordinate Legislation Made [...]</i> (page 3, lines 26-35)	<i>La disposición final primera da nueva redacción al artículo 145 del Código Penal e introduce un nuevo artículo 145 bis, y la disposición final segunda modifica el apartado cuarto del artículo 9 de la Ley 41/2002, de 14 de noviembre, básica reguladora de la autonomía del paciente y de derechos y obligaciones en materia de información y documentación clínica.</i> (page 5, lines 6-11) <i>Que se realice con el consentimiento expreso y por escrito de la mujer</i>

	<i>embarazada o, en su caso, del representante legal, de conformidad con lo establecido en la Ley 41/2002, Básica Reguladora de la Autonomía del Paciente y de Derechos y Obligaciones en materia de información y documentación clínica. (page 10, lines 20-23)</i>
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Table 26: Use of capitals

As we already said, and as we can see in *Table 26*, the arbitrary use of capitals in legal languages is frequent. In particular, in these texts we did not find this characteristic in abundance, but we found an example of it in the each text. As you can see in the *Table 26*, in English, for Annotations there is an arbitrary use of capitals, as well as in Spanish, for the name of the same law, in the first example, is not written in capitals, but in the second it is written in capitals. Names of laws should be written in capitals³⁶.

Later, the use of bold letters is particular because on its presence in titles, names and numbers of articles among others:

BOLD	
EN	ES
Changes to legislation: [...] (heading of all the document)	
Abortion Act 1967 1967 CHAPTER 87 (page 1, lines 1-2)	
1 Medical termination of pregnancy (page 1, lines 13)	TÍTULO PRELIMINAR Disposiciones generales (page 7, lines 15-16) CAPÍTULO I Políticas públicas para la salud sexual y reproductiva (page 8, lines 3-4)
	Artículo 7. <i>Atención a la salud sexual y reproductiva</i> (page 8, line 33)
Annotations: Modifications etc. (not altering the text) Commencement Information (page 1, lines 5-12) Amendments (Textual) Subordinate Legislation Made (page 3, lines 26-35)	

Table 27: Bold

As you can see in the *Table 27*, bold letters in English are used in the name of 'changes of legislation' in the heading of all pages, and then in the short title

³⁶ Fundeu BBVA says this: <https://www.fundeu.es/recomendacion/leyes-grafia-de-los-nombres-no-oficiales-530/>

and official name of the law. Then, in Spanish, for the name of chapters and titles, bold letters are used, but not for the previous number of that same chapter and title; however, in articles it happens backwards: the number is written in bold letters and not the title. On the other hand, in English, both the numbers and titles of sections are in bold letters, as we can see in the third row of the *Table 27*. And, finally, the name 'annotations' (and all its variants) is written in bold letters.

ITALICS	
EN	ES
[...] <i>Changes to legislation</i> [...] (heading of all the document)	
	Artículo 1. <i>Objeto</i> (page 7, line 17)
	[...] <i>nasciturus</i> [...] (page 5, line 50)

Table 28: Italics

In relation to the use of italics, as we can see in *Table 28*, in the English text, as we can see in the first row, all the information located at the heading of the page is written in italics. On the other hand, the name of the articles is written in italics, and the number, as we already said, in bold letters. Finally, we found a crude Latinism in the Spanish text that, as we said, should be written in italics³⁷, but it was not.

To finish with the stylistic level and with the micro-structural analysis, the place where the number of the pages are located in both texts is different: in the English law, even numbers are in the heading aligned to the left and odd numbers are in the heading aligned to the right. Nevertheless, the Spanish law all the numbers of the pages are located in the page footer and centre-aligned.

6. CONCLUSIONS

This work is the result of the union of translation and intercultural mediation skills as the main objective of the double-degree programme.

Once the theoretical and practical development of the present end-of-degree project has been completed, in this final section, we close our project with a series of conclusions whose purpose is to check whether we have reached the objectives proposed at the beginning, relating to the linguistic analysis between a particular law in English and Spanish.

As we have previously explained, our main intention was to analyse from a comparative point of view the macro- and microstructural particularities of the abortion law in two different legal systems, United Kingdom and Spain.

For this reason, in the second and third chapter we studied the characteristics of the two legal systems and the main features of the two specialised languages, emphasizing what differentiates them, but also what resembles them. This theoretical framework helped us to analyse both texts and to draw the following conclusions of the case-study.

On the one hand, about the macro-structural analysis, we could say that we found many similarities and differences between both texts. First of all, we

³⁷ Real Academia Española about italics in Latinisms: <http://www.rae.es/consultas/los-extranjerismos-y-latinismos-crudos-no-adaptados-deben-escribirse-en-cursiva>

noticed that the Spanish abortion law —in contrast to the English abortion law— not only regulates abortion, but also sexual and reproductive health, and, for this reason, the Spanish law is longer. In the first page, they share information as dates —which do not indicate the same in both laws—, and the official citation of the law. Then, we saw that in the Spanish law there was a long preamble, while in the English law there was only a long title explaining what the law is about.

After that we could see that in the English law there are annotations throughout all the sections, and these annotations do not exist in the Spanish law. However, the four first sections of the English law explaining the regulation of abortion correspond to the second title of the Spanish law, and Spanish law's provisions correspond to the three final sections of the English law. Finally, the conclusive formula is different in each law. As a result, we saw that the macrostructure of the English law is simpler than the macro-structure of the Spanish law; however, the annotations complicate the comprehension of the English law, while these modifications are already included in the text of the Spanish law.

On the other hand, we are going to divide micro-structural analysis' conclusions into three levels —as we did in our analysis—: semantic level, morphological and syntactic level, and stylistic level.

Firstly, in relation to the semantic level, we perceived similarities between both laws in the abundance of terms coming from other languages, and, among these terms, Latinisms were the most repeated in both laws and, in particular, they were more abundant in the Spanish text³⁸. This tendency is typical in both legal languages due to the attachment to classical and traditional expressions. We also found Gallicisms and Anglicisms: Gallicisms were not very abundant and Anglicisms, from ancient English, appeared more frequently in the English texts due to the origins of modern English, as well as Latinisms are more frequent in the Spanish law, since it is a Romance language.

Then, in the Spanish text we found abundant creation of new terms and lexical redundancy —which were not abundant in the English text— and they are another characteristic of legal Spanish that shows us the excessive formalism and over-elaborated lexicon. However, in the English law, we found more common terms with special meaning, which were not as frequent in the Spanish law.

Secondly, in relation to the morphological and syntactic level, the most notable feature in both texts was the abundance of long and complex sentences. This frequency of long and complex sentences shows us the concern for precision and detail, as laws should be understood by all citizens; nevertheless, sometimes this tendency makes difficult the comprehension of the text. In addition, this feature of complexity in sentences was different in each law: long and complex sentences in the English law were mainly composed of infinitive, gerund, and participle clauses, and also relative clauses; while in Spanish these sentences are composed of the same clauses as in English and of prepositional clauses and adverbial locutions. In addition to complex and long sentences, we noticed that coordination was more frequent in the Spanish text than in the English text and subordination was very abundant in both texts. Then, the use of conditionals was more prominent in the English law. Infinitives and participles were repeated in both texts and also gerunds, but these las had different functions in each text —

³⁸ It is important to notice that, as we have previously explained, the Spanish text is much longer than the English text, so the appearance and repetition of some features can be due to this fact.

in English as adjectives and main verbs of subordinate clauses and in Spanish only for subordinate clauses.

After that, we saw that in the Spanish law there was more variation of verbal tenses through the text, which was not present in the English text. Although passive voice was abundant in both texts, we noticed that it was more frequent in the English law and that in the Spanish law there were more passive expressions formed with the pronoun *se*. Passive voice in these texts is used in order to impersonalise the actions, *i.e.* in order to avoid saying who carries out the action.

Still speaking about verbs, we observed that there were deontic structures in both texts —but these were more prominent in the English text—, which are used to express obligation, since the main objective of a law is to obligate.

Later, from a morphological point of view, nominalisations are significantly repeated in both texts, and as a result, also concatenations of nominalisations, suffixation in order to nominalise and emptiness. In fact, emptiness was more frequent in the Spanish text. These nominalisations and their consequential features are stereotyped and rhetoric expressions that do not add any information to communication. Then, anaphors appeared repeatedly in the English and in the Spanish law, but in the Spanish law we noticed more variety of terms for anaphors. Regarding to suffixed adverbs and adverbial locutions, they were present in both texts —but peculiar adverbial locutions were more frequent in the English law— which show us the archaizing characteristic of these laws. Next, we saw pre- and post-modification only in the English law.

Thirdly, in relation to the stylistic level, we found lack of punctuation in both laws and an arbitrary use of capitals also in both texts; these stylistic features make difficult the comprehension of the text.

So, despite the difficulties encountered, we were able to carry out the analysis and contrast the main differences and similarities of these two normative texts based on the two authors mentioned before.

To summarise, we can say that one of the strengths of this end-of-degree project is the previous knowledge of legal texts that has made easier the comprehension of the texts. Furthermore, we are aware that this is a short study, since we only analysed two laws; however it has allowed us to go in depth into the study of legal texts. It has also been helpful to know the scope of the law to which the cases apply, which is abortion.

As a result of this end-of-degree project, we obtain the macro- and micro-structural contrastive analysis of the abortion laws in the United Kingdom and Spain. Thanks to this analysis, those who are unaware of the particularities of legal English and legal Spanish, as well as their particularities in the laws and the differences between them will be able to obtain this information.

Moreover, the research we have made in our analysis could be continued; future lines of research could be based on this study in order to compare and analyse other laws, or to add more laws to this analysis or other abortion laws.

In the personal sphere, I have to admit that when I chose this field of language and this field of law, I based mainly on my previous knowledge and my personal interests. However, throughout this work, I have enjoyed working with the chosen texts and increasing my knowledge in legal language.

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